How and when downsizing affects survivors' innovative performance : three sequential studies examining the critical role of interpersonal conflict

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Three sequential studies examining the critical role of Interpersonal Conflict

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Affidavit

I, undersigned Rahman Ullah, hereby declare that the work presented in this manuscript is my own work, carried out under the scientific direction of Prof. Florent NOEL (thesis director), following the principles of honesty, integrity, and responsibility inherent to the research mission. The research work and the writing of this manuscript have been carried out in compliance with both the French national charter for Research Integrity and the University Paris 1, Pantheon Sorbonne, France charter on the fight against plagiarism.

This work has not been submitted previously either in this country or in another country in the same or a similar version to any other examination body.

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Dedication

Dedicated to my parents, whose love and prayers always encouraged me, and to all my family members, especially my elder brother Hayat Ullah, whose support always strengthened me.

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Abstract

How and when Downsizing affects Survivors' Innovative Performance:

Three sequential studies examining the critical role of Interpersonal Conflict

Researchers have a long debate regarding the downsizing effects on various performance outcomes. The questions that still need to be addressed by downsizing researchers are how and when downsizing affects performance outcomes, especially innovative performance at the individual level? In addition, downsizing scholars have largely neglected the critical role of interpersonal conflict in fostering the adverse effects of downsizing. Therefore, this dissertation aims to answer these questions with a quantitative study of business professionals working in various organizations in Pakistan. To do so, we conducted three sequential studies to examine the unaddressed and unexplored outcomes of downsizing (e.g., interpersonal conflict, innovative performance). Study 1 examined how and when downsizing leads to interpersonal conflict (e.g., task, process, and relationship conflicts) by detailing the mediating role of workload and the moderating effect of organizational restructuring. In study 2, we examined how and when task and process conflicts lead to relationship conflict by detailing the mediating role of negative emotions and the moderating effect of emotional intelligence. Study 3 examined the relationship between interpersonal conflict (e.g., task, process, and relationship conflicts) and employees' innovative performance by detailing the moderating effects of employees' goal orientations. The findings revealed that downsizing leads to interpersonal conflict among survivors via workload; however, organizational restructuring minimizes survivors' workload, subsequently reducing interpersonal conflict. The task and process conflicts lead to the relationship conflict via negative emotions; however, employees' emotional intelligence minimizes negative emotions, subsequently reducing the relationship conflict. Moreover, interpersonal conflict (i.e., task, process, and relationship conflicts) negatively affects employees' innovative performance; however, employees' mastery goal orientation decreases while performance goal orientation increases the adverse effects of interpersonal conflict on innovative performance. Across the three studies, we found general support for our theoretical predictions, contributing to the downsizing and restructuring, interpersonal conflict, emotions and emotional intelligence, innovative performance, and goal orientations literature, and providing practical implications for the managers and employees.

Keywords: Downsizing, Restructuring, Workload, Interpersonal Conflict, Task Conflict, Process Conflict, Relationship Conflict, Negative Emotions, Emotional Intelligence, Mastery Goal Orientation, Performance Goal Orientation, Innovative Job Performance

Résumé

Les suppressions d'emplois conduisent-elles toujours à une diminution de la capacité d'innovation des survivants ?
Trois études séquentielles mettant en évidence le rôle critique des conflits interpersonnels

La recherche a longtemps discuté des effets des suppressions d'emplois sur différentes dimensions de la performance. Elle a toutefois relativement délaissé les effets des réductions d'effectifs sur la capacité d'innovation, notamment à l'échelle individuelle. Or, il nous semble que ces événements critiques peuvent conduire à une augmentation de la conflictualité nuisant à la capacité des individus à innover. Ces constats nous amènent à proposer une recherche consacrée à la question suivante : Comment et quand les suppressions d'emploi affectent-elles la performance des individus en matière d'innovation?

Pour aborder cette question, nous nous appuyons sur une étude quantitative reposant sur les données issues d'un questionnaire adressé à des managers travaillant dans diverses organisations pakistanaises.

Trois études complémentaires ont été conduites. La première examine comment et quand les suppressions d'emplois conduisent à des conflits interpersonnels (conflits liés aux tâches, aux processus ou aux relations). Le rôle médiateur de la charge de travail et l'effet modérateur des efforts de restructuration accompagnant les suppressions d'emplois sont examinés.

La deuxième étude prolonge la précédente et porte sur les conflits de tâches et de processus et cherche à montrer que les désaccords fonctionnels sur le travail à faire et sur la façon de le faire peuvent conduire à des conflits relationnels. Le rôle médiateur des émotions négatives et l'effet modérateur de l'intelligence émotionnelle sont mis en évidence.

La troisième étude examine enfin la relation entre conflits interpersonnels et la performance des individus en termes d'innovation. L'orientation des salariés vers l'atteinte de leurs objectifs ou vers la maîtrise de leur rôle est identifiée comme un des éléments modérateurs de cette relation.

Nos résultats montrent que les réductions d'effectifs conduisent à des conflits interpersonnels entre « les survivants » lorsque la charge de travail augmente, ce qui peut découler d'une restructuration insuffisante de l'organisation qui continue à fonctionner avec un effectif réduit sans avoir redéfini les tâches ou les processus. Ces conflits portant sur les tâches ou sur les processus peut générer des émotions négatives et, par suite, des conflits relationnels, particulièrement lorsque l'intelligence émotionnelle des salariés est faible. Enfin, nous montrons que ces conflits portant sur les tâches ou les processus ou les conflits relationnels réduisent la performance des individus en termes d'innovation, notamment lorsqu'ils sont orientés vers l'atteinte de résultats. Lorsqu'ils sont focalisés vers la maîtrise de leur activité, cet effet négatif des conflits sur l'innovation est moindre.

Ces trois études empiriques confirment les jeux d'hypothèses issues de la revue de la littérature et contribuent à une meilleure connaissance des liens entre suppressions d'emplois, restructurations, conflits interpersonnels, émotions, intelligence émotionnelle, orientation des salariés et performances en termes d'innovation. Ces contributions permettent de nourrir

quelques recommandations sur la façon de gérer les suppressions d'emplois en diminuant certains de leurs effets pervers.

Mots-clés: Réduction d'effectifs, suppressions d'emplois, restructuration, charge de travail, conflit interpersonnel, conflit de tâches, conflit de processus, conflit relationnels, émotions négatives, intelligence émotionnelle, orientation vers un objectif de maîtrise, orientation vers un objectif de performance, comportement innovateur au travail.

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List of Abbreviations

AET	Affective Event Theory
ASV	Average Shared Variance
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
BTF	Behavioral Theory of the Firm
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
CMB	Common Method Biasness
CMV	Common Method Variance
CR	Composite Reliability
DF	Degree of Freedom
DS	Downsizing
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
EI	Emotional Intelligence
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IP	Innovative Job Performance
MO	Mastery Goal Orientation
N	Number
NE	Negative Emotions
PC	Process Conflict
PIDE	Pakistan Institute of Development Economics
PO	Performance Goal Orientation
RC	Relationship Conflict
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
RS	Restructuring

SD	Standard Deviation
SE	Standard Error
SRMR	Standardized Root Mean Square Residual
TC	Task Conflict
UK	United Kingdom
USA	United States of America
UNCTAD	United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
UNIDO	United Nations Industrial Development Organization
WEIP	Workgroup Emotional Intelligence Profile
WL	Workload

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CHAPTER 1:

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

Chapter 1

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1. Chapter Overview

This first chapter outlines the building blocks of the dissertation by discussing the research background, research gaps, and theoretical contributions, followed by research objectives and questions, the dissertation's framework, and the rationale behind choosing the dissertation's framework. Finally, the conceptualization of study variables, an overview of the three articles, and a brief discussion of the dissertation's methodology, structure, and timeline have been provided.

2. Research Background

Globalization and restructuring of the economy have intensified competition among business organizations (Baillien & De Witte, 2009; Giebels et al., 2016), putting the high performance, cost-cutting, innovation, and quality improvement pressure on the business firms (Freeman, 1999; Ramdani et al., 2021). Organizational survival is at stake in today's highly competitive business world. Only those organizations can survive, grow, and compete that develop and implement new strategies according to the current economic conditions and rapid environmental changes (Appelbaum et al., 2015; Tsai & Yen, 2018). Accordingly, modern organizations continuously develop new strategies to remain competitive in today's uncertain and economically challenging business world (Giebels et al., 2016). Downsizing is one of those strategies business organizations use to decrease cost and increase efficiency. According to Cascio (1993), people's cost is roughly thirty to eighty percent of most companies' general and administrative costs. Therefore, cost-cutting through cutting employees is a natural strategy for organizational survival in the globally competitive market (Baillien & De Witte, 2009; Mujtaba & Senathip, 2020). Accordingly, downsizing became a favorite business practice for the organizations in trouble (Kets De Vries & Balazs, 1997). Management uses downsizing as a

quick-fix approach for cost reduction by decreasing the organizational workforce to cope with the economic downturn (Burke & Nelson, 1997; Tsai & Yen, 2018).

Downsizing affected hundreds of companies and millions of workers in 1980 due to economic recession (Appelbaum et al., 1997; Cascio, 1993). The 1980s and 1990s became the era of organizational restructuring (Allen et al., 2001), due to which the importance of downsizing increased for both researchers and practitioners (Freeman, 1994). In the past, downsizing used to be conducted by failing organizations only; however, it has become the favorite business practice of today's successful organizations for achieving competitive advantages through decreasing overhead costs and increasing efficiency. Companies that downsize once downsize again, and the theme of 'downsize first, and ask questions later' became dominant (Burke, 2009). In the past, companies mostly used to lay off blue-collar workers, but now, their focus has been shifted from blue-collar downsizing to white-collar downsizing, in which they eliminate the middle managers (Burke, 2009; Cascio, 1993; Freeman, 1994). Due to its high impact and frequency, downsizing is a burning issue today, and it will continue in the future (Datta et al., 2010; Mujtaba & Senathip, 2020).

The previous researchers have identified various external/environmental and internal/firm-level factors that could cause downsizings (Datta et al., 2010; Gandolfi & Hansson, 2011), including global competition, restructuring of the economy (Freeman & Cameron, 1993), and economic recession (Burke & Nelson, 1997). Similarly, some other researchers demonstrated that firms downsize due to benchmarking in cost efficiency, eliminating redundancy, strategic errors of the top management (Kets De Vries & Balazs, 1996, 1997), response to environmental threats, and merger or acquisition (Appelbaum & Donia, 2000). Irrespective of the causes of downsizing, it has individual, organizational, and societal effects. It

brings changes in the size, cost, and process of the organizations (Cameron, 1994b) and affects both organizational performance (business effects) and the executioners, victims, and survivors (human effects) (Appelbaum, Lavigne-Schmidt, et al., 1999; Datta et al., 2010; Fernández-Menéndez et al., 2020). Firms that downsize expect positive results such as decreasing overhead costs, minimizing bureaucracy, smooth communication, quick decision-making, increasing entrepreneurship and productivity (Burke & Nelson, 1997; Cascio, 1993; Kets De Vries & Balazs, 1997), and improving competitiveness and efficiency through efficient utilization of the organizational human resources (Cameron, 1994b, 1994a; Datta et al., 2010; Fernández-Menéndez et al., 2020). However, only a few organizations achieve the desired downsizing objectives up to some limits, and most of them face unintended negative consequences (Burke & Nelson, 1997). The success rate of organizations to reach the financial and performance goals of downsizing is less than the rate of failure (Burke, 2009). Studies on the relationship between downsizing and firm performance have mixed results (Bommer & Jalajas, 1999; Love & Nohria, 2005); therefore, the downsizing impacts on individual and organizational outcomes remain poorly understood (Fernández-Menéndez et al., 2020; Ramdani et al., 2021), which warrants further investigation.

There are two schools of thought regarding the downsizing outcomes: agency theorists (e.g., Leibenstein, 1966; Jensen & Meckling, 1976) favor downsizing because they link organizational slacks with inefficiency and argue that managers misuse the corporate slacks to serve their personal interests. Organizational slack is the difference between total resources available and total required payments (Cyert & March, 1963) when the available resources exceed the demanded resources. Slacks have three types: available, absorbed, and potential slacks (Guha, 2016). Since downsizing is the process of absorbed slack reduction (Love &

Nohria, 2005); therefore, agency theorists (e.g., Leibenstein, 1966; Jensen & Meckling, 1976) favor downsizing, arguing that slack reduction would decrease overhead cost and increase efficiency. Accordingly, some researchers have demonstrated a few short-term positive effects of downsizing on the companies' share prices (wall street effect) (Appelbaum, Lavigne-Schmidt, et al., 1999; Cameron, 1994a) and the company product and marketing innovation (Fernández-Menéndez et al., 2020). Similarly, some other researchers supported a few positive effects of the downsizing on survivors, such as an increase in survivors' span of control, improving their competencies, increasing their career development chances, and efficient utilization of their capabilities (Appelbaum, Lavigne-Schmidt, et al., 1999). Kinanga and Cheruiyot (2015) also argued that downsizing could improve survivors' effectiveness and efficiency in performing their duties, enhancing organizational performance. However, numerous researchers (e.g., Cameron, 1994a; Cascio, 1993; Kets De Vries & Balazs, 1997) criticized the agency theorists' approach. They argued that employees are not like machines to plug in when needed and unplug when you do not need them. The organizations should consider employees as an asset to be prepared for the global business Olympics by investing in them, rather than considering them as a liability to be eliminated when not needed.

In contrast to the agency theory, the behavioral theory of the firm (Cyert & March, 1963) supports a certain level of organizational slack in the firms, arguing that organizational slack is beneficial for the coalition, smooth operations, and conflict minimization. Since downsizing is the process of absorbed slack reduction (e.g., workforce) (Love & Nohria, 2005); therefore, the behavioral theory of the firm does not favor downsizing (workforce reduction). They argue that downsizing could promote organizational conflict, which according to research (e.g., O'Neill et al., 2013; Rezvani et al., 2019; Shaukat et al., 2017), negatively affects employees' satisfaction

and performance. Similarly, numerous researchers demonstrated that slack reduction enhances competition for the limited exclusive resources (Cameron et al., 1987; Pitelis, 2007), promoting organizational conflict (Ashman, 2016; Freeman, 1994; Kets De Vries & Balazs, 1996; Pitelis, 2007), which generates harmful effects. Accordingly, the majority of the researchers demonstrated that downsizing negatively affects the individual employee, the organization, and society (Burke, 2009; Dlouhy & Casper, 2021). They argued that downsizing, on the one hand, negatively affects the downsized firms' operational and financial performance. On the other hand, it arises psychological problems for the executioners (who implement the downsizing strategy), victims (who lose their jobs), and survivors (who remain in the organizations after downsizing) (Ashman, 2016; Gandolfi & Hansson, 2011; Kets De Vries & Balazs, 1997; Zorn et al., 2017).

Besides the other consequences of downsizing, numerous researchers (e.g., Cameron et al., 1987; Love & Nohria, 2005; Maramba, 2017) demonstrated that downsizing could also affect organizational innovation. Innovation is a critical competitive advantage for success (Tsai & Yen, 2018), helping the business firms to survive and compete in today's highly competitive global market (Bommer & Jalajas, 1999; De Clercq & Belausteguigoitia, 2020; Zhang et al., 2015). Similarly, downsizing is also conducted to survive and compete in today's globally competitive and economically challenging business world (Baillien & De Witte, 2009; Maramba, 2017; Mujtaba & Senathip, 2020). However, overall, the literature demonstrated that downsizing adversely affects employees' innovative propensity (Bommer & Jalajas, 1999) and organizational innovation (Mellahi & Wilkinson, 2008), and according to Ramdani et al. (2021), it is challenging for the modern organizations to downsize and remain innovative simultaneously. Therefore, investigating the link between downsizing and innovation became

crucial, which attracted management researchers. Studies on downsizing and firms' innovation have mixed results. For example, Bommer and Jalajas (1999) demonstrated that downsizing negatively affects firms' innovation, and according to Fernández-Menéndez et al. (2020), downsizing has positive effects on firms' marketing and product innovations. However, according to Mellahi and Wilkinson (2006, 2010), only excessive downsizing could affect organizational innovation for a specific time, but overall, downsizing has no significant impact on firms' innovation. Despite the increased interest of management scholars, literature on the association between downsizing and innovation is limited, due to which the question of whether and how downsizing affects innovation remains inadequately addressed (Maramba, 2017; Mellahi & Wilkinson, 2008; Ramdani et al., 2021). Accordingly, numerous researchers (e.g., Fernández-Menéndez et al., 2020; Maramba, 2017; Ramdani et al., 2021) called for studies examining how and when downsizing affects firms' innovation or employees' innovative performance.

Moreover, organizational innovation is a product of individual-level innovations based on individual innovative work behavior or innovative job performance (Bommer & Jalajas, 1999; Scott & Bruce, 1994; Tsai & Yen, 2018). Therefore, to understand the impact of downsizing on organizational innovation, it is crucial to comprehend downsizing's effects on individuals' innovative performance (Bommer & Jalajas, 1999; Tsai & Yen, 2018). After downsizing, the organization's success depends on the fewer remaining employees 'survivors' (Allen et al., 2001; Marques et al., 2014), who need to be more innovative to achieve organizational objectives effectively and efficiently (Bommer & Jalajas, 1999; Tsai & Yen, 2018). However, numerous researchers (e.g., Bommer & Jalajas, 1999; Burke & Nelson, 1997; Mellahi & Wilkinson, 2008; Tsai & Yen, 2018) argued that downsizing could adversely affect survivors' innovative behavior,

subsequently reducing organizational innovations. Therefore, examining how and when downsizing affects survivors' innovative performance is an important question to be addressed (Marques et al., 2014; Tsai & Yen, 2018). Prior research (e.g., Love & Nohria, 2005; Mellahi & Wilkinson, 2006, 2008, 2010; Ramdani et al., 2021) mainly focused on investigating the downsizing effects on organizational innovation. However, research empirically examining the association between downsizing and employees' innovative performance is very scarce, which according to researchers (e.g., Marques et al., 2014; Tsai & Yen, 2018), needs further investigation.

Furthermore, innovation depends on the interaction of different factors ranging from individual behavioral factors to organizational factors such as the availability of resources (Bommer & Jalajas, 1999; Mellahi & Wilkinson, 2008, 2010). Cameron et al. (1987) argued that organizational slack is used for funding innovation, and according to Love and Nohria (2005), downsizing is the process of reducing firms' absorbed slacks. Therefore, the majority of the previous research (e.g., Love & Nohria, 2005; Mellahi & Wilkinson, 2006, 2008, 2010; Ramdani et al., 2021) on the association between downsizing and innovation has focused on the role of organizational slack (firm-level factor). Similarly, some researchers have highlighted the importance of individual-level factors, including survivors' job insecurity (Burke & Nelson, 1997), high workload, lack of qualified personnel, employees' low morale and enthusiasm for innovation, risk-aversion, and lack of resources for innovation (Maramba, 2017; Mellahi & Wilkinson, 2008). Similarly, Bommer and Jalajas (1999) identified four individual behavioral and motivational antecedents variables that could affect individual innovation in a downsizing context: willingness to make suggestions, willingness to take risks, the degree to which employees are motivated by the job, and the degree to which employees are motivated by fear.

However, we could not find studies examining the critical role of interpersonal or relational factors (i.e., interpersonal conflict) in influencing survivors' innovative performance after downsizing.

Innovative job performance is the intentional generation, promotion, and realization of new ideas within a work role, group, or organization (Kanter, 1988; Scott & Bruce, 1994) that requires a variety of cognitive and social activities for generating, discussing, promoting, and implementing creative ideas (Kanter, 1988). Researchers argued that innovative job performance needs collaboration and teamwork (Kanter, 1988; Scott & Bruce, 1994) and requires good interpersonal relationships among coworkers (Janssen, 2000; Pitafi et al., 2020). Since interpersonal conflict damages the social exchanges among employees and creates frictions in their relationships (Khosravi et al., 2020); therefore, interpersonal conflict could negatively affect their innovative job performance (De Clercq et al., 2017; De Clercq & Belausteguigoitia, 2020; Hu et al., 2017; Pitafi et al., 2020). Numerous researchers (e.g., Freeman, 1994; Kets De Vries & Balazs, 1996; Pitelis, 2007; Ashman, 2016; Frone & Blais, 2020; Hammond et al., 2019) have argued that downsizing could promote conflict among different individuals and groups within the organizations. Therefore, the interpersonal conflict generated after downsizing could be one of the potential influencing factors hindering employees' innovative job performance post-downsizing (Mellahi & Wilkinson, 2010). Surprisingly, we could not find studies on the critical role of interpersonal conflict in downsizing - innovative performance relationships. Therefore, it is essential to investigate how and when the interpersonal conflict generated after downsizing could affect employees' innovative job performance.

Conflict is a complex organizational phenomenon (Way et al., 2014), and managers spend most of their time managing the conflict among different individuals and groups (Cenkci,

2018). Those organizations can reap the benefits of change, which could effectively deal with the conflict (Rahim, 2011). Since downsizing is also an organizational change generating interpersonal conflict in the workplace (Ashman, 2016; Frone & Blais, 2020; Datta et al., 2010), which negatively affects innovative performance (De Clercq & Belausteguigoitia, 2020; N. Hu et al., 2017; Pitafi et al., 2020). Therefore, the interpersonal conflict generated after downsizing could be one of the potential reasons for the adverse effects of downsizing on employees' innovative performance and organizational innovation. As mentioned earlier, most of the prior studies (e.g., Love & Nohria, 2005; Mellahi & Wilkinson, 2008; Ramdani et al., 2021) on the association between downsizing and innovation have mainly focused on the organizational slack and almost ignored the critical role of interpersonal relationship/conflict among survivors. Therefore, this dissertation focuses on the interpersonal conflict's role in inhibiting survivors' innovative job performance post-downsizing; by first investigating how and when downsizing leads to interpersonal conflict and then how and when interpersonal conflict affects employees' innovative job performance. By doing so, the current dissertation answers the call by researchers (e.g., Marques et al., 2014; Mellahi and Wilkinson, 2008, 2010) to explore the various obstacles that could inhibit organizational innovation after downsizing. Additionally, this dissertation also examines how and when cognitive/functional conflict transforms into affective/dysfunctional conflict in the context of downsizing.

Furthermore, it is essential to understand the underlying mechanisms and boundary conditions for the relationship between downsizing, interpersonal conflict, and innovative performance. Therefore, based on various research gaps highlighted in the next section (see research gaps), we examined the critical role of some essential mediators (e.g., workload and negative emotions) and moderators (e.g., organizational restructuring, emotional intelligence,

and employees' goal orientations) in the downsizing, interpersonal conflict, and innovative performance relationship. Accordingly, we divided the current dissertation into three sequential sub-studies. The first study investigates how and when downsizing leads to different types of interpersonal conflict (e.g., task, process, and relationship conflicts) among survivors by examining the mediating role of workload and the moderating effect of organizational restructuring. The second study investigates how and when cognitive conflicts (e.g., task and process conflicts) transform into affective conflict (relationship conflict) by detailing the mediating role of negative emotions and the moderating effect of emotional intelligence. The third study examines how interpersonal conflict affects employees' innovative performance by investigating the moderating effect of goal orientations on the relationship between task, process, and relationship conflicts and employees' innovative job performance. Accordingly, the current dissertation addresses numerous research gaps (see research gaps) in the literature and offers practical implications for managers and employees of the organizations.

3. Research Gaps and Theoretical Contributions

This dissertation addresses the following research gaps and contributes to the existing literature in several important ways.

First, the current dissertation examines the relationship between downsizing and interpersonal conflict among survivors. Extent research demonstrated that downsizing generates adverse outcomes for both employers and employees (Harney et al., 2018; Zorn et al., 2017) and negatively affects the executioners, victims, and survivors (Ashman, 2016; Gandolfi & Hansson, 2011; Dlouhy & Casper, 2021). One of the adverse effects of downsizing is interpersonal conflict, mentioned by numerous researchers (Ashman, 2016; Frone & Blais, 2020; Hammond et

al., 2019), but there is a lack of empirical studies investigating the relationship between downsizing and interpersonal conflict (Datta et al., 2010; Ashman, 2016). Moreover, research has distinguished three types of interpersonal conflict: task conflict, process conflict, and relationship conflict (Jehn, 1995; Jehn & Mannix, 2001; Greer et al., 2008). Task conflict is the conflict of ideas or the differences of opinions regarding the contents and outcomes of different tasks related to 'what to do' (Jehn & Mannix, 2001; Jehn & Bendersky, 2003; Greer et al., 2008). Process conflict is disagreement regarding logistics or means of task accomplishment (resource allocation) and delegation of responsibilities (who is responsible for what) related to 'how to do' (Greer et al., 2008; Jehn et al., 2008, 1999). Relationship conflict is the interpersonal incompatibilities among individuals due to personality clashes and personal likes and dislikes (Jehn, 1997; Jehn & Mannix, 2001), based on personal taste, values, interpersonal styles, political preferences, and social issues (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; Greer et al., 2008). Again, no comprehensive study has been conducted to determine which type of interpersonal conflict is exacerbated by downsizing. Therefore, it is essential to investigate the link between downsizing and different types of interpersonal conflict. By examining the association between downsizing and task, process and relationship conflicts, this dissertation contributes to the literature by providing empirical evidence to the prior research arguing that downsizing fosters organizational conflict (Ashman, 2016; Freeman, 1994; Gandolfi & Hansson, 2011; Frone & Blais, 2020). Moreover, it further highlights which type of interpersonal conflict is generated among survivors post-downsizing.

Second, this dissertation examines how downsizing leads to interpersonal conflict among survivors. Numerous researchers (Datta et al., 2010; Frone & Blais, 2020; Dlouhy & Casper, 2021) argued that downsizing affects the individual, group, and organizational level outcomes

through a proper mediating mechanism. Therefore, they called for investigating the mediating mechanism that links downsizing to survivors' outcomes. However, as per the author's knowledge, none of the studies have examined how downsizing leads to interpersonal conflict. Survivors' workload is one of the highly contested adverse outcomes of downsizing (Spagnoli & Balducci, 2017), which, according to researchers (e.g., Dlouhy & Casper, 2021; Harney et al., 2018; Frone & Blais, 2020), mediates the downsizing and survivors' outcomes relationship. The stress process model (Pearlin & Bierman, 2013) also proposes that primary stressors lead to the proliferation of secondary stressors that generate deleterious outcomes (including interpersonal conflict). Since downsizing is the primary organizational stressor and workload is a secondary stressor (Frone & Blais, 2020), which promotes survivors' stress after downsizing (Dlouhy & Casper, 2021; Supartha, 2020) that could enhance interpersonal conflict among them. Therefore, the workload could be one of the mediating mechanisms explaining the downsizing and interpersonal conflict relationship, which warrants further investigation. By examining the mediating role of workload in the relationship between downsizing and task, process, and relationship conflicts, this study answers the calls by various researchers (Datta et al., 2010; Dlouhy & Casper, 2021; Frone & Blais, 2020) for investigating the mediating mechanism that links downsizing to survivors' outcomes. This study also provides empirical evidence to the stress process model (Pearlin & Bierman, 2013) by examining the flow of primary stressor (downsizing) into secondary stressor (workload) and subsequently into adverse effects (interpersonal conflict). These findings would help managers understand the underlying mechanism that leads downsizing to interpersonal conflict.

Third, our dissertation examines when the downsizing leads to job stressors (e.g., workload) and, subsequently, interpersonal conflict. Researchers (Dlouhy & Casper, 2021; Datta

et al., 2010; Harney et al., 2018) called for exploring the various contingency factors that could affect the downsizing and its outcomes relationship. Prior research (e.g., Kets De Vries & Balazs, 1996, 1997; Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998; Rondeau & Wagar, 2003; Wagar, 2009) demonstrated that mere headcount reduction promotes job stressors and generates deleterious outcomes; however, restructuring accompanying the headcount reduction minimizes the detrimental effects of downsizing. They argued that restructuring accompanying the downsizing aligns the organizational structure and work processes according to the available workforce, thereby minimizing the damaging effects of headcount reduction. Therefore, restructuring could be one of the contingency factors buffering the downsizing and its adverse outcomes relationship. Surprisingly, we could not find empirical studies investigating the moderating effect of restructuring on the downsizing and its outcomes relationship (specifically workload and interpersonal conflict). Therefore, this dissertation investigates the moderating effect of restructuring on the relationship between downsizing and workload and the indirect relationship between downsizing and task, process, and relationship conflicts via workload.

By examining the moderating effect of restructuring on the downsizing, workload, and interpersonal conflict relationship, the current dissertation provides empirical evidence to the previous research (Freeman, 1994; Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998; Love & Nohria, 2005; Wagar, 2009), arguing that restructuring minimizes the negative consequences of downsizing. Moreover, this study also provides a situational perspective to the stress process model (Pearlin & Bierman, 2013) by explaining that various situational factors (e.g., organizational restructuring) could influence the transformation of primary job stressors into secondary stressors and subsequently into harmful outcomes. For example, downsizing is a macro-level primary stressor that leads to secondary stressors (i.e., workload), which could further promote interpersonal conflict among

survivors. However, we propose that this transformation of downsizing into workload and subsequently into the interpersonal conflict would be lower when managers change their organizational structures and work process to align them according to the available workforce. Furthermore, the current study uses the moderated mediation model to shed new light on the underlying mechanism and boundary conditions for the downsizing and interpersonal conflict relationship to explain how and when downsizing leads to interpersonal conflict.

Fourth, the current dissertation examines the transformation of task and process conflicts into relationship conflicts. Research has distinguished three types of interpersonal conflict: task conflict, process conflict, and relationship conflict (Jehn, 1995; Jehn & Mannix, 2001; Greer et al., 2008). Early studies on the distinct effects of task, process, and relationship conflicts on individual and group level outcomes demonstrated the positive effects of task conflict and the adverse effects of the process and relationship conflicts (Jehn & Mannix, 2001; DeChurch et al., 2013; Giebels et al., 2016; Shaukat et al., 2017; Rezvani et al., 2019; Pitafi et al., 2020). However, some researchers (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; Khosravi et al., 2020; van Woerkom & Sanders, 2010) demonstrated that task conflict is also detrimental. Several researchers (Choi & Cho, 2011; Greer et al., 2008; Rispens, 2012) argued that the damaging effects of task conflict are due to its close link with the relationship conflict. Therefore, numerous researchers (Flores et al., 2018; Guenter et al., 2016; Kuriakose et al., 2019) called for investigating the interplay among different types of interpersonal conflicts. Accordingly, some studies (Choi & Cho, 2011; Guenter et al., 2016; Jimmieson et al., 2017; Rispens, 2012) have investigated the association between task and relationship conflicts. Prior studies mostly neglected process conflict, except for a few studies (Greer et al., 2008; van den Berg et al., 2014) that have examined the association of process conflict with other types of interpersonal conflicts. Therefore, numerous

researchers (Guenter et al., 2016; Kuriakose et al., 2019; van den Berg et al., 2014) called for further investigation of the interplay among task, process, and relationship conflicts. By examining the direct relationship between task and process conflicts and the relationship conflict, this study would extend our understanding of conflict transformation in the organizational setting, especially the transformation of process conflict, which is the least researched (Greer et al., 2008; Jehn & Mannix, 2001; Kuriakose et al., 2019).

Fifth, the current dissertation examines how the task and process conflicts transform into relationship conflict. Previous researchers (Choi & Cho, 2011; Curşeu et al., 2012; van den Berg et al., 2014; Guenter et al., 2016) argued that the theoretical mechanism underlying the relationship among different types of interpersonal conflict is unclear, which needs further investigation. Affective event theory (AET) (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) proposes that various events in the workplace give rise to employees' emotional reactions, and these emotional experiences shape employees' attitudes and behaviors. Extent research (de Wit et al., 2013; van den Berg et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2019) demonstrated that task and process conflicts generate negative emotions, promoting relationship conflict. Therefore, negative emotions could be the mechanism that transforms task and process conflicts into relationship conflicts. Accordingly, Flores et al. (2018) argued that negative emotions could transform cognitive conflict into an affective conflict that warrants empirical investigation. Therefore, we examine the mediating role of negative emotions in transforming task and process conflicts into relationship conflicts. Accordingly, this dissertation answers the calls by various researchers (Curşeu et al., 2012; van den Berg et al., 2014) to investigate the mechanism through which conflict transforms from one form into another and contributes to the understanding of why cognitive conflict transforms into the affective conflict.

Sixth, our dissertation examines when task and process conflicts lead to negative emotions and subsequently into relationship conflict. Researchers (Guenter et al., 2016; Flores et al., 2018) called for investigating the various contingency factors that could dissociate cognitive conflict from the affective conflict, which would help organizations engage employees in task-related disagreements without experiencing relationship conflict. Since the cognitive conflict could transform into affective conflict via negative emotions (Flores et al., 2018) and emotionally intelligent people are more likely to control and manage their negative emotions (Rezvani et al., 2019; Kundi & Badar, 2021). Therefore, emotional intelligence could be one of the essential contingency factors preventing the escalation of cognitive conflict into an affective conflict. However, there is little empirical evidence about how employees' emotional intelligence affects conflict transformation. Therefore, the current dissertation examines the moderating effect of employees' emotional intelligence on the relationship between task and process conflicts and negative emotions and the indirect association among task, process, and relationship conflicts via negative emotions. Accordingly, this dissertation answers the calls by various researchers (Flores et al., 2018; Jimmieson et al., 2017; van den Berg et al., 2014) to explore the contingency factors decoupling cognitive conflict from affective conflict. Moreover, by using the moderated mediation model, this dissertation would enhance our understanding of the underlying mechanism and boundary conditions for transforming cognitive conflict into affective conflict. The findings would help managers and employees to prevent the transformation of cognitive conflict into affective conflict.

Seventh, this dissertation investigates the relationship between interpersonal conflict and employees' innovative job performance. Innovative job performance is the generation, promotion, and realization of new ideas within a work role, group, or organization, which needs

collaboration and teamwork (Kanter, 1988; Scott & Bruce, 1994) and requires good interpersonal relationships among coworkers (Janssen, 2000; Pitafi et al., 2020). However, interpersonal conflict damages the social exchanges among individuals and creates frictions in their relationships (De Clercq & Belausteguigoitia, 2020; Khosravi et al., 2020); therefore, interpersonal conflict could be one of the potentially influential factors affecting employees' innovative job performance. Some prior studies (e.g., De Clercq et al., 2017; De Clercq & Belausteguigoitia, 2020; Hu et al., 2017; Pitafi et al., 2020) have examined the relationship of interpersonal conflict with creativity or creative work behavior. Since creativity is one of the multistage processes of innovative job performance related to the new ideas generation and innovative job performance comprises two other stages: new ideas promotion and implementation (Kanter, 1988; Scott & Bruce, 1994). Therefore, the effects of interpersonal conflict on innovative job performance could be different. However, we could not find studies on the association between interpersonal conflict and innovative job performance. Moreover, the three types of interpersonal conflict (i.e., task, process, and relationship conflicts) could differently affect performance outcomes (Jehn, 1995; Jehn & Mannix, 2001; Greer et al., 2008; O'Neill et al., 2013), including employees' innovative job performance. Therefore, numerous researchers (De Clercq & Belausteguigoitia, 2020; N. Hu et al., 2017; Pitafi et al., 2020) called for investigating the relationship between different types of interpersonal conflict and employees' innovative performance. Accordingly, this dissertation examines the relationship between task, process, and relationship conflicts and employees' innovative job performance. The current study answers various calls (De Clercq & Belausteguigoitia, 2020; O'Neill et al., 2013; Pitafi et al., 2020) for investigating the relationship between types of interpersonal conflict and employees' creativity and innovative performance. Moreover, this dissertation highlights the

emerging area of innovative performance research by examining the distinct role of different types of interpersonal conflicts.

Eighth, our dissertation examines when interpersonal conflict affects employees' innovative job performance. The contingency model of conflict (Jehn & Bendersky, 2003) proposes that conflict outcomes are not determined only by the types of conflict. Still, various contingency factors play an essential role in the conflict - outcomes relationship. Accordingly, numerous researchers (De Clercq & Belausteguigoitia, 2020; Giebels et al., 2016) called for examining the moderating effect of various contingency factors on the interpersonal conflict - innovative performance relationship. De Clercq et al. (2017) specifically called for investigating the moderating effect of employees' goal orientations on the relationship between interpersonal conflict and employees' creativity or innovative performance. There are two types of individuals' goal orientations: mastery goal orientation and performance goal orientation, each predicting individuals' behavior and attitude in the achievement context differently (Ames, 1992; Ames & Archer, 1988; Nicholls, 1984). Similarly, Janssen (2000, 2004) demonstrated that mastery goal orientation and performance goal orientation affect employees' innovative job performance differently. Only a few studies (e.g., De Clercq et al., 2017; Huang, 2012) have investigated the moderating effect of teams' goal orientation on the relationship between interpersonal conflict and employees' creativity and team performance. However, we could not find empirical studies investigating the moderating effect of individuals' goal orientation on the relationship between interpersonal conflict and employees' innovative job performance, which according to De Clercq *et al.* (2017), needs further empirical investigation.

By investigating the moderating effects of employees' mastery goal orientation and performance goal orientation on the relationship between task, process and relationship conflicts,

and innovative job performance, the current study answers various calls by researchers (e.g., De Clercq et al., 2017; De Clercq & Belausteguigoitia, 2020; Giebels et al., 2016) for investigating the different contingency factors that could affect the conflict - innovative performance relationship. The findings would generate a deeper understanding of how employees' goal orientations affect the outcomes of interpersonal conflict, specifically employees' innovative job performance. Moreover, this dissertation contributes to the literature on the emerging area of research, 'innovative performance,' by examing the distinct role of interpersonal conflict and employees' goal orientations. This dissertation also contributes to the debates on outcomes of interpersonal conflict by highlighting the importance of employees' goal orientation.

Finally, this dissertation thoroughly diagnoses the antecedents, transformation, and effects of interpersonal conflict (i.e., task, process, and relationship conflicts) on individuals' outcomes (e.i., innovative job performance). Previous studies on conflict have mainly focused on investigating the impact of interpersonal conflict on individuals, groups, and organizational level outcomes, including team performance and team affective outcomes (DeChurch et al., 2013; Maltarich et al., 2018), decision quality (de Wit et al., 2013; Flores et al., 2018), group members satisfaction and performance (DeChurch & Marks, 2001; Mannes, 2008), task and contextual performance, and turnover intension (Shaukat et al., 2017), employees' creativity (Pitafi et al., 2020), creative behavior (De Clercq & Belausteguigoitia, 2020), counterproductive work behavior (Kundi & Badar, 2021), and team innovation and team performance (O'Neill et al., 2013). However, according to Rahim (2002, 2011), the conflict has a cycle, starting from the causes of conflict, leading to the process of conflict, and then conflict outcomes, which further promote conflict. He argued that conflict outcomes depend upon the sources of conflict from where it is generated and the process through which conflict is managed. Therefore, he suggested

a complete diagnosis of conflicts' causes, processes, and outcomes to understand the conflict phenomenon. Since researchers to date have identified three types of interpersonal conflict: task conflict, process conflict, and relationship conflicts (Jehn, 1995; Jehn & Mannix, 2001; Greer et al., 2008), and research comprehensively investigating the antecedents/causes, process, and outcomes of different types of interpersonal conflict is scarce. Therefore, this dissertation would provide a complete diagnosis of the new antecedents (i.e., downsizing and workload), transformation, and effects of each type of interpersonal conflict (i.e., task conflict, process conflict, and relationship conflict) on individuals' performance outcomes (innovative job performance).

4. Objectives and Research Questions

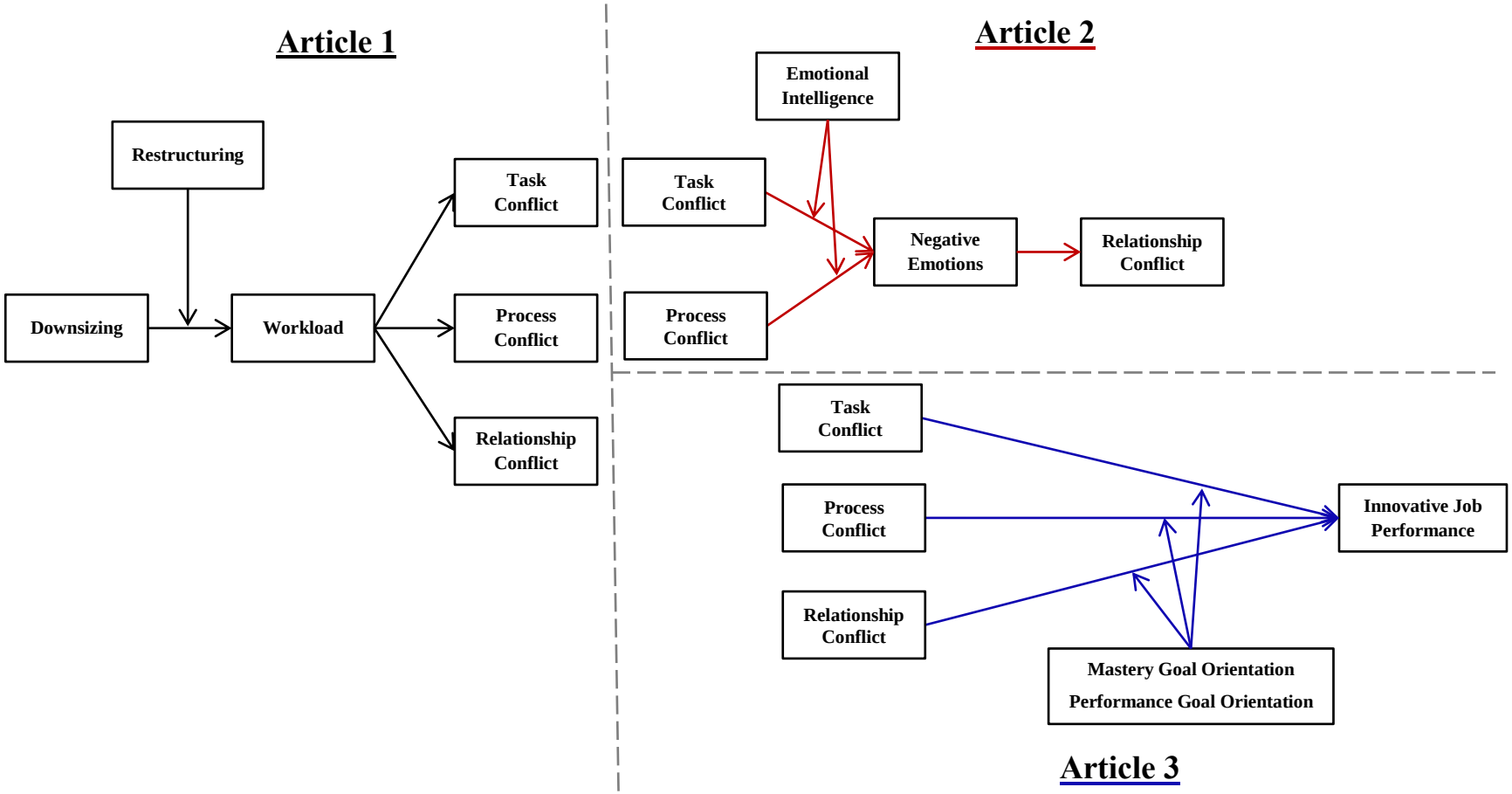
The primary purpose of this dissertation is to examine downsizing's effects on survivors' innovative performance through a critical role of interpersonal conflict. Based on three sequential studies, this dissertation first examines the impact of downsizing on interpersonal conflict among survivors, then investigates the transformation of cognitive conflict into affective conflict, and finally examines the effects of interpersonal conflict on employees' innovative job performance. Doing so would also help us comprehensively diagnose the antecedents, the transformation, and outcomes of interpersonal conflict in a downsizing context.

Moreover, the current dissertation addresses the main research question, 'how and when does downsizing affect survivors' innovative performance,' which is further based on three sub-research questions (1) how and when does downsizing leads to interpersonal conflict among survivors? (2) how and when do task and process conflicts transform into relationship conflict?, and (3) when does interpersonal conflict affect employees' innovative job performance?

These three primary research questions are addressed based on the following sub-questions:

- Does downsizing generate interpersonal conflict among survivors?
- Which type of interpersonal conflict (task, process, or relationship conflict) does downsizing promote?
- Does workload mediate the relationship between downsizing and interpersonal conflict?
- What role does restructuring play in the relationship between downsizing and its outcome (i.e., workload, interpersonal conflict)?
- Does cognitive conflict (i.e., task and process conflicts) transform into affective conflict (i.e., relationship conflict)?
- Do negative emotions mediate the transformation of task and process conflicts into relationship conflict?
- Does employees' emotional intelligence prevent the transformation of task and process conflicts into relationship conflicts?
- How does interpersonal conflict affect employees' innovative job performance?
- What role do employees' goal orientations play in the relationship between interpersonal conflict and innovative job performance?

5. Framework of the Dissertation



Notes: The Black-lines indicate study 1, Red-lines study 2, and Blue-lines study 3 hypothesized directions

Figure 1.1: Schematic overview of the dissertation based on three articles

6. The Rationale for Choosing the Dissertation's Model

6.1. Downsizing and Innovative Performance

As mentioned in the previous section, the primary aim of this dissertation is to address the main research question: how and when does downsizing affect survivors' innovative performance? Numerous researchers (e.g., Cameron et al., 1987; Love & Nohria, 2005; Maramba, 2017) have demonstrated that downsizing could affect organizational innovation. Both downsizing and innovation are the favorite business practices of today's organizations for the firms' survival, growth, and competitiveness (Niesen et al., 2018; Van Hootegem et al., 2019). However, overall, the literature shows that downsizing negatively affects employees' innovative propensity (Bommer & Jalajas, 1999) and organizational innovation (Mellahi & Wilkinson, 2008). Therefore, the importance of investigating the link between downsizing and firms' innovation has increased, attracting management researchers. Management scholars took a keen interest in examining the association between downsizing and innovation, but still, the question of whether and how downsizing affects innovation remains inadequately addressed due to the lack of enough literature (Maramba, 2017; Mellahi & Wilkinson, 2008; Ramdani et al., 2021). Studies on downsizing and firms' innovation have mixed results. Some researchers (e.g., Bommer & Jalajas, 1999) demonstrated the adverse effects of downsizing on firms' innovation, while others (e.g., Fernández-Menéndez et al., 2020) showed the positive effects of downsizing on firms' marketing and product innovations. However, Mellahi and Wilkinson (2006, 2010) demonstrated that downsizing has no significant impact on firms' innovation. To clarify further, numerous researchers (e.g., Fernández-Menéndez et al., 2020; Maramba, 2017; Ramdani et al., 2021) called for studies examining how and when downsizing affects firms' innovation or employees' innovative performance.

Moreover, organizational innovation is a product of individual-level innovations based on individual innovative work behavior or innovative job performance (Bommer & Jalajas, 1999; Niesen et al., 2018; Tsai & Yen, 2018; Van Hootegem et al., 2019). Therefore, to understand the impact of downsizing on organizational innovation, it is crucial to comprehend downsizing's effects on individuals' innovative performance (Bommer & Jalajas, 1999; Tsai & Yen, 2018; Van Hootegem et al., 2019). Prior research (e.g., Love & Nohria, 2005; Mellahi & Wilkinson, 2006, 2008, 2010; Ramdani et al., 2021) mainly focused on investigating the link between downsizing and organizational innovation; however, research empirically examining the association between downsizing and employees' innovative job performance is scarce, which according to researchers (e.g., Marques et al., 2014; Tsai & Yen, 2018) needs further investigation.

Accordingly, to confirm if downsizing affects survivors' innovative performance, we first examined the link between downsizing and survivors' innovative job performance. We ran a simple regression analysis through SPSS v.25, and the results (see table no. 1.1) revealed that downsizing was negatively related to survivors' innovative performance (β = .135, p < .001). Hence our results confirmed the adverse effects of downsizing on survivors' innovative performance, supporting the previous researchers (e.g., Bommer & Jalajas, 1999; Niesen et al., 2018; Van Hootegem et al., 2019) arguing that downsizing and job insecurity adversely affect survivor' innovative performance.

Table 1.1

Results of Regression Analysis for Downsizing and Innovative Job Performance

	Innovative Job Performance	
	B	SE
Downsizing	-.135**	.036
R^2	.029**	
Adjusted R^2	.027**	

Note (s): n =462; **p<0.01
SE = standard error; β= Unstandardized Beta coefficients

6.2. The critical role of Interpersonal Conflict

According to Marques et al. (2014), downsizing affects employees' innovative behavior/performance through a proper mediating mechanism. Therefore, numerous researchers (e.g., Marques et al., 2014; Mellahi and Wilkinson, 2008, 2010; Ramdani et al., 2021) called for examining the underlying mechanisms explaining the relationship between downsizing and firms' innovation or employees' innovative performance. The majority of the previous research (e.g., Love & Nohria, 2005; Mellahi & Wilkinson, 2006, 2008, 2010; Ramdani et al., 2021) on the association between downsizing and innovation has examined the role of organizational slack. Similarly, some researchers have highlighted the importance of individual-level factors, such as survivors' job insecurity (Burke & Nelson, 1997), high workload, lack of qualified personnel, employees' low morale and enthusiasm for innovation, and risk-aversion (Maramba, 2017; Mellahi & Wilkinson, 2008) and organizational commitment (Marques et al., 2014). However, we could not find studies examining the role of relational factors (specifically interpersonal conflict) in the downsizing - survivors' innovative performance relationship.

Numerous researchers (e.g., Freeman, 1994; Kets De Vries & Balazs, 1996; Pitelis, 2007; Ashman, 2016; Frone & Blais, 2020; Hammond et al., 2019) have argued that downsizing could promote conflict among different individuals and groups within the organizations. Similarly,

researchers (e.g., De Clercq et al., 2017; De Clercq & Belausteguigoitia, 2020; Hu et al., 2017; Pitafi et al., 2020) demonstrated that interpersonal conflict negatively affects employees' creativity and innovative performance. Therefore, we propose that interpersonal conflict could be one of the potential influencing factors affecting survivors' innovative performance after downsizing. Research investigating the critical role of interpersonal (or relational) factors in the downsizing and survivors' innovative performance relationship is missing. Therefore, to confirm if the interpersonal conflict can explain the association between downsizing and survivors' innovative performance, we examined the mediating role of interpersonal conflict in the relationship between downsizing and survivors' innovative performance.

Table 1.2
Mediation results (process macro-Model 4)

	Task Conflict		**Process Conflict**		**Relationship Conflict**		**Innovative Performance**	
Predictor	**B**	**SE**	**B**	**SE**	**B**	**SE**	**B**	**SE**
Downsizing	.23**	.045	.234**	.046	.22**	.038	-.081*	.036
Task Conflict							-.232**	.036
Process Conflict							-.242**	.035
Relationship Conflict							-.210**	.043

	Bootstrapping		**95% CI**	
Indirect Paths	***B***	**SE**	**LLCI**	**ULCI**
DS → TC → IP	-.054	.016	-.0884	-.0269
DS → PC → IP	-.057	.015	-.0890	-.0306
DS → RC → IP	-.050	.015	-.0797	-.0224

Note: N = 462; *p < .01, **p < .001, SE: Standard Error
DS = Downsizing, TC = Task Conflict, PC = Process Conflict, RC = Relationship Conflict, IP = Innovative Performance

We used Hayes's (2012) PROCESS-Macro Model-4 to test the mediating role of interpersonal conflict in downsizing - innovative performance relationships. Our bootstrapping results (see Table 1.2) revealed that the indirect relationships between downsizing and survivors' innovative performance via task conflict (β = -.054; 95% CI [-.0884; -.0269]), via process

conflict (β = -.057; 95% CI [-.0890; -.0306]), and via relationship conflict (β = -.050; 95% CI [-.0797; -.0224]) were negative and significant. Since the direct relationship between downsizing and survivors' innovative performance was also negative and significant; therefore, interpersonal conflict (task, process, and relationship conflicts) partially mediated the relationship between downsizing survivors' innovative performance. These results indicated that interpersonal conflict increases the detrimental effects of downsizing on survivors' innovative performance.

6.3. The Rationale behind Choosing the three Studies

According to Fernández-Menéndez et al. (2020)**,** the degree to which downsizing can affect innovation depends upon various contingency factors and the conditions under which downsizing occurs. Therefore, they called for research examing the moderating effect of various contingency factors on the relationship between downsizing and innovation (innovative performance in our case). Similarly, Niesen et al. (2018) demonstrated that job insecurity (or downsizing) has no direct relationship with employees' innovative performance; however, job insecurity affects employees' innovative performance through the mediating role of psychological contract breach. Similarly, according to Van Hootegem et al. (2019), job insecurity (or downsizing) affects ideas generation and implementation (employees' innovative performance) through serial mediation (i.e., irritation and concentration). Therefore, they (e.g., Niesen et al., 2018; Van Hootegem et al., 2019) called to examine the role of various essential mediators in the relationship between downsizing and innovative performance. Based on the research gaps identified in the previous section (see research gaps and theoretical contributions section), we examined the mediating role of workload, interpersonal conflict, negative emotions, and the moderating effects of organizational restructuring, emotional intelligence, and employees' goal orientations.

We divided this dissertation into three sub-studies (see figure 1.1. schematic overview of the dissertation based on three articles). The first study examined how and when downsizing leads to interpersonal conflict among survivors by investigating the mediating role of workload and the moderating effect of organizational restructuring. The results revealed that downsizing has a positive relationship with all three types of conflict (task, process, and relationship conflicts); however, workload only mediated the relationship between downsizing and task and process conflicts. The workload did not mediate the link between downsizing and relationship conflict. Moreover, the organizational restructuring negatively moderated the relation between downsizing and workload and the indirect relationship between downsizing and task and process conflicts via workload. Since the workload had no association with the relationship conflict, nor did it mediate the link between downsizing and relationship conflict; therefore, we concluded that there could be some other reasons that promote the relationship conflict among survivors after the downsizing. Numerous researchers (e.g., Jimmieson et al., 2017; Flores et al., 2018; Maltarich et al., 2018; van den Berg et al., 2014) demonstrated that cognitive conflicts (e.g., task and process conflicts) lead to affective conflict (relationship). Therefore, in the second study, we examined how and when task and process conflicts lead to relationship conflict by investigating the mediating role of negative emotions and the moderating effect of employees' emotional intelligence. The third study examined the relationship between different types of interpersonal conflict (task, process, and relationship conflicts) and employees' innovative performance and the moderating effect of employees' goal orientations (i.e., mastery goal orientation and performance goal orientation). The three studies of the current dissertation thus comprehensively examine the antecedents, transformation, and outcomes of interpersonal conflict in the context of downsizing and restructuring.

7. Conceptualization of Study Variables

7.1. Downsizing

According to Freeman and Cameron (1993), when research on a hot topic like downsizing increases, it becomes difficult to agree upon a commonly accepted definition of the area under investigation. Therefore, there is no standard definition of downsizing. Numerous researchers have defined downsizing in their own ways, such as the intentional reduction of the workforce or elimination of the different functions, units, or hierarchal levels (Cameron et al., 1991), the planned elimination of jobs or positions (Cascio, 1993; Kets De Vries & Balazs, 1996; 1997), a set of activities undertaken intentionally for increasing efficiency and performance that affect the workforce size, cost and work processes of the organizations (Freeman & Cameron, 1993; Cameron, 1994b). Some other researchers defined downsizing as the managerial actions focused on the intentional reduction of people working in an organization (Freeman, 1999) or a set of policies and procedures planned for the workforce reduction to improve organizational performance (Datta et al., 2010). One thing is common in all the definitions of downsizing, 'workforce reduction,' and the other points mentioned are either the aim, process, or outcomes of downsizing. Thus, downsizing can be comprehensively defined as the intentional reduction of the organizational workforce by eliminating different positions or jobs to decrease overhead costs and increase efficiency that could affect organizational structure and processes.

7.1.1. Types of downsizing

Some researchers (e.g., Burke & Nelson, 1997; Freeman & Cameron, 1993; Kets De Vries & Balazs, 1997) distinguished between across-the-board and selective downsizing. In across-the-board downsizing, employees are laid-off without proper planning and selection; however, in selective downsizing, those employees and departments are downsized which are not performing

well. Selective downsizing is conducted to improve organizational effectiveness and efficiency, where downsizing occurs in one department but not in the others (Freeman & Cameron, 1993). To reduce cost and avoid the adverse effects of downsizing, researchers (Burke & Nelson, 1997; Kets De Vries & Balazs, 1997) suggested that organizations should avoid across-the-board and adopt selective downsizing to remove fats without losing muscles and memory. Some other researchers (e.g., Appelbaum, Close, et al., 1999; Freeman & Cameron, 1993; Love & Nohria, 2005; Parker et al., 1997) distinguished between reactive and proactive/strategic downsizing. Reactive downsizing is an organizational response to the decline by reducing the organizational workforce. In contrast, proactive downsizing is the intentional workforce reduction for performance improvement (not necessarily in declining situations) (Freeman & Cameron, 1993). Reactive downsizing is conducted in a declining condition without proper planning, time, and resources. In contrast, proactive or strategic downsizing is a well-designed process aligned with the long-term corporate strategy, undertaken with adequate planning, time, and resources to remove absorbed organizational slacks (Love & Nohria, 2005; Parker et al., 1997).

7.2. Restructuring

Restructuring/redesigning refers to the changes in organizational structure and work processes, eliminating unnecessary tasks, and using new technology (Cameron, 1994b; Cameron et al., 1991; Freeman, 1999). Structural changes involve the changes in the boundaries of units and reporting relationships, outsourcing some functions, flattening the organizational structure, and focusing on team-based work. In contrast, processes changes involve redesigning the work role, reengineering the work processes, and increasing the use and application of management information systems (Rondeau & Wagar, 2003). Restructuring in the downsizing context refers to changes in the organizational structure and work processes to align them according to the

available workforce to minimize the adverse effects of headcount reductions on the remaining employees 'survivors' (Freeman, 1999).

Some researchers (e.g., Cameron, 1994a, 1994b; Freeman & Cameron, 1993) have mixed-up restructuring with downsizing. They defined the downsizing very broadly, such as the activities that bring changes in the workforce (assumption of size), cost (efficiency assumption), and processes (assumption of change in work process). However, the assumption of changes in work processes is a part of the restructuring that could be a cause or an outcome/product of downsizing, but it is not the downsizing itself. Similarly, Rondeau and Wagar (2003) argued that downsizing is different from restructuring because downsizing is a reactive strategy used for cost reduction; however, restructuring is a more proactive approach used to enhance efficiency by bringing changes in the organizational structure and processes.

We conclude that both downsizing and restructuring are related but different concepts. Downsizing and restructuring could occur independently, simultaneously, or sometimes restructuring drives downsizing or downsizing drives restructuring. For example, sometimes, organizations redesign their structure and work processes, which creates redundancy. To remove the redundancy and make the organizational processes smoother, the organizations eliminate the extra positions accompanied by employees' dismissal (restructuring drives downsizing). In contrast, sometimes organizations lay off employees and then adjust the organizational structure and work processes according to the available workforce after downsizing (downsizing drives restructuring). Moreover, restructuring may not necessarily result in downsizing, and it could even generate demand for hiring extra employees. For example, the organizations may need to hire more employees after restructuring if the new structure requires an additional workforce. Therefore, we argue that downsizing and restructuring are related but different concepts, where

downsizing is more about workforce reduction; however, restructuring is more about the changes in organizational structure and work processes before, during, or after workforce reduction. Furthermore, restructuring could be conducted independently of downsizing; it could cause downsizing or may be performed during or after the downsizing to minimize the negative consequences of headcounts reduction. Therefore, we conclude that restructuring is related to but different from downsizing, playing a buffering role in reducing the adverse effects of downsizing.

7.2.1. Downsizing as a headcount reduction vs. downsizing accompanied by restructuring

Headcount reduction is a narrow scope downsizing, where the organizational focus is on 'getting smaller over getting better; however, redesigning accompanying the headcount reduction is a broad scope downsizing, minimizing the damaging effects of headcount reduction (Freeman, 1994; Love & Nohria, 2005). Numerous researchers (Kets De Vries & Balazs, 1997; Parker et al., 1997; Rondeau & Wagar, 2003; Wagar, 2009) demonstrated that headcount reduction adversely affects individuals and organizational performance outcomes. However, restructuring accompanying the downsizing minimizes the adverse effects of headcount reduction and helps organizations achieve the strategic objective of downsizing. Accordingly, researchers (e.g., Freeman, 1994, 1999; Kets De Vries & Balazs, 1997; Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998) suggested that organizations should redesign their structure and work processes along with headcount reduction to minimize the detrimental effects of downsizing. Since the restructuring could mitigate the adverse effects of downsizing; therefore, it could buffer the downsizing and its outcomes relationship. Surprisingly, we could not find studies on the moderating effect of restructuring on the downsizing and its outcomes relationship; therefore, the current dissertation addresses this

gap by examining the moderating effect of organizational restructuring on the relationship of downsizing with survivors' workload and interpersonal conflict.

7.3. Workload

Workload refers to excessive demands from employees or insufficient resources for executing tasks (Zohar, 1997). Employees experience workload when their job demand exceeds the level of physical and psychological resources (Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998). Psychological demand is the work demand consisting of quantity and emotional aspects of workload (Veldhoven et al., 2002). Researchers have used different terms for the workload, such as work demand (Parker et al., 1997), workload (Kets De Vries & Balazs, 1997), overload (Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998; Swanson & Power, 2001), and work intensity (Harney et al., 2018). Workload has been further divided into quantitative workload (the amount of work that is too much to complete in a certain period) and qualitative workload (the extent to which a person is unable to perform a task due to a lack of required skills) (Supartha, 2020).

Downsizing is one of the fundamental reasons for employees' workload. Researchers (e.g., Cameron, 1994a; Cameron et al., 1991; Freeman, 1994, 1999; Kets De Vries & Balazs, 1996; Kinanga & Cheruiyot, 2015; Parker et al., 1997) demonstrated that downsizing enhances remaining employees' (survivors) workload. They argued that employees (victims) leave the organizations due to downsizing, but their work remains, and the number of employees decreases for the achievement of the required same level of outputs. Therefore, survivors have to work for longer hours to manage more people and jobs that enhance their workload (Appelbaum et al., 1997; Baillien & De Witte, 2009; Cascio, 1993). Employees' workload increases their stress, which generates employees' physical and psychological problems (Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998; Rondeau & Wagar, 2003; Supartha, 2020), including interpersonal conflict. Therefore, the

current dissertation considers workload one of the key mediators in downsizing and interpersonal conflict relationships.

7.4. Interpersonal Conflict

According to Wall and Callister (1995), conflict is a process in which one party perceives that its interest is opposed or affected negatively by the other party. However, Tjosvold (1998) stated that conflict occurs due to incompatible activities rather than opposing interests. Accordingly, numerous researchers defined conflict on the basis of incompatibilities rather than competing interests. There are various definitions of conflict in literature, such as conflict is the difference of opinions or perceived interpersonal incompatibilities (Jehn, 1995), the awareness of discrepancies, incompatible wishes, and irreconcilable desires on the part of the parties involved in the conflict (Jehn & Mannix, 2001), a source or origin of disagreement among the group members (DeChurch & Marks, 2001). According to Cenkci (2018), conflict is the inconsistency and incompatibility of relationships among different social beings. Similarly, Rahim (2002) defined conflict as an interactive process manifested in incompatibility, disagreement, or dissonance within or between social entities (i.e., individual, group, organization, etc.).

Conflict may arise within or between different individuals, groups, and organizations. Therefore, conflict can be intrapersonal, interpersonal, intergroup, inter-organizational, or international (Wall & Callister, 1995), inter-organizational conflict (among/between organizations), or intra-organizational conflict (interpersonal, intragroup, intergroup/ interdepartmental) (Rahim, 2002). According to Hotepo et al. (2010), organizational conflict is either inter-group conflict (between different departments of the organization) or interpersonal conflict (with colleagues, supervisors, or subordinates). Interpersonal conflict is either horizontal (between employees of the same hierarchical level) or vertical (between manager and employees,

between employees having different hierarchical positions) (Hotepo et al., 2010). This dissertation mainly focuses on the horizontal interpersonal conflict generated after downsizing among employees of the same level (colleagues).

7.4.1. Types of conflict

Pondy (1967) initially divided conflict among subunits of the formal organizations into three types; bargaining conflict (conflict among the parties having an interest-based relationship), bureaucratic conflict (conflict between the parties having a superior-subordinates relationship), and system conflict (conflict among the groups having a working relationship). Later on, researchers (e.g., Jehn, 1994, 1995; Jehn, 1997; Jehn et al., 1999; Jehn & Mannix, 2001) distinguished three types of interpersonal conflict: task/cognitive conflict, process/logistic conflict, and relationship/emotional or socio-emotional conflict.

Task conflict is the conflict of ideas and differences of opinions and viewpoints regarding the contents and outcomes of different tasks (Jehn, 1994, 1995, 1997) related to 'what to do' (Greer et al., 2008; Jehn et al., 1999). Task conflict is also called cognitive conflict, related to disagreements and discussions with no intense emotions involved (Jehn & Mannix, 2001). Process conflict, on the other hand, is the disagreement regarding the means of task accomplishment (resource allocation) or delegation of responsibilities (who is responsible for what) to effectively accomplish final objectives (Jehn, 1995, 1997; Jehn & Mannix, 2001; Greer et al., 2008). It is also called logistic conflict, based on the disagreements regarding the means of task accomplishment that involves reorganization disagreement, responsibilities disagreements, and disagreement regarding employees' utilization (Jehn, 1997). Process conflict is the disagreement related to 'how to do' (Jehn et al., 1999) in which the question of 'how tasks accomplishment will proceed' is under discussion. Relationship conflict, also called emotional or

socio-emotional conflict, refers to the interpersonal incompatibilities among group members due to personal issues such as personality differences, interpersonal friction, personal likes and dislikes based on values, norms, etc. It involves tension, feelings of frustration, irritation, and annoyance among the parties, creating anger and sometimes giving rise to tears (Jehn, 1995, 1997; Jehn & Mannix, 2001). Relationship conflict arises due to differences in personal tastes, values, interpersonal styles, and political preferences (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003).

The task, process, and relationship conflicts typology of interpersonal conflict constitute one of the main pillars of the conflict management field, making Jehn and her co-authors the most influential contributors to this field (Caputo et al., 2019). Therefore, this dissertation uses Jehn's (1994, 1995) typology of the task, process, and relationship conflicts.

7.5. Emotions

There is no standard definition of emotion. It has been defined with reference to a list of words: joy, surprise, fear, sadness, and disgust (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996; Cabanac, 2002). Cabanac (2002) defined emotions as any mental experience with high intensity and high hedonic content (pleasure/displeasure). Emotions are events or object-specific that arise from reactions to an event or object (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). According to Mayer et al. (1999), emotions could emerge as a response to the changing relationship of a person. Researchers distinguished two types of emotions/affect: positive/pleasant and negative/unpleasant (Watson et al., 1988; Diener et al., 1995; Smits et al., 2002). Positive affect is the extent to which a person feels active, alert, and enthusiastic. In contrast, negative affect is the state of unpleasant engagement that consists of negative moods such as anger, disgust, guilt, fear, contempt, and nervousness (Watson et al., 1988).

Emotions play a crucial role in interpersonal relationships. It is an essential component of conflict, playing a significant role in conflict outcomes (Jehn, 1997). Negative emotions could arise during each interpersonal conflict type (i.e., task, process, and relationship conflicts). However, they are more prominent during relationship conflict (Greer et al., 2008; Jehn, 1997; Yang & Mossholder, 2004), due to which, relationship conflict is also called emotional or socio-emotional conflict (Jehn, 1995, 1997; Jehn & Mannix, 2001). People with negative emotions focus more on the negative sides of things (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Therefore, negative emotions play a vital role in the conflict-outcomes relationship, adversely affecting performance outcomes. Marques et al. (2014) called for research on the critical role of emotions in the downsizing environment, and numerous researchers (Choi & Cho, 2011; Desivilya & Yagil, 2005; van den Berg et al., 2014; Rispens, 2012; Flores et al., 2018) demonstrated that negative emotions play a vital role in the transformation of cognitive conflict into affective conflict. Therefore, focusing on negative emotions in conflict-related studies (especially in the downsizing context) is crucial for understanding interpersonal conflict antecedents, transformation, and outcomes, which is why we have chosen negative emotions as one of the critical variables of this dissertation.

7.6. Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence was first introduced to the scientific community about 25 years ago (Fiori & Vesely-Maillefer, 2018)**,** and Salovey and Mayer (1990) were among the pioneers who suggested the name emotional intelligence (EI). They defined emotional intelligence as "the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions" (Salovey & Mayer, 1990, p. 189). Various other researchers (e.g., Jordan et al., 2002; Jordan & Troth, 2004; Jordan & Lawrence,

2009) defined EI as the ability to be aware of and manage one's own and others' emotions. According to Law et al. (2004), emotional intelligence is a set of abilities used for understanding, regulating, and utilizing emotions. There was a long debate among research scholars (Mayer & Salovey, 1993; Mayer et al., 1999; Jordan et al., 2002; Law et al., 2004; Jordan & Lawrence, 2009) on whether emotional intelligence is a trait or ability. They agreed that EI is an ability rather than a personality trait.

Researchers have developed different models of emotional intelligence to distinguish it from other types of intelligence and abilities. According to Mayer et al. (1999), emotional intelligence comprises four basic classes of abilities: perception and appraisal of emotions, assimilating emotional experiences into mental life, understanding and reasoning about emotions, and regulating and managing emotions. According to Wong and Law (2002), emotional intelligence has four primary dimensions: self-emotions appraisal, others' emotions appraisal, regulation of emotions, and use of emotions. Similalry, Jordan and Lawrence (2009) defined emotional intelligence as the ability to deal with one's own emotions and those of others, where the ability to deal with one's own emotions is intrapersonal, and the ability to deal with others' emotions is an interpersonal ability. Jordan and Lawrence's (2009) model of EI is based on two dimensions: ability (awareness and management) and focus of attention (own and others). Based on these two dimensions, they developed four constructs of emotional intelligence: awareness of one's own emotions, management of one's own emotions, awareness of others' emotions, and management of others' emotions.

Emotional intelligence has been the focus of research for the past two decades (Mattingly & Kraiger, 2019), extensively studied concerning the various individual, group, and organizational level outcomes, such as job performance, job satisfaction, organizational

commitment, turnover intention (Wong & Law, 2002), team performance (Jamshed & Majeed, 2019), quality of decision making (Santos et al., 2018) and project performance (Khosravi et al., 2020). Similarly, emotional intelligence attracted conflict management researchers (Caputo et al., 2019), and various studies (e.g., Khosravi et al., 2020; Kundi & Badar, 2021; Ma & Liu, 2019) examined the emotional intelligence role in the conflict domain. Since negative emotions play a vital role in the antecedents, transformation, management, and outcomes of conflict (Flores et al., 2018; Rispens, 2012; Rezvani et al., 2019; van den Berg et al., 2014) and emotional intelligence enables individuals to effectively manage and control their emotions (Wong & Law, 2002; Law et al., 2004); therefore, we chose emotional intelligence as one of the key moderating variables of this dissertation.

7.7. Innovative Job Performance

Innovative job performance is the intentional generation, promotion, and realization of new ideas within a work role, group, or organization (Kanter, 1988; Scott & Bruce, 1994). Innovative performance benefits both employees and the employing organizations and helps organizations survive and compete in today's highly competitive business world (De Clercq & Belausteguigoitia, 2020). Therefore, researchers examined various factors that could hinder or foster employees' innovative work behavior or innovative performance, including job demand (Janssen, 2000, 2001), employees' goal orientation (Janssen, 2004), emotional intelligence (Suliman & Al-Shaikh, 2007), and conflict management styles (Zhang et al., 2015).

Innovative job performance needs a variety of cognitive and social activities for generating, discussing, modifying, promoting, and implementing creative ideas (Hjerto & Kuvaas, 2017; Kanter, 1988). Innovative performance requires collaboration and teamwork (Kanter, 1988; Scott & Bruce, 1994); therefore, employees need to have a perfect interpersonal

work relationship with their coworkers to enhance their innovative performance (Janssen, 2000; Pitafi et al., 2020). Since downsizing could generate interpersonal conflict (Pitelis, 2007; Ashman, 2016; Frone & Blais, 2020; Hammond et al., 2019) and interpersonal conflict damages the interpersonal relationship among employees (Khosravi et al., 2020); therefore, both downsizing and interpersonal conflict could affect employees' innovative performance. Accordingly, we chose innovative job performance as a dependent variable to examine how and when downsizing and interpersonal conflict affect employees' innovative performance.

7.8. Goal Orientation

According to achievement goal theory, individuals' goal orientations reflect their goal preferences in the achievement context (Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Dweek, 1986). Goal orientations predict employees' achievement behavior (Ames, 1992; Nicholls, 1984) and motivate them to meet their respective achievement goals (Janssen, 2004). There are two types of individuals' goals: mastery goals and performance goals (Ames, 1992; Ames & Archer, 1988; Janssen, 2000), which have been alternatively labeled as task involvement and ego involvement goals (Nicholls, 1984), learning and performance goals (Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Dweek, 1986). We have adopted the mastery goal and performance goal labels, which according to goal orientation theory, give rise to two types of employees' goal orientations: mastery goal orientation and performance goal orientation (Ames, 1992; Ames & Archer, 1988; Janssen, 2000), which exist independently from each other (Nederveen Pieterse et al., 2013).

Mastery goal orientation reflects one's goal of developing knowledge and competence, gaining and mastering new skills, and understanding work (Ames, 1992; Janssen, 2000, 2004; Nederveen Pieterse et al., 2013), where learning is an end (Van Preen & Janssen, 2002). However, performance goal orientation refers to one's goal of establishing superiority over

others by outperforming them (Ames, 1992; Janssen, 2000, 2004; Nederveen Pieterse et al., 2013), where employees have a failure-avoiding pattern of motivation (Ames, 1992). Mastery goal orientation is positively, and performance goal orientation is negatively linked with individuals' outcomes (Nederveen Pieterse et al., 2013) such as success (Ames & Archer, 1988), job satisfaction, in-role job performance, and innovative job performance (Janssen, 2004). Studies on the moderating effects of goal orientations (e.g., Huang, 2012; Nederveen Pieterse et al., 2013; Van Preen & Janssen, 2002) have found that mastery goal orientation increases the positive and decreases the adverse effects while performance goal orientation decreases the positive and increases the negative outcomes.

Goal orientation theory has received the attention of substantial research on the individual level behavior and performance outcomes (Nederveen Pieterse et al., 2013) because individuals' goals predict their attitudes and behaviors in a specific direction (Nicholls, 1984), especially in conflict situations (Huang, 2012). Employees' goal orientations direct their attitude and behaviors that further influence their work engagement, performance, and success (Ames, 1992). On the one hand, goal orientations affect individuals' attitudes and behaviors in conflict situations, affecting performance outcomes. On the other hand, goal orientations affect employees' innovative job performance. Therefore, goal orientation (mastery and performance) is a crucial variable in conflict and innovative performance studies, which is why considered as one of the key variables in this dissertation.

8. Research Design and Method

8.1. Research Philosophy

There is a long-standing epistemological debate among research philosophers about conducting effective research (Karami et al., 2006). This debate revolves around two research approaches: the interpretive or phenomenological approach (qualitative studies) and the positivist approach (quantitative studies). In this dissertation, we opted for a positivist approach, which refers to a "systematic, controlled, empirical and critical investigation of natural phenomena guided by theory and hypotheses about the presumed relations among such phenomena" (Kerlinger, 1973, p. 10). We chose the positivist approach because we aimed to measure employees' perceptions of downsizing and restructuring conducted by their organizations and employees' experience of workload, interpersonal conflict, negative emotions, emotional intelligence, goal orientations, and innovative job performance at the workplace. We opted for the positivist approach because to assess our study constructs, the reliable, tested, and verified measures are already available, developed by prior researchers based on the qualitative research. We used a hypothetical-deductive approach in this dissertation in which we formulated the hypotheses that could be falsifiable, and we used observable data to test and interpret the findings.

8.2. The Rationale for choosing a Quantitative and Cross-Sectional Method

We adopted a quantitative research method to investigate the links, underlying mechanisms, and boundary conditions for the association between downsizing, interpersonal conflict, and employees' innovative performance. The positivist principles have primarily supported the quantitative research method, explaining that a quantitative approach contributes to the over-simplification and objectification of human experiences within social research (Ryan, 2006). The conceptual framework of this dissertation demonstrates that our research is primarily deductive

(because we developed our study hypotheses based on the existing theories and then designed a research approach to test these hypotheses), multivariate (having a complex set of data), and quantitative. We employed a cross-sectional research design (based on a survey of a specific sample at a single point in time to examine the patterns of association) for two fundamental reseasons. First, to thoroughly understand the phenomenon in a particular group being studied. Second, to draw inferences regarding the broader population beyond the ones being studied (Holton & Burnett, 2005). Moreover, we adopted a cross-sectional design for the following reasons: (i) due to the COVID-19 pandemic, the participating organizations only allowed one-time communication with the respondents, (ii) it is relatively cheaper and highly efficient, (iii) it can adequately address many questions, (iv) it is appropriate to use when starting new areas of inquiry or/and studying more mature areas of inquiry to rule out alternative explanations (Spector, 2019).

8.3. Study Context

The unique feature of this dissertation is the context and geographic location in which it is based. All the three studies of this dissertation are based on the data collected from the organizations of a developing Asian country (i.e., Pakistan), where the county's economic conditions are putting cost-cutting pressure on the business firms and pushing them towards headcount reduction (downsizing). Downsizing has become a burning issue for Pakistani organizations (Hamed et al., 2013; Saif et al., 2013) because Pakistan has been facing an economic downfall for many years that has adversely affected both the public and private sector organizations (Hussain et al., 2014). The recent Covid-19 pandemic added more fuel to the fire by severely affecting the global and Pakistani economies. The COVID-19 pandemic specifically pushed developing countries like Pakistan towards economic recession. According to a report of the United Nations Conference on

Trade and Development (UNCTAD, 2020a), although the economic impact of the pandemic is unpredictable; however, the financial situation of developing countries will get worst, and specifically, Pakistan will be the hardest hit by the global pandemic of COVID-19. According to the UNIDO field office in Pakistan report (2020), Pakistan already had a weakened economy, as reflected in its poor macroeconomic indicators and low compliance with IMF conditionalities. The COVID-19 pandemic gave an additional shock to the Pakistani economy by adversely affecting the country's GDP growth that could result in unemployment of 3 to 4 million people (PIDE, 2020) because the payment of wages became the main challenge for the firms (Iqbal et al., 2020). According to the Pakistan Labor Force Survey (2017–18), the unemployment rate in Pakistan was already 5.8% (Sohail, 2018), which according to Siddiqui (2020), could reach 8.1% during the fiscal year 2020–21 due to COVID pandemic and lockdown, indicating that Pakistan will suffer disproportionately. According to UNIDO (2020), 50 percent of the Pakistani firms are considering layoffs due to poor economic conditions.

To survive and compete in such an economically challenging environment, Pakistani organizations are forced to decrease overhead costs to cope with the economic downturns (Rophae, 2020). Downsizing is a quick-fix approach and the most favorable strategy used by management for lowering organizational costs through workforce reduction (Burke & Nelson, 1997; Kets De Vries & Balazs, 1997). Therefore, many Pakistani organizations adopted this quick-fix approach to minimize organizational costs through headcount reductions to cope with the economic downturn (Hussain et al., 2014; Rophae, 2020). The majority of the studies on downsizing and its outcomes have been conducted in organizations in western developed countries, except a very few studies conducted in Pakistani organizations (e.g., Hamed et al., 2013; Hussain et al., 2014; Rophae, 2020). Since research examining the downsizing's effects in

the organizations of eastern developing countries like Pakistan is limited; therefore, it is essential to conduct such studies in Pakistani organizations.

Moreover, the previous studies in Pakistani organizations mainly focused on examining the impact of downsizing on firms' financial outcomes (e.g., Hamed et al., 2013; Hussain et al., 2014; Rophae, 2020). However, we could not find studies examining the downsizing's effects on survivors' innovative performance or organizational innovations in Pakistani firms. Prior studies on downsizing and innovations have been conducted in the organizations of western developed countries: USA (Bommer & Jalajas, 1999; Love & Nohria, 2005), UK (Mellahi & Wilkinson, 2006, 2008, 2010; Ramdani et al., 2021), Portugal (Marques et al., 2014), etc. However, we could not find studies examing how and when downsizing affects survivors' innovative performance in the organizations of eastern developing countries like Pakistan. According to Mellahi and Wilkinson (2010), like all other management actions, downsizing and its effects are also influenced by the country's institutional environment. Therefore, Mellahi and Wilkinson (2010) and Tsai and Yen (2018) called for studies examining downsizing impacts on employees' innovative performance or firms level innovations in the developing countries' organizations.

Moreover, numerous researchers (e.g., Ashman, 2016; Frone & Blais, 2020; Datta et al., 2010) argued that downsizing could promote interpersonal conflict. Studies on interpersonal conflict in Pakistani organizations (e.g., Kundi & Badar, 2021; Shaukat et al., 2017; Yousaf et al., 2020) demonstrated that interpersonal conflict damages employees' work relationship, increases employees' stress, creating stressful work conditions that could adversely affect performance outcomes. However, we could not find studies examining how and when downsizing affects interpersonal conflict and how and when interpersonal conflict affects employees' innovative performance in Pakistani organizations.

Furthermore, most of the previous studies on conflict have been conducted in western counties where the perspective about conflict is different from the eastern culture (Huang, 2012). Asian culture is characterized by collectivism which is not the dominant cultural value of western countries (Hu et al., 2017; Huang, 2012). Individuals in such a collectivist culture value harmony and prefer a good relationship with their colleagues. Such attitude of individuals from the collectivist cultures influences their approach toward conflict and its management, which could further affect the outcomes of conflict. Tjosvold (1998) emphasized that it is essential to enlarge our understanding of conflict in both East and West. However, according to Huang (2012), the impacts of conflict on performance outcomes in both societies are still unclear. Therefore, it is essential to comprehensively investigate the conflict in the organizations of eastern developing countries like Pakistan.

Moreover, most of the studies on conflict, its management, and outcomes in Asian counties have been conducted in China (e.g., Chan et al., 2008; Hu et al., 2017; Huang, 2012; Zhang et al., 2015). There are only a few studies on the conflict in Pakistani organizations (e.g., Kundi & Badar, 2021; Shaukat et al., 2017; Yousaf et al., 2020). Therefore, the questions of how conflict is generated, managed and transformed from one form into another and how it affects individual and organizational outcomes in Pakistani organizations remain poorly addressed due to insufficient research. Therefore, this dissertation would enhance our understanding of how and when downsizing promotes interpersonal conflict among survivors of Pakistani firms and how and when different interpersonal conflicts transform from one form into another. Moreover, this dissertation would also help understand how and when interpersonal conflict affects employees' innovative performance in the organizations of developing countries.

8.4. Sample and Data Collection

We collected data from employees working in the private organizations of four common and rapidly growing sectors of Pakistan, including automobiles, banking, telecommunication, and information technology, where downsizing has occurred in the near past. We targeted only private sector organizations because the dysfunctional characteristics of downsizing are present more in private organizations than in public organizations (Cameron et al., 1987). Unlike the public sector organizations, where the permanent contract between employees and government results in low layoff and low job insecurity due to a change, there is frequent downsizing and high job insecurity in the private organizations (Baillien and De Witte, 2009). Employees of private sector organizations face heavy workloads, and they cannot complain about their workload because they do not want to become victims of upcoming downsizing (Frone & Blais, 2020). Therefore, interpersonal conflict among employees of private sector organizations is more prevalent, promoting adverse outcomes. Furthermore, we targeted employees of the automobiles, banking, telecommunication, and information technology sectors because they are Pakistan's most common and rapidly growing sectors (Hamed et al., 2013; Rophae, 2020). Due to intensified competition, employees in these sectors face high-performance pressure, which has led researchers (e.g., Kundi & Badar, 2021; Shaukat et al., 2017; Yousaf et al., 2020) to investigate intra-organizational issues, such as interpersonal conflict. Taken together, we think that the unit of analysis (employees working in these sectors of Pakistan) is ideal.

We designed a survey instrument to collect data from employees of the chosen sectors. The questionnaire consisted of three sections: (1) Introduction and general instructions: the purpose of the study, eligibility criteria, anonymity and confidentiality of respondents, and willingness to participate. (2) Personal information: demographic information, education,

experience, designation, and information about the organization (type of industry, organization's name, size, growth, etc.). (3) Questions regarding study variables: downsizing, restructuring, workload, interpersonal conflict, negative emotions, emotional intelligence, goal orientations, and innovative job performance (see Appendix D).

We approached the targeted organizations using our professional contacts and gained access to the participants through the managers of each organization. We administered the survey in two ways: through an online survey (i.e., using Google Docs. form, an online tool for collecting research data) and through the paper-and-pencil method. After gaining participants' consent, we distributed paper-and-pencil surveys, and in some cases, we shared the online survey link with those employees who wanted to complete the survey online. To ensure that the participants completed the surveys as honestly as possible, we assured the confidentiality of the respondents and informed them that there was no right or wrong answer to the questions (De Clercq et al., 2021).

8.5. Measures

8.5.1. Downsizing

According to Dlouhy and Casper (2021), the majority of the researchers have used survivors' samples after downsizing in previous studies, but they did not include downsizing as a study variable. Similarly, Datta et al. (2010) argued that the construct of downsizing is unclear; therefore, the researchers in the previous studies have used a personal approach to measure it, which arises methodological limitations. For instance, to measure downsizing, Love and Nohria (2005) considered firms' announcements of downsizing; Rondeau and Wagar (2003) asked respondents about the size of the workforce reduced. Many other researchers (e.g., Wagar, 2009; Harney et al., 2018; Dlouhy & Casper, 2021) that used downsizing as a study variable asked

binary questions (0=No and 1=Yes) from the respondents to measure downsizing. According to Freeman and Cameron (1993) and Freeman (1999), organizations downsize through layoffs, early retirement, or/and hiring freezes. Therefore, we developed a three-item scale (one item for each dimension) for this study to measure downsizing by implementing the three-stage procedure followed by Moore and Benbasat (1991) and detailed by MacKenzie et al. (2011). After scale development, we asked the respondents to rate the activities (e.g., layoff, early retirement, and hiring) that have been performed by your organization in the last two years. We asked for the last two years because the manifestation of the ill effects of downsizing takes some time (Dlouhy & Casper, 2021). The hiring item was reversed to measure the hiring freeze. The final three item-scale had satisfactory reliability (Cronbach's alpha = 0.73).

8.5.2. Restructuring

According to Freeman (1999), restructuring is the changes in work processes, elimination of tasks, changes in organizational structure, and use of new technology. Prior researchers (e.g., Swanson and Power, 2001; Harney et al., 2018) have measured restructuring with dichotomous questions (1=Yes, and 0=No). For example, Harney et al. (2018) simply asked the respondents whether or not the organization had been restructured in the last two years. Swanson and Power (2001) measured restructuring with the six dichotomous (1=Yes, and 0=No) items by asking respondents about the changes the organization has brought: change in job contents, promotion/demotion, change in job location, change of co-worker, manager change, work hours change. Rondeau and Wagar (2003) developed a six-point Likert scale of 5 items (three items to assess change in structure and two items to assess changes in processes).

In the current study, we adapted the Rondeau and Wagar (2003) restructuring scale to measure organizational restructuring, which is based on Freeman's (1999) definition of

restructuring as "changes in the work processes, elimination of tasks, changes in organizational structure, and use of technology." We asked the respondents to rate on a 7 point Likert scale (1=Very Low, and 7=Very High) the level of mentioned changes that your organization has brought in the last two years: changes in the organizational structure, elimination of unnecessary tasks, changes in the work processes, combining different departments, increase in the use of new technology, and employees' rotation. The scale's reliability was satisfactory (Cronbach's alpha = 0.87).

8.5.3. Workload

To assess workload, we adopted six items from the eight items scale developed by Van Veldhoven and Meijman (1994), measuring both the speed and quantity of work (e.g., "I have to work fast" and "I have too much work to do"). Among the six items, we excluded one item (WL5) with a factor loading < 0.50. Cronbach alpha of the remaining five-item scale was (@ = 0.85).

8.5.4. Interpersonal Conflict

Researchers (e.g., Jehn, 1994, 1995; Jehn & Mannix, 2001) have distinguished three types of interpersonal conflict: task conflict, process conflict, and relationship conflict. The task, process, and relationship conflicts typology constitute one of the main pillars of the conflict management field, making Jehn and her co-authors the most influential contributors to the conflict management field (Caputo et al., 2019). Accordingly, the scale developed by Jehn (1994, 1995) and Jehn and Mannix (2001) for assessing different types of interpersonal conflict has been widely used by many researchers (e.g., Jimmieson et al., 2017; Khosravi et al., 2020; Pitafi et al., 2020).

We used three items to measure task conflict (e.g., "I often have a conflict of opinions with my group members"; Cronbach's Alpha = 0.86), and three items to measure relationship conflict (e.g., "I often have relationship tension with my group members"; Cronbach's Alpha = 0.82) (adopted from Jehn 1994, 1995). To measure process conflict, we used three items (e.g., "I often have disagreements with my group members about 'who should do what' in our workgroup"; Cronbach's Alpha = 0.89) (adopted from Jehn and Mannix, 2001).

8.5.5. Negative Emotions

To measure negative emotions, we adopted eight items from the 16 items scale developed by Diener et al. (1995) and validated by Smits et al. (2002), measuring five dimensions of negative emotions (fear, anger, shame/embarrassment, guilt/regret, and sadness). To assess the intensity of emotions, we asked respondents to rate the extent to which they experience the following emotions during discussions with group members (fear, nervousness, anger, irritation, embarrassment, guilt, sadness, loneliness) on a 7-point scale (1=very high and 7=very low). Cronbach's Alpha of the overall scale was 0.91.

8.5.6. Emotional Intelligence (EI)

To measure EI, we adopted a short version of the Workgroup Emotional Intelligence Profile (WEIP-S) consisting of 16 items, developed by Jordan and Lawrence (2009). According to Jordan and Lawrence (2009), other measures of EI, for instance, the Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS; Law *et al.*, 2004), assess general ability and are used in a general context. However, WEIP-S measures emotional ability in the actual organizational context; therefore, it is more appropriate to use in the work context. Moreover, WEIP-S is based on the four main dimensions: awareness of one's own emotions, management of one's own emotions (ability to deal with one's own emotions), awareness of others' emotions, and management of

others' emotions (ability to deal with others' emotions), where the ability to deal with one's own emotions is an intra-personal ability, while the ability to deal with others' emotions is the interpersonal ability, which is more related to conflict management (Jordan & Lawrence, 2009). Therefore, WEIP-S is more suitable for measuring EI in conflict management studies. Cronbach's alpha of each dimension of EI included awareness of one's own emotions (0.90), management of one's own emotions (0.86), awareness of others' emotions (0.89), and management of others' emotions (0.89) was satisfactory. Moreover, the reliability of the overall scale of emotional intelligence was also acceptable (Cronbach's alpha = 0.95).

8.5.7. Goals Orientation

We adopted the scale developed by Van Preen and Janssen (2002) for measuring individuals' differences in goal orientation (mastery orientation and performance orientation). The subjects responded to the question "I feel most successful in my job when…," after which they judged eight mastery orientation and eight performance orientation items. Cronbach's Alphas for mastery goal orientation (@ = 0.93) and performance goal orientation (@ = 0.89) were satisfactory.

8.5.8. Innovative Job Performance

We assessed innovative job performance with the widely used (e.g., Janssen, 2004; Zhang et al., 2015) nine items scale, developed by Janssen (2000, 2001), measuring individual innovation in the workplace, which draws on Kanter's (1988) work on stages of innovation. Three of the nine items refer to the idea generation, three items refer to the idea promotion, and three items refer to the idea realization. The scale achieved a high level of internal reliability (Cronbach's Alpha = 0.93).

8.6. Total Sample and Response rate

The survey was disseminated to 820 respondents (265 online and 555 hard copies), in which 518 employees completed it (159 online and 359 hard copies), representing a response rate of 63%. In each study, we conducted Little's (1988) missing completely at random (MCAR) test to determine whether or not missing data were MCAR. The results revealed that missing data were MCAR. In the first study, we excluded questionnaires with more than 10% missing values (N = 32) and imputed the remaining missing values (N = 07). In addition, 24 questionnaires with pattern responses (the same rating for all questions) were also excluded, which resulted in 462 valid responses. In the second study, we excluded questionnaires (N = 32) with more than 10% missing values and imputed the remaining missing values (N = 08). Moreover, 24 questionnaires with pattern responses were also excluded, which resulted in 462 valid responses. In the third study, we excluded the questionnaires (N = 44) with more than 10% missing values and imputed the remaining missing values (N = 11). Additionally, 26 questionnaires with pattern responses were also excluded, which resulted in 448 valid responses for the final analysis of the third paper.

8.7. Analytical Strategy

We used SPSS v.25.0 to examine the means, standard deviations (SD), exploratory factor analysis (EFA), and intercorrelations among the study variables. We conducted confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) in AMOS-24 to assess our measurement models and the discriminant validity of our studies' constructs. To test the hypotheses of the first study, we used Hayes's (2012) PROCESS-Macro Model-4 for the direct and mediation effects and Model-8 for the moderation and moderated-mediation effects. We used the structural equation modeling technique in AMOS-24 to test the direct and mediation hypotheses and Hayes's (2012)

PROCESS-Macro Model-7 to test the second study's moderation and moderated-mediation hypotheses. We utilized Haye's (2012) PROCESS-Macro Model-2 to test the moderation hypotheses of the third study. Moreover, to examine the nature and relative size of the moderation effects, we performed a simple slope analysis (Aiken & West, 1991) which allowed us to determine whether the change in slopes was significant from low levels of the moderator to high levels of the moderator.

9. Overview of Three Studies

The conceptual framework of the current dissertation, as shown in Figure 1.1, has been empirically tested using three studies. We briefly discussed each of the three articles in the following sections.

9.1. How and when downsizing leads to interpersonal conflict among survivors: The mediating role of workload and the moderating effect of organizational restructuring

This article extends our understanding of how and when downsizing leads to interpersonal conflict among survivors by investigating the mediating role of workload and the moderating effect of organizational restructuring. Drawing on insights from the stress process model (Pearlin & Bierman, 2013) and the downsizing and work redesign framework (Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998), we first examined the direct relationship between downsizing and task, process, and relationship conflicts, followed by investigating the mediating role of workload in this relationship. Then we explored the moderating effect of restructuring on the relationship between downsizing and workload and the indirect relationship between downsizing and interpersonal conflict via workload. We tested our study hypotheses with the data collected from 462 white-collar employees working in various business organizations in Pakistan, including automobiles,

banking, telecommunication, and information technology, where downsizing has occurred in the near past. Our results revealed that downsizing promotes task, process, and relationship conflicts. Workload mediated the relationship between downsizing and task and process conflicts, which means downsizing increases survivors' workload, which further promotes task and process conflicts among them. The workload was not significantly related to relationship conflict, nor did it mediate the relationship between downsizing and relationship conflict. Furthermore, the relationship between downsizing and survivors' workload and the indirect relationship between downsizing and task and process conflicts via workload was weaker in the presence of restructuring, which means restructuring minimizes survivors' workload, subsequently reducing interpersonal conflict among them.

9.2. The buffering role of emotional intelligence in conflict transformation

This second study examined how and when task and process conflicts transform into relationship conflict by detailing the mediating role of negative emotions and the moderating effect of emotional intelligence. The first study revealed that downsizing promotes all three types of interpersonal conflict (task, process, and relationship conflicts); however, workload mediated only the relationship between downsizing and task and process conflicts. The workload was not significantly related to relationship conflict, nor did it mediate the relationship between downsizing and relationship conflict. Therefore, we predicted that there could be other reasons that could promote the relationship conflict among survivors. Numerous researchers (e.g., Choi & Cho, 2011; Guenter et al., 2016; Jimmieson et al., 2017; Rispens, 2012; van den Berg et al., 2014) demonstrated that cognitive conflicts (i.e., task and process conflicts) transform into affective conflict (relationship conflict). Therefore, in the second study, based on the conflict escalation model (Glasl, 1982) and contingency perspective of conflict (Jehn & Bendersky,

2003), we examined how and when task and process conflicts transform into relationship conflict by investigating the mediating role negative emotions and the moderating effect of emotional intelligence. To test our study hypotheses, we used the data collected from 462 full-time employees working in multiple organizations in Pakistan. The results revealed that task and process conflicts were positively related to relationship conflict. Negative emotions mediated the relationship between task and process conflicts and relationship conflict, which means individuals engaged in task and process conflicts are more likely to feel negative emotions toward others and consequently are more likely to engage in relationship conflict in the workplace. Emotional intelligence negatively moderated the relationship of task and process conflicts with negative emotions, and the indirect association of task and process conflicts with relationship conflict via negative emotions. These results highlighted that employees with high emotional intelligence are more likely to control their negative emotions; thus, preventing the transformation of cognitive conflict into affective conflict.

9.3. The moderating effect of employees' goal orientation on the relationship between interpersonal conflict and innovative job performance

Research has found both positive and negative effects of interpersonal conflict on performance outcomes such as decision making, individual and group performance, employees' satisfaction, and individual and team creativity. However, little is known about the relationship between interpersonal conflict and employees' innovative performance. Accordingly, in this third study, we investigated the link between task, process, and relationship conflicts and employees' innovative job performance. We also examined the moderating effect of employees' goal orientation (i.e., mastery orientation and performance orientation) on this relationship. We analyzed the data collected from 448 employees working in different organizations in Pakistan.

The results indicated that the task, process, and relationship conflicts were negatively related to employees' innovative job performance. However, employees' mastery goal orientation weakened while performance goal orientation strengthened this negative relationship between interpersonal conflict and innovative job performance. This study contributes to the debates on the outcomes of interpersonal conflict by highlighting the importance of employees' goal orientation for understanding the effects of interpersonal conflict on performance outcomes, specifically on employees' innovative job performance.

10. Structure of the Dissertation

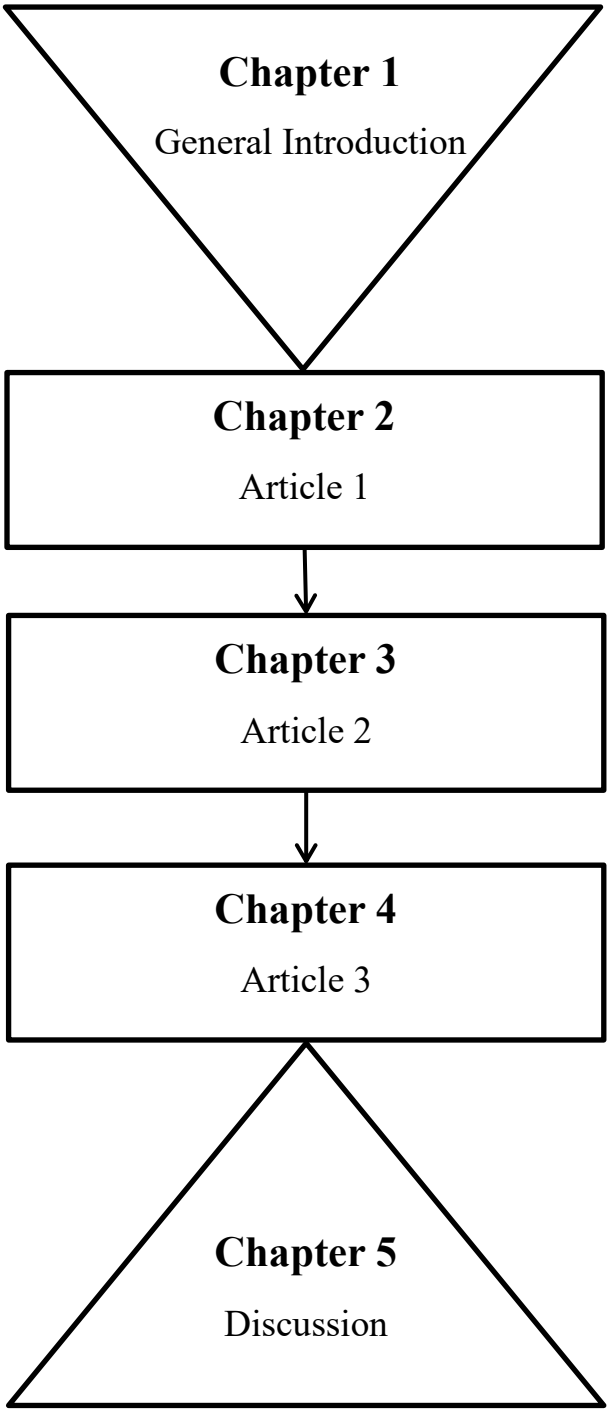
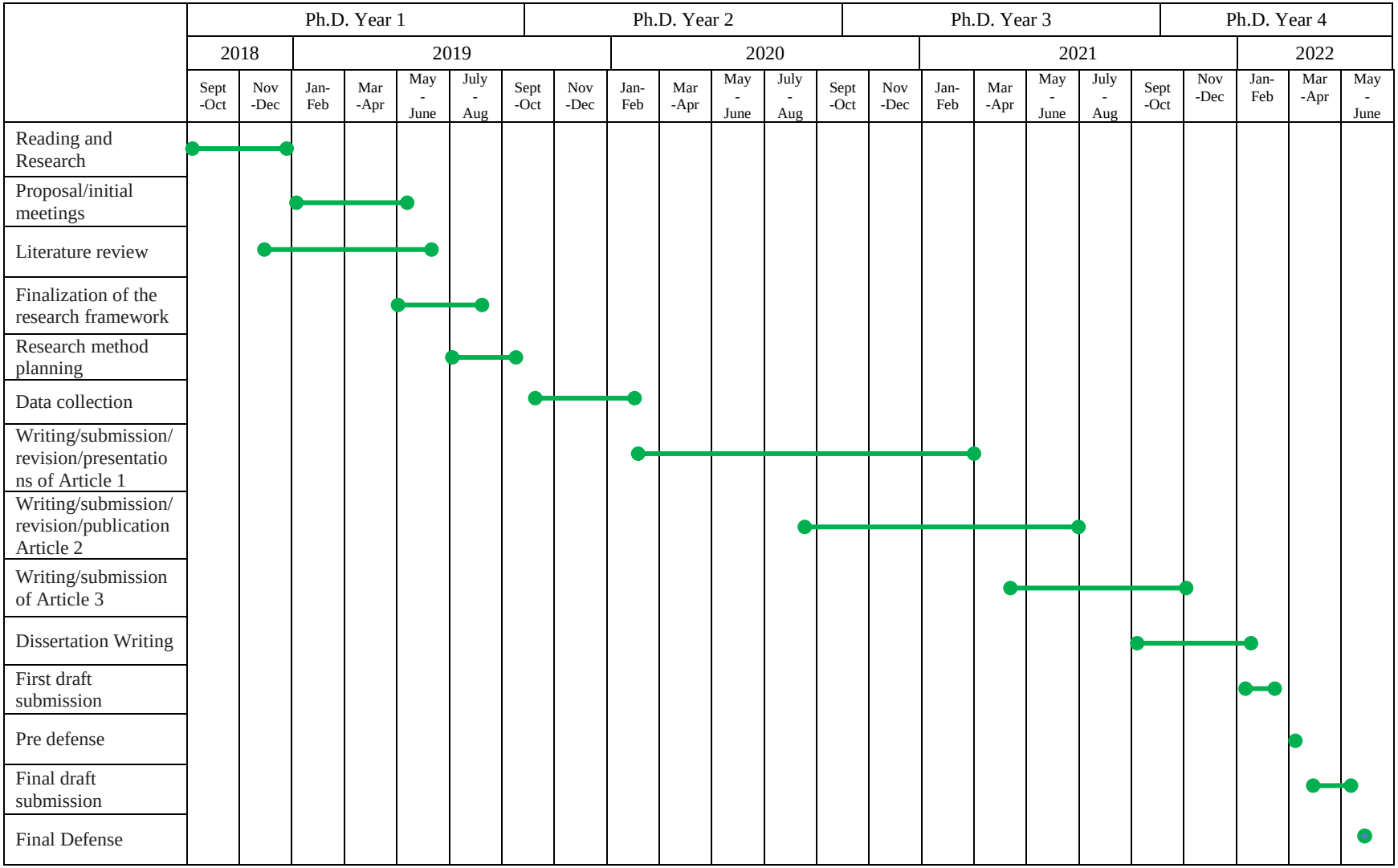


Figure 1.2: Structure of the dissertation

11.Research Timeline



CHAPTER 2:

HOW AND WHEN DOWNSIZING LEADS TO INTERPERSONAL CONFLICT: EXAMINING THE MEDIATING ROLE OF WORKLOAD AND THE MODERATING EFFECT OF ORGANIZATIONAL RESTRUCTURING

Presented in:

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Chapter 2

1. Introduction
2. Literature Review and Hypotheses Development
3. Study 1 Framework
4. Methods
5. Data Analyses
6. Hypotheses Testing
7. Discussion
8. Theoretical Contributions
9. Practical Implications
10. Limitations and Future Research
11. Conclusion

How and when Downsizing leads to Interpersonal Conflict: Examining the Mediating Role of Workload and the Moderating Effect of Organizational Restructuring

Abstract

This study introduces and empirically tests a theoretical model that explores how and when downsizing leads to interpersonal conflict among survivors by detailing the mediating role of workload and the moderating effect of organizational restructuring. Hypotheses were tested with the survey data collected from 462 white-collar employees. The results revealed that downsizing is positively related to interpersonal conflict (i.e., task, process, and relationship conflicts), and workload mediates the relationship of downsizing with task and process conflicts. Moreover, restructuring weakened the downsizing - workload relationship and the indirect association between downsizing and task and process conflicts via workload. This study pinpoints a key mechanism, workload, by which downsizing leads to interpersonal conflict and highlights that restructuring minimizes survivors' workload, further reducing the interpersonal conflict among them. Accordingly, this study suggests that along with headcount reduction, organizations should bring changes in their structure and work processes to align them with the available workforce so that survivors' workload and interpersonal conflict could be minimized.

Keywords: *Downsizing, Restructuring, Workload, Interpersonal Conflict, Task conflict, Process Conflict, Relationship Conflict*

1. Introduction

Downsizing, defined as "a planned set of organizational policies and practices aimed at workforce reduction with the goal of improving firm performance" (Datta et al., 2010, p. 282), is one of the most important topics in the human resource management area (Dlouhy & Casper, 2021). Downsizing has affected hundreds of companies and millions of workers since late 1980 due to economic recession, global competition, and restructuring of the economy (Baillien & De Witte, 2009; Freeman, 1999). It is still a burning issue and will continue in the future (Datta et al., 2010), which has led researchers to investigate its plausible consequences on both organizations and their members (Dlouhy & Casper, 2021; Foster et al., 2019). The majority of researchers have demonstrated that downsizing adversely affects the organizations, and the executioners, victims, and survivors (Ashman, 2016; Shaw & Barrett-Power, 1997; Zorn et al., 2017) in terms of lower satisfaction, well-being, engagement, and organizational commitment (Dlouhy & Casper, 2021; Harney et al., 2018; Wagar, 2009). Among other adverse outcomes of downsizing, researchers (e.g., Ashman, 2016; Frone & Blais, 2020; Datta et al., 2010) have argued that downsizing could promote interpersonal conflict in the workplace, which warrants empirical evidence (Datta et al., 2010; Ashman, 2016).

Accordingly, this study examined how and when downsizing leads to interpersonal conflict among survivors. By doing so, the current study fills the following research gaps. First, interpersonal is classified into three types: task, process, and relationship conflicts (Jehn, 1994, 1995; Jehn & Mannix, 2001), but no comprehensive study has been conducted to determine which type of conflict is exacerbated by the downsizing. Second, various researchers (e.g., Datta et al., 2010; Frone & Blais, 2020; Dlouhy & Casper, 2021) have argued that it is essential to investigate the mediating mechanism that links downsizing to survivors' outcomes. However, as

per the authors' knowledge, none of the studies has examined how downsizing affects interpersonal conflict. Third, numerous researchers (e.g., Datta et al., 2010; Harney et al., 2018; Dlouhy & Casper, 2021) called for investigating different contingency factors that can affect the downsizing - outcomes relationship. According to literature (e.g., Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998; Parker et al., 1997; Rondeau & Wagar, 2003; Wagar, 2009), mere headcount reduction (downsizing) enhances job stressors and generates deleterious outcomes; however, these adverse outcomes are lower when downsizing is accompanied by restructuring. Surprisingly, we could not find empirical studies investigating the moderating role of restructuring on downsizing and its outcomes relationship.

Thus, the current study investigated the relationship between downsizing and task, process and relationship conflicts, the mediating role of workload, and the moderating effect of restructuring. Accordingly, this study makes several contributions to both literature and practices. First, the current study investigated the direct relationship between downsizing and task, process, and relationship conflicts based on the stress process model (Pearlin & Bierman, 2013), which proposes that work stressors generate deleterious outcomes. Our findings provide empirical evidence to the prior research arguing that downsizing enhances organizational conflict (Freeman, 1994; Gandolfi & Hansson, 2011b; Ashman, 2016; Frone & Blais, 2020) and further highlight which type of interpersonal conflict downsizing promotes.

Second, based on the stress process model (Pearlin & Bierman, 2013), which proposes that primary stressors lead to the proliferation of the secondary stressors that further generate deleterious outcomes, this study investigated the mediating role of workload in the relationship between downsizing and interpersonal conflict. The workload is one of the highly examined adverse outcomes of downsizing (Spagnoli & Balducci, 2017), which, according to research

(e.g., Harney et al., 2018; Frone & Blais, 2020; Dlouhy & Casper, 2021), mediates the relationship between downsizing and survivors outcomes. By examining the mediating role of workload in the relationship between downsizing and task, process, and relationship conflicts, this study answers the calls by various researchers (e.g., Datta et al., 2010; Frone & Blais, 2020; Dlouhy & Casper, 2021) for investigating the mediating mechanism that links downsizing to survivors' outcomes. These findings would help managers understand the underlying mechanism that leads the downsizing to interpersonal conflict among survivors.

Third, using the downsizing and work redesign framework of Mishra and Spreitzer (1998), the current study investigated the moderating effect of restructuring on the relationship between downsizing and workload and the indirect relationship between downsizing and interpersonal conflict via workload. By doing so, our study provides empirical evidence to the previous research (e.g., Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998; Love & Nohria, 2005; Wagar, 2009), arguing that restructuring minimizes the negative consequences of downsizing. These findings would help organizations decrease the survivors' job stressors and interpersonal conflict post-downsizing. Moreover, using the moderated mediation model, the current study sheds new light on the underlying mechanism and boundary conditions for the downsizing and interpersonal conflict relationship to highlight how and when downsizing leads to interpersonal conflict among survivors. Finally, by investigating the moderating effect of restructuring, this study provides a situational perspective to the stress process model (Pearlin & Bierman, 2013). We propose that primary job stressors lead to the proliferation of the secondary stressors and subsequently to the harmful outcomes; however, this transformation of stressors into deleterious outcomes is influenced by various contingency factors (restructuring in our case).

2. Literature Review and Hypotheses Development

2.1. Downsizing and Interpersonal Conflict

Downsizing can be defined as the intentional reduction of the workforce or elimination of different functions, units, or hierarchal levels (Cameron et al., 1991a), the planned elimination of positions or jobs (Cascio, 1993; Kets De Vries & Balazs, 1996, 1997) accompanied by the dismissal of job incumbents (Ashman, 2016; Harney et al., 2018), or an attempt to reduce organizational slack (Love & Nohria, 2005). According to the literature, downsizing has few short terms positive outcomes; however, the majority of the downsized firms face unintended negative operational and financial consequences, as well as adverse psychological effects for the victims, executioners, and survivors (Mujtaba & Senathip, 2020; Hammond et al., 2019; Dlouhy & Casper, 2021). Besides the other adverse outcomes, numerous researchers (e.g., Pitelis, 2007; Ashman, 2016; Frone & Blais, 2020; Hammond et al., 2019) have argued that downsizing could promote organizational conflict. The behavioral theory of the firm (BTF) (Cyert & March, 1963) also proposed the positive relationship between downsizing and organizational conflict, explaining that organizations need to have a minimal level of slacks for smooth operations and reducing conflicts. Since downsizing reduces the absorbed organizational slack (Love & Nohria, 2005) and promotes competition (Pitelis, 2007); therefore, it could foster organizational conflict. The behavioral theory of the firm (Cyert & March, 1963) focuses more on the intergroup conflict generated among different groups due to competition for limited resources after downsizing. However, Ashman (2016) demonstrated that downsizing could also enhance interpersonal conflict among individual survivors, which needs an empirical investigation (Datta et al., 2010; Ashman, 2016).

Conflict is the interactive process manifested in incompatibility, disagreement, or dissonance within or between social entities (i.e., individual, group, organization) (Ohuruogu, 2020; Rahim, 2011). Research has identified three types of interpersonal conflict: task, process, and relationship conflicts (Jehn, 1995; Jehn & Mannix, 2001; Greer et al., 2008). Task conflict is the conflict of ideas or the differences of opinions regarding the contents and outcomes of different tasks based on 'what to do' (Jehn & Mannix, 2001; Greer et al., 2008). Task conflict arises during interpreting information and facts (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003). Process conflict is the disagreement regarding means of task accomplishment (resource allocation) or/and delegation of responsibilities (who is responsible for what) (Greer et al., 2008; Jehn et al., 2008) based on 'how to do' (Jehn et al., 1999). Finally, relationship conflict that involves tension and annoyance among the parties is the interpersonal incompatibility among individuals due to personality differences, interpersonal friction, political preferences, and personal likes and dislikes (Jehn & Mannix, 2001; De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; Greer et al., 2008).

We argue that downsizing could promote task and process conflicts among survivors because downsizing layoffs skilled and knowledgeable employees (Mujtaba & Senathip, 2020) and increases survivors' role ambiguity, workload, and stress (Allen et al., 2001; Dlouhy & Casper, 2021). Such stressful working conditions could promote conflict regarding what to do (task conflict) and how to do (process conflict). Moreover, downsizing could also promote relationship conflict because it enhances survivors' negative emotions (López Bohle et al., 2018; Frone & Blais, 2020; Mujtaba & Senathip, 2020). Negative emotions damage survivors' interpersonal relationships (Frone & Blais, 2020), fostering relationship conflict among them (Mujtaba & Senathip, 2020). Therefore, we hypothesized the following.

H1a: Downsizing positively relates to task conflict

H1b: Downsizing positively relates to the process conflict

H1c: Downsizing positively relates to relationship conflict

2.2. The Mediating Role of Workload

According to Datta et al. (2010), investigating the mediators' role in the downsizing and its outcomes relationship is essential for understanding the downsizing phenomenon. The workload is one of the highly examined negative consequences of downsizing (Spagnoli & Balducci, 2017), which according to Frone and Blais (2020), mediates the relationship between downsizing and its adverse outcomes. Based on the stress process model (Pearlin & Bierman, 2013), which demonstrates that primary stressors lead to the proliferation of the secondary stressors that further generate harmful effects, we propose the mediating role of workload in the relationship between downsizing and interpersonal conflict among survivors. According to Frone and Blais (2020), downsizing is the primary organizational stressor, which according to many researchers (e.g., Cameron, 1994; Freeman, 1999; Mujtaba & Senathip, 2020; Dlouhy & Casper, 2021), enhances survivors' workload that could further promote interpersonal conflict among them.

Workload refers to excessive demands from employees or insufficient resources for executing tasks (Zohar, 1997). The workload is either quantitative workload (the amount of work that is too much to be completed in a specific time) or qualitative workload (the extent to which a person is unable to perform a task due to a lack of required skills) (Supartha, 2020). Workload increases when employees' job demand exceeds their level of physical and psychological resources (Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998). Downsizing enhances survivors' workload because employees are laid-off due to downsizing, but their work remains, and fewer employees have to achieve the required level of output (Cameron, 1994b; Freeman, 1999; Mujtaba & Senathip,

2020). Therefore, survivors have to work for longer hours to manage more people and jobs (Spagnoli & Balducci, 2017; Dlouhy & Casper, 2021), which increases their workload.

The workload increased after downsizing gives rise to negative and fearful survivors' responses by increasing their stress, negative emotions, and role ambiguity (Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998; Mujtaba & Senathip, 2020; Dlouhy & Casper, 2021). Such stressful work conditions can generate interpersonal conflict among survivors (Pearlin & Bierman, 2013; Frone & Blais, 2020). According to the stress process model (Pearlin & Bierman, 2013), secondary stressors lead to harmful outcomes (i.e., problematic behaviors and substance abuse). The workload is a secondary stressor (Frone & Blais, 2020), increasing survivors' stress after downsizing (Supartha, 2020; Dlouhy & Casper, 2021), which could promote interpersonal conflict among them (Somaraju et al., 2021). Moreover, the workload causes strain that fosters adverse outcomes such as burnout and poor well-being (Knight & Parker, 2021). It enhances employees' role ambiguity (Allen et al., 2001) and increases their physical, mental, and emotional work fatigue (Frone & Blais, 2020), which could promote interpersonal conflict among workers (Pearlin & Bierman, 2013).

Survivors of downsizing do not want to become victims of upcoming downsizing; hence, they cannot complain about their high workload (Frone & Blais, 2020). They try to avoid the extra workload in their capacity by leaving some tasks for their colleagues, which could generate interpersonal conflict among them. Furthermore, survivors are not paid nor trained for the extra functions (Kets De Vries & Balazs, 1997); therefore, they are not ready to take on the additional responsibilities. They try to maintain their comfort zone by avoiding extra work. Such an avoiding attitude of survivors can damage their interpersonal relationship with co-workers, promoting relationship conflict. Moreover, researchers (e.g., Freeman & Cameron, 1993;

Cameron, 1994) argued that workload creates confusion among survivors regarding what to do and how to do it. Since task conflict is the disagreement regarding 'what to do' (Jehn et al., 1999; Greer et al., 2008), and process conflict is the disagreement regarding 'how to do' (Jehn, 1997; Jehn et al., 1999; Jehn & Mannix, 2001). Therefore, we propose that increased workload post-downsizing would promote survivors' task, process, and relationship conflicts. Literature demonstrated that downsizing increases workload that could promote interpersonal conflict among survivors. Therefore, based on the stress process model (Pearlin & Bierman, 2013), we propose that workload could be an essential underlying mechanism explaining the relationship between downsizing and interpersonal conflict. Thus, we hypothesized the following:

H2a: Workload mediates the relationship between downsizing and task conflict
H2b: Workload mediates the relationship between downsizing and process conflict
H2c: Workload mediates the relationship between downsizing and relationship conflict

2.3. Restructuring as a Moderator

Restructuring/redesigning is defined as changes in the organizational structure and work processes, eliminating unnecessary tasks, and using new technology (Cameron, 1994b; Freeman, 1999). Restructuring is different from downsizing (Rondeau & Wagar, 2003). Downsizing is the organizational workforce reduction (Harney et al., 2018), while restructuring is reorganizing the structure and work processes before, during, or after the downsizing to align them according to the available workforce. Some researchers have placed downsizing under restructuring (e.g., Bommer & Jalajas, 1999; Knight & Parker, 2021; Supartha, 2020). Some used them interchangeably (e.g., Garaudel et al., 2008), while others (Freeman & Cameron, 1993; Cameron, 1994b) have mixed up both by defining downsizing very broadly. They defined downsizing as the activity that brings changes in the workforce (assumption of size), cost (efficiency assumption), and work processes (assumption of change in work process) (Freeman & Cameron,

1993; Cameron, 1994b). However, the assumption of changes in work processes is a part of the restructuring, which could be a cause or an outcome of downsizing but not downsizing itself.

Downsizing could drive redesign (during convergence change), same as redesign could drive downsizing (reorientation), but layoff occurs in both cases (Freeman, 1999; Freeman & Cameron, 1993). What is common in the literature is that the downsizing would generate adverse outcomes if conducted as a mere headcount reduction (Love & Nohria, 2005; Mujtaba & Senathip, 2020). However, restructuring with the downsizing brings changes in the organizational structure and processes and enables organizations to perform the tasks with fewer employees (Freeman, 1999). Therefore, restructuring minimizes the negative consequences of headcount reduction (Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998; Wagar, 2009; Mujtaba & Senathip, 2020). In their systematic review, Knight and Parker (2021) also found that work redesign interventions promote positive outcomes.

According to the downsizing and work redesign framework (Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998), redesigning increases job variety and intrinsic job quality, promoting active and constructive survivors' responses after downsizing. However, downsizing without redesigning enhances survivors' workload, leading to harmful and fearful reactions. Similarly, researchers (e.g., Cameron, 1994b, 1994a; Freeman, 1999; Spagnoli & Balducci, 2017) demonstrated that downsizing increases survivors' workload. However, restructuring clarifies the role, responsibilities, and workload of the remaining employees (Kets De Vries & Balazs, 1997), thereby decreasing their workload (Freeman, 1999; Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998) which could further minimize interpersonal conflict among them. Accordingly, based on the downsizing and work redesign framework (Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998), we propose that restructuring would

minimize survivors' workload and interpersonal conflict after downsizing, and we hypothesized the following:

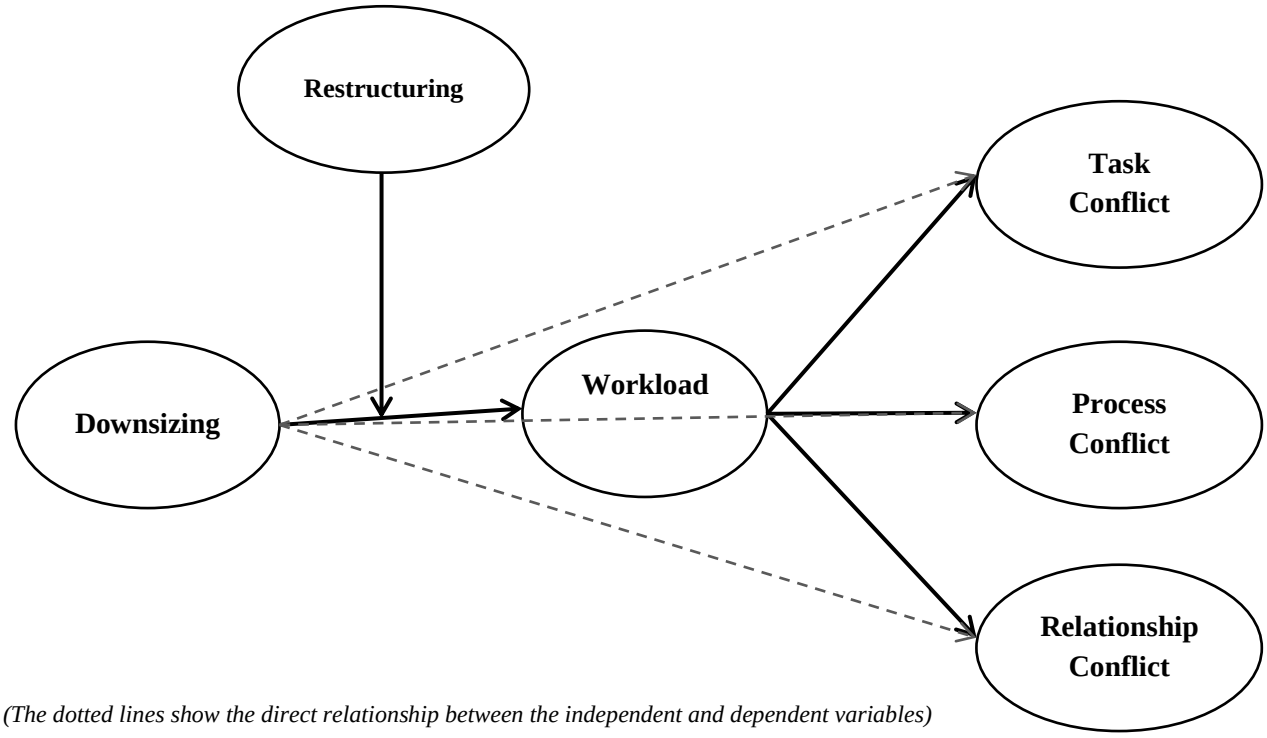
H3: Restructuring negatively moderates the relationship between downsizing and workload

H4: Restructuring negatively moderates the mediated relationship via workload between (a) downsizing and task conflict, (b) downsizing and process conflict, and (c) downsizing and relationship conflict

3. Study 1 Framework

Figure 2.1:

Study 1 Research Model



(The dotted lines show the direct relationship between the independent and dependent variables)

4. Methods

4.1. Study Context

Data were collected from employees working in private sector organizations in Pakistan, including automobiles, banking, telecommunication, and information technology, where downsizing has occurred in the near past. We targeted Pakistani organizations where interpersonal conflict is one of the critical challenges threatening organizational performance (Shaukat et al., 2017). Only private sector organizations were targeted because there is high job insecurity and downsizing in the private organizations, unlike the public sector organizations (Baillien & De Witte, 2009). Moreover, we targeted the above-mentioned sectors because they are Pakistan's most common and rapidly growing sectors. Due to intensified competition, employees of these sectors face high-performance pressure, which has led researchers (e.g., Kundi & Badar, 2021; Shaukat et al., 2017; Yousaf et al., 2020) to investigate intra-organizational issues, such as interpersonal conflict. Taken together, we think that the unit of analysis (employees working in these sectors) is ideal.

4.2. Sample and Procedure

We collected data from 462 white-collar employees using a cross-sectional design and convenience sampling. We adopted the cross-sectional and convenience sampling technique for the following reasons: (i) the participating organizations allowed one-time communication with the respondents due to the COVID-19 pandemic, (ii) it is relatively cheaper and efficient, (iii) it can effectively address many questions, (iv) it is suitable to apply for investigating new areas or/and studying more mature areas of inquiry to rule out alternative explanations (Spector, 2019).

Using our professional contacts, we gained access to the participants through the managers of each organization. After gaining participants' consent, we distributed paper-and-

pencil surveys and shared the survey link with those participants who wanted to complete it online. Before administrating the surveys, we assured the confidentiality of the respondents. Finally, to ensure that the participants completed the surveys as honestly as possible, they were informed that there was no right or wrong answer to the questions (De Clercq et al., 2021).

The survey was disseminated to 820 respondents (265 online and 555 hard copies), in which 518 employees completed it (159 online and 359 hard copies), representing a response rate of 63%. We conducted Little's (1988) missing completely at random (MCAR) test for each construct to determine whether the missing data were MCAR. The results revealed that missing data were MCAR. We thus excluded questionnaires with more than 10% missing values (N = 32) and imputed the remaining missing values (N = 07). In addition, 24 questionnaires with pattern responses (the same rating for all questions) were also excluded, which resulted in 462 valid responses.

Of the 462 employees, 86% were male; 60% were married; 60% were between 25 and 35 years of age. 36% had a bachelor's degree, whereas 61% had a master's qualification; 72% of the respondents had less than ten years of professional experience, and 36% worked in managerial positions. The organizations were large-sized, with a workforce ranging from 500 to above 1000.

4.3. Measures

All the surveys were administered in English because it is the official language of business organizations in Pakistan (Kundi et al., 2020). The items were randomly ordered rather than grouped together within the associated construct. All the items were anchored on a 7-point Likert-type scale.

Downsizing: Several researchers in previous studies have used survivors' samples after downsizing, but they did not include downsizing as a study variable (Dlouhy & Casper, 2021). The construct of downsizing is unclear; therefore, the previous researchers used a personal approach to measure it, which raises methodological limitations (Datta et al., 2010). For example, Love and Nohria (2005) considered firms' announcements of downsizing, Rondeau and Wagar (2003) asked respondents about the size of the workforce reduced, and others (e.g., Wagar, 2009; Harney et al., 2018; Dlouhy & Casper, 2021) used binary questions (0=No & 1=Yes) to measure downsizing. According to Freeman and Cameron (1993) and Freeman (1999), the workforce is reduced through layoffs, early retirement, or/and hiring freezes. Therefore, to measure downsizing, we developed a three-item scale (one item for each dimension) by implementing the three-stage procedure followed by Moore and Benbasat (1991) and detailed by MacKenzie et al. (2011). After scale development, respondents were asked to rate the activities (e.g., layoff, early retirement, and hiring) that have been performed by your organization in the last two years. We asked about the last two years because the manifestation of the ill effects of downsizing takes some time (Dlouhy & Casper, 2021). The hiring item was reversed to measure the hiring freeze. The final three item-scale had satisfactory reliability (Cronbach's alpha = 0.73).

Restructuring*:* We adapted the Rondeau and Wagar (2003) restructuring scale and asked the respondents to indicate the level of mentioned changes (e.g., changes in the organizational structure, elimination of unnecessary tasks, changes in the work processes, combining different departments, increase in the use of new technology, and employees' rotation), that your organizations have brought in the last two years. Cronbach's alpha of the scale was 0.87.

Workload: To assess workload, we adopted six items from the scale developed by Van Veldhoven and Meijman (1994), measuring both the speed and quantity of work (e.g., "I have to work fast" and "I have too much work to do"). One item (WL5) with factor loading < 0.50 was excluded. Cronbach alpha of the remaining five-item scale was 0.85.

Interpersonal Conflict: We used three items to measure task conflict (e.g., "I often have a conflict of opinions with my group members"; Cronbach's Alpha = 0.86), three items to measure relationship conflict (e.g., "I often have relationship tension with my group members"; Cronbach's Alpha = 0.82) (adopted from Jehn 1994, 1995). To measure process conflict, we used three items (e.g., "I often have disagreements with my group members about 'who should do what' in our workgroup"; Cronbach's Alpha = 0.89) (adopted from Jehn & Mannix, 2001).

Control variables: Following Harney et al. (2018), we controlled for individual characteristics (i.e., gender, age, experience, managerial position) that could affect survivors' response to downsizing, workload, and interpersonal conflict after downsizing and restructuring, and firm's characteristics (i.e., type of industry, organizational size, organizational growth) that could affect managerial decisions and strategies of downsizing and restructuring. Similarly, Wagar (2009) controlled for establishment characteristics such as size and industry sector and argued that these characteristics could associate with organizational effectiveness, influencing their decisions and strategies of downsizing and restructuring. In similar studies, Frone and Blais (2020) and Dlouhy and Casper (2021) controlled for gender, age, experience, education, and organizational size, and Baillien and De Witte (2009) controlled for age, gender, and job position in their analyses. They argued that these variables could influence individuals' response to the working conditions (i.e., job insecurity, role conflict, workload, role ambiguity, and frequency of conflict) after the organizational change.

5. Data Analyses

Following Anderson and Gerbing (1988), before hypotheses testing, we conducted the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) in AMOS-24 to assess our measurement model and the discriminant validity of our study constructs. Following previous studies (e.g., Kundi et al., 2021), we tested our moderated-mediation model with Hayes's (2012) PROCESS-Macro. We used Model 4 for the direct and mediation effects and Model 8 for the moderation and moderated-mediation effects.

5.1. Exploratory Factor Analysis

Since some of the items were adapted and newly developed, we conducted exploratory factor analysis (EFA) in SPSS v.25. The items loading > 0.4 on more than one construct or the items loaded on a factor that made no sense were eliminated (e.g., item WL5). After the measurement instruments were defined, we performed another factor analysis to verify the results. The factors obtained were consistent with prior expectations, and all the items loaded on their respective constructs with a factor loading greater than 0.5 (see Appendix-A).

5.2. Preliminary Analyses

After assessing potential outliers and missing values, we examined our study variables' skewness and kurtosis scores. We found that the skewness and kurtosis values fell within the acceptable range of -2 and +2 set by George and Mallery (2010), indicating that our data represented no significant violation of the normality assumption. Table 2.1 shows the results of descriptive analysis, including means, standard deviations, average variance extracted scores (AVE), average shared variance (ASV), composite reliability (CR), and correlation among study variables. The correlation coefficients did not exceed 0.70, indicating the absence of multicollinearity among the study variables (Kundi & Badar, 2021).

Table 2.1
Means, standard deviations, and inter-correlations among variables

Variables	Mean	SD	AVE	CR	ASV	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Gender	1.14	.35	--	--	--	--										
2. Age	2.24	.70	--	--	--	-.23**	--									
3. Experience	2.03	.99	--	--	--	-.25**	.75**	--								
4. Industry	1.52	.50	--	--	--	.18**	.04	-.04	--							
5. Org. Growth	0.77	.42	--	--	--	.05	-.05	-.11*	.12**	--						
6. Downsizing	3.47	1.34	.65	.85	.036	.05	.07	.43	.18**	-.05	**(.73)**					
7. Restructuring	4.06	1.34	.61	.90	.003	.07	.02	.05	.06	.18**	-.003	**(.87)**				
8. Workload	4.40	1.37	.61	.89	.03	.014	-.03	-.002	-.09*	-.07	.19**	-.08	**(.85)**			
9. Task Conflict	3.27	1.37	.67	.86	.11	.02	-.07	-.10*	-.05	-.06	.23**	-.05	.22**	**(.86)**		
10. Process Conflict	2.86	1.39	.68	.87	.12	-.02	-.11*	-.09*	.004	-.03	.26**	-.04	.24**	.55**	**(.89)**	
11. Relationship Conflict	2.44	1.17	.64	.84	.10	.03	-.05	-.03	.04	-.10*	.24**	-.07	.13**	.53**	.52**	**(.82)**

Note: N = 462; *p < .05, **p< .01; SD = standard deviation, AVE = average variance extracted, CR = composite reliability, ASV = average shared variance; numbers in brackets are Cronbach Alphas.

Gender: 1=Male, 2=Female; **Age:** 1=below 25, 2= 26-35, 3= 36-45, 4= 46-55, 5= 56-65, 6=above 65; **Experience:** 1=less than 5 years, 2= 5-10, 3= 11-15, 4=above 15; **Industry:** 1=Manufacturing, 2=Services; **Organizational Growth**: 0=Not growing, 1= Growing.

The correlation results (see table no. 2.1) revealed that downsizing was positively correlated with workload ($r = .19$, $p < .001$), task conflict ($r = .23$, $p < .001$), process conflict ($r = .26$, $p < .001$) and relationship conflict ($r = .24$, $p < .001$), but surprisingly downsizing was not significantly correlated with restructuring ($r = -.003$, $p > .05$). Workload had a positive correlation with task conflict ($r = .22$, $p < .001$), process conflict ($r = .24$, $p < .001$) and relationship conflict ($r = .13$, $p < .01$). Task conflict was positively correlated with process conflict ($r = .55$, $p < .001$) and relationship conflict ($r = .53$, $p < .01$), and process conflict was also positively correlated with relationship conflict ($r = .53$, $p < .01$).

The results of previous studies (e.g., Harney et al., 2018; Rondeau & Wagar, 2003) show a positive correlation between downsizing and restructuring; however, surprisingly, our results revealed that downsizing has an insignificant negative correlation with organizational restructuring. There could be both theoretical and statistical reasons/explanations for the insignificant correlation between downsizing and restructuring in our current study. First, past researchers did not clearly differentiate downsizing from restructuring. Some researchers placed downsizing under restructuring (e.g., Knight & Parker, 2021; Supartha, 2020); some used them interchangeably (e.g., Garaudel et al., 2008), while others (Freeman & Cameron, 1993; Cameron, 1994b) mixed up both downsizing and restructuring. However, some previous researchers (e.g., Harney et al., 2018; Rondeau & Wagar, 2003) demonstrated that downsizing differs from restructuring. Accordingly, we differentiated downsizing from restructuring and explained that downsizing is the organizational workforce reduction, while restructuring is reorganizing the structure and work processes before, during, or after the downsizing to align them according to the available workforce.

Second, the majority of the past researchers (e.g., Wagar, 2009; Harney et al., 2018; Dlouhy & Casper, 2021) have measured downsizing and restructuring with binary questions (0=No & 1=Yes). The respondents might not exactly know the difference between downsizing and restructuring, and they could consider them similar. Due to lack of clarity, the respondents may rate the questions about downsizing and restructuring similarly, resulting in a strong positive correlation between downsizing and restructuring. However, in our current study, we developed questionnaires for downsizing and restructuring and clearly distinguished downsizing from restructuring. We asked precise questions from the respondents regarding the ways through which the organizations lay off their employees (layoff, early retirement, hiring freeze) and the changes organizations bring in their structure and work processes. Therefore, the respondents did not get confused, and their responses did not overlap, resulting in an insignificant correlation between downsizing and organizational restructuring. We mentioned earlier that downsizing and restructuring are different from each other. Sometimes, organizations lay off employees, but they do not change their structure and work process (no restructuring); sometimes, they change the organizational structure and work processes (restructuring), but they do not necessarily lay off employees (no downsizing). Sometimes the organizations restructure, but instead of laying-off employees, they hire more employees (up-sizing) when the new structure and work processes require more workforce. Therefore, we demonstrate that downsizing and restructuring are different strategies. The organizations do not necessarily conduct them together but could be performed independently of each other. Thus, the downsizing and restructuring constructs could have no or a negative correlation.

5.3. Measurement Assessment

Following prior research (e.g., Kundi et al., 2020; De Clercq et al., 2021), we conducted a series of confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) using AMOS-24 and compared our hypothesized model with all other alternative models to assess the model fitness and distinctiveness of the study constructs. Three different fit indices were used to assess the proposed model fitness, namely comparative fit index (CFI), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) (Hu & Bentler, 1998). The results (see Table 2.2) indicated that our proposed six-factor model (downsizing, restructuring, workload, task conflict, process conflict, and relationship conflict) had an acceptable fit to data ($\chi 2$ [211] = 422.70, CFI =0.96, RMSEA =0.047, SRMR = .05) and better than the alternative models (see Table 2.2).

To assess the convergent validity, we examined (i) factor loadings, (ii) CR values, and (iii) AVE scores of the constructs. The results (see Appendix A) indicated that factor loadings of all the constructs were above the threshold value of .6 (Chin, 2010). The CR values were higher than .7, and the AVE scores were higher than the threshold value of .5 (see Table 2.1), supporting the convergent validity of the study constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Furthermore, we examined the discriminant validity of the study's constructs by comparing each construct's AVE and ASV (mean of the squared correlations among constructs) scores. We found that the AVE value of each construct was higher than its ASV score (see Table 2.1), thereby supporting the discriminant validity of our study constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Table 2.2
Fit statistics of measurement models

Model	χ2	Df	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
Six-Factor Model: include DS, RS, WL, RC, TC, PC	422.70	211	.96	.047	.05
Five-Factor Model: combines TC and PC	832.92	216	.88	.079	.06
Four-Factor Model: Combines PC and RC with TC	1075.23	220	.84	.092	.07
Three-Factor Model: Combines DS with RS, and PC & RC with TC	1943.47	223	.67	.129	.13
Two-factor Model: Combines RS & WL with DS, PC & RC with TC	2341.74	225	.60	.143	.15
One-factor Model:	2896.60	226	.49	.160	.16
$Method_U$	292.31	188	0.97	0.035	0.031
$Method_I$	492.19	226	0.95	0.05	0.058
$Method_R$	492.19	227	0.95	0.05	0.058

Note: χ2 = Chi-square, df = Degree of freedom, CFI = Comparative Fit Index, RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation, SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual.
(DS = Downsizing, RS = Restructuring, WL = Workload, TC = Task Conflict, PC = Process Conflict, RC = Relationship Conflict)

5.4. Dealing with Common-Method Biasness (CMB)

The common-method variance could be an issue in the current study because we collected the data through self-reported measures (Dlouhy & Casper, 2021). Therefore, we applied both procedural and statistical remedies to minimize this problem. Procedurally, following the guideline of López Bohle et al. (2018), we ensured the confidentiality of the respondents and clarified that there were no right or wrong answers. To psychologically separate the dependent variables from the independent, following Shih and Susanto (2010), we placed the dependent and independent variables in different sections with different instructions and randomly ordered the items.

Statistically, following the recommendations of Williams and McGonagle (2016), we conducted the unmeasured latent method construct (ULMC) method to assess the likelihood of common method variance (CMV). In this regard, we ran three CFA models: (i) the method factor model ($Method_U$) to examine whether CMV exists; (ii) the method factor with equal method factor loadings within and freely estimated loadings between substantive latent constructs ($Method_I$) to check whether the extent of CMV varied between substantive constructs; and (iii) the reference model with restricted correlations of substantive latent constructs ($Method_R$) without the inclusion of a method factor. Our results (see Table 2.2) showed that CMV was not a threat since there was no substantial deterioration in model fit.

6. Hypotheses Testing

H1a, H1b, and H1c questioned whether downsizing positively relate to task, process, and relationship conflicts, respectively. As can be seen in Table 2.3, downsizing positively predicted task conflict (β = .22, p < .01), process conflict (β = .24, p < .01), and relationship conflict (β = .19, p < .01), supporting H1a, H1b, and H1c respectively. Moreover, downsizing was also positively related to workload (β = .21, p < .01), and workload was positively related with task conflict (β = .17, p = .000) and process conflict (β = .19, p < .01) but not with relationship conflict (β = .07, p = .10).

H2a, H2b, and H2c questioned whether downsizing would indirectly relate to task, process, and relationship conflicts via workload. Our bootstrapping results (see Table 2.3) revealed that the indirect relationships of downsizing with task conflict via workload (β = .036; 95% CI [.0130; .0657]), and with process conflict via workload (β = .040; 95% CI [.0167; .0708]), were positive and significant, supporting H4a and H4b respectively. Since the direct

relationships of downsizing with task and process conflicts were also significant; therefore, workload partially mediated the relationship between downsizing and task and process conflicts. Contrary to H2c, the results revealed that the indirect relationship between downsizing and relationship conflict via workload was not statistically significant (β = .014; 95% CI [-.0024; .0338]).

Table 2.3
Mediation results (process macro-Model 4)

	Workload		**Task Conflict**		**Process Conflict**		**Relationship Conflict**	
Predictor	**B**	**SE**	**B**	**SE**	**B**	**SE**	**B**	**SE**
Gender	*.11*	*.189*	*-.01*	*.186*	*-.27*	*.186*	*.002*	*.161*
Age	*-.12*	*.136*	*.02*	*.134*	*-.21*	*.134*	*-.10*	*.116*
Experience	*.03*	*.099*	*-.19*	*.097*	*-.06*	*.098*	*-.03*	*.084*
Managerial Position	*.04*	*.097*	*.07*	*.095*	*-.01*	*.095*	*.13*	*.082*
Industry	*-.31**	*.132*	*-.17*	*.131*	*.01*	*.131*	*.03*	*.113*
Organization Size	*.14*	*.092*	*.07*	*.091*	*.11*	*.091*	*-.07*	*.078*
Organizational Growth	*-.14*	*.152*	*-.13*	*.149*	*-.05*	*.149*	*-.22*	*.129*
Downsizing	.21**	.048	.22**	.048	.24**	.048	.19**	.041
Workload			.17**	.046	.19**	.046	.07	.039

Indirect Paths	**Bootstrapping**		**95% CI**	
	B	**SE**	**LLCI**	**ULCI**
H2a Downsizing → Workload → Task Conflict	.036	.014	.0130	.0657
H2b Downsizing → Workload → Process Conflict	.040	.014	.0167	.0708
H2c Downsizing → Workload → Relationship Conflict	.014	.009	-.0024	.0338

Note: N = 462; **p < .01, SE: Standard Error

H3 questioned the moderating effect of restructuring on the relationship between downsizing and workload in such a way that the relationship between downsizing and workload would be weaker in the presence of restructuring.

Our results (see Table 2.4) indicated a significant negative effect of the downsizing x restructuring interaction in predicting workload (β = -.16, p <.01), providing support to H3. Following Aiken and West (1991), we conducted a simple slope analysis of the relative effect size through the graphical plot to determine the interaction of downsizing and restructuring on workload. Figure 2.2 shows that overall workload is higher when downsizing is higher, indicating the positive relationship between downsizing and workload. However, this positive relationship becomes weaker at a certain level of restructuring, which supports the negative moderation of restructuring on the relationship between downsizing and workload. However, the downsizing x restructuring interaction on workload was insignificant at a higher level of restructuring.

Table 2.4

Moderated mediation results (process macro-Model 8)

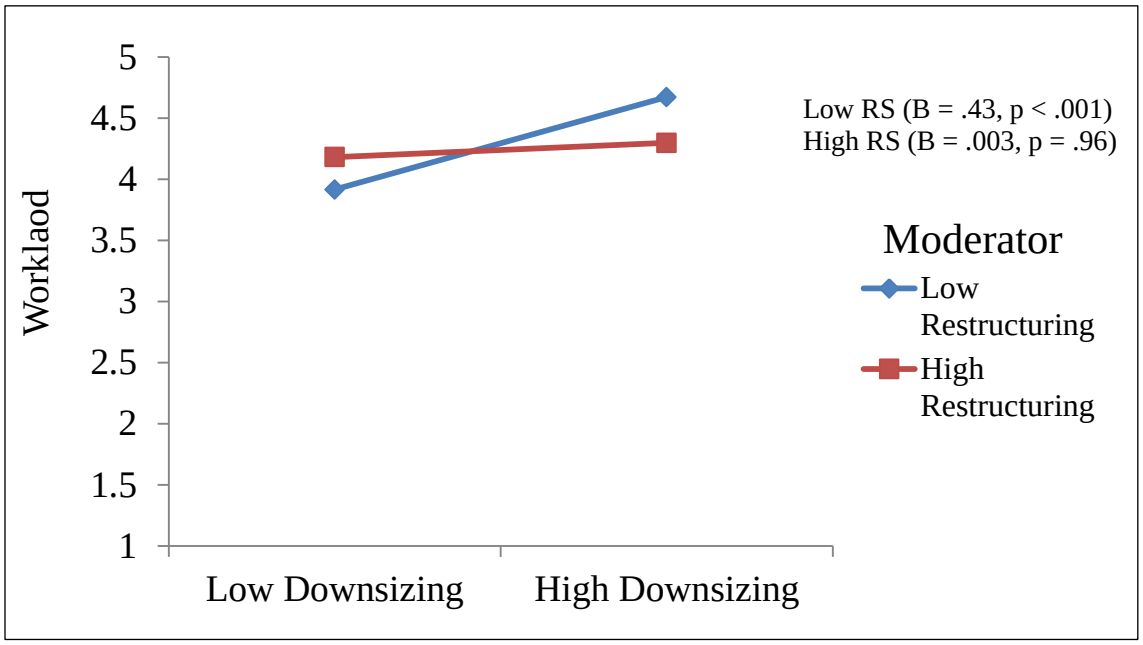
Hypothesis	Predictors	Workload B	Workload SE
	Downsizing	.21**	.46
	Restructuring	-.03	.47
H3	**Restructuring × Downsizing**	-.16**	.03

		Bootstrapping		95% CI	
	Conditional Indirect Effects	***Index***	***SE***	***LLCI***	***ULCI***
H4a	**DS × RS -> WL -> TC**	-.024	.009	-.0430	-.0080
H4b	**DS × RS -> WL -> PC**	-.032	.010	-.0542	-.0147
H4c	**DS × RS -> WL -> RC**	-.010	.007	-.0266	.0025

Note: **p < .01, Beta coefficients and average bootstrap estimates are stated; demographic variables and firm characteristics' variables are controlled; bootstrapping procedure [5000 iterations, bias corrected, 95% CI]; n = 462
DS= Downsizing; RS= Restructuring; WL= Workload; TC= Task Conflict; PC= Process Conflict; RC= Relationship Conflict

Figure 2.2:

Interactive effects of downsizing and restructuring on workload



Note: We adopted the method of mean ± 1 standard deviation in order to identify low and high downsizing

Finally, our results (see Table 2.4) revealed that restructuring negatively moderated the indirect relationship (via workload) between downsizing and task conflict (β = -.024; 95% CI [-.0430; -.0080]), and downsizing and process conflict (β = -.032; 95% CI [-.0542; -.0147]), providing support to H4a and H4b respectively. However, the indirect relationship between downsizing and relationship conflict via workload was not significantly moderated by restructuring (β = -.010; 95% CI [-.0266; .0025]), contradicting H4c.

7. Discussion

This study aimed to examine how and when downsizing relates to interpersonal conflict (task, process, and relationship conflicts) among survivors by investigating the mediating role of workload and the moderating effect of restructuring. The results highlighted that downsizing

promotes task, process, and relationship conflicts. Downsizing enhances survivors' workload, which further fosters task and process conflicts among them, and workload mediates the relationship between downsizing and task and process conflicts. The workload was not significantly related to relationship conflict, nor did it mediate the relationship between downsizing and relationship conflict because workload generates disagreements and discussions regarding work-related issues. However, relationship conflict is not based on work-related issues (Jehn, 1995, 1997; De Dreu & Weingart, 2003); therefore, the workload does not promote relationship conflict. Furthermore, the relationship between downsizing and survivors' workload and the indirect association between downsizing and task and process conflicts via workload was weaker in the presence of restructuring, which means restructuring minimizes survivors' workload, which further reduces interpersonal conflict among them.

8. Theoretical Contributions

Our study has several theoretical contributions. First, our results confirmed the direct relationship between downsizing and interpersonal conflict, lending empirical support to the prior research (e.g., Freeman, 1994; Pitelis, 2007; Ashman, 2016; Mujtaba & Senathip, 2020; Frone & Blais, 2020), arguing that downsizing could promote organizational conflict. These results also provide support to the behavioral theory of the firm (Cyert & March, 1963), proposing that slack reductions (downsizing) could promote organizational conflict. Since, interpersonal conflict is detrimental (e.g., De Clercq & Belausteguigoitia, 2020; Khosravi et al., 2020; Sinha et al., 2021). Therefore, these results are in line with the stress process theory (Pearlin & Bierman, 2013), which demonstrates that stressors (e.g., downsizing) lead to harmful outcomes such as problematic behaviors and substance abuse (interpersonal conflict in our case). Moreover, our

study findings highlighted that downsizing generates all three types of interpersonal conflict (e.g., task, process, and relationship conflicts) among survivors.

Second, the results confirmed that workload mediates the relationship between downsizing and interpersonal conflict, providing empirical support to the stress process theory (Pearlin & Bierman, 2013) and the prior research (e.g., Frone & Blais, 2020) demonstrating that primary stressors (e.g., downsizing) lead to secondary stressors (e.g., workload), which subsequently generate adverse outcomes (e.g., interpersonal conflict). This study also confirmed the positive relationship between downsizing and workload, further supporting the previous studies arguing for this relationship (Freeman, 1999; Frone & Blais, 2020; Dlouhy & Casper, 2021). Moreover, our results indicated that workload positively relates to task and process conflicts, supporting the prior studies arguing that workload enhances survivors' stress, negative emotions, and role ambiguity (Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998; Supartha, 2020; Mujtaba & Senathip, 2020; Dlouhy & Casper, 2021), which damages survivors' interpersonal relationship and causes interpersonal conflict among them (Pearlin & Bierman, 2013; Frone & Blais, 2020; Somaraju et al., 2021).

Third, the results revealed that restructuring negatively moderates the relationship between downsizing and workload, which means restructuring minimizes survivors' workload by bringing organizational structure and work processes changes. These results provide empirical support to the downsizing and work redesign framework of Mishra and Spreitzer (1998) and to the previous studies (e.g., Kets De Vries & Balazs, 1997; Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998; Rondeau & Wagar, 2003; Wagar, 2009) arguing that restructuring minimizes the negative consequences of downsizing. The moderated mediation results indicated that restructuring also negatively moderates the indirect relationship between downsizing and task and process conflicts via

workload. We additionally checked the moderation effect of restructuring on the direct relationship between downsizing and task, process, and relationship conflicts, which was not significant. These results indicate that restructuring does not decrease survivors' interpersonal conflict directly but minimizes survivors' workload, further reducing interpersonal conflict among them.

9. Practical Implications

According to literature (e.g., Harney et al., 2018; Frone & Blais, 2020; Dlouhy & Casper, 2021), organizations fail to achieve the desired financial and performance objectives of downsizing and mostly face unintended negative consequences. Many researchers (e.g., Ashman, 2016; Appelbaum et al., 1999; Mujtaba & Senathip, 2020) demonstrated that the adverse effects of downsizing are due to the lack of organizational focus on the fewer remaining employees (survivors) who face psychosocial problems and withdraw from the organizations both physically and mentally. The findings of this study supported this contention because the results revealed that downsizing promotes interpersonal conflict among survivors, and according to research (e.g., De Clercq & Belausteguigoitia, 2020; Khosravi et al., 2020; Sinha et al., 2021), interpersonal conflict fosters adverse outcomes. Therefore, this study suggests that organizations should consider alternatives to layoff, such as cultural change, organizational and job redesign, etc. (Appelbaum, Lavigne-Schmidt, et al., 1999; Datta et al., 2010), that would help organizations avoid the adverse effects of downsizing on survivors and organizations. If the alternatives are not feasible, organizations need to carefully implement the downsizing by considering its potentially harmful effects on the survivors and their work environment. Organizations should arrange mental health training and employee assistance programs to better cope with the survivors experiencing stress and psychological pressure (Frone & Blais, 2020).

This study revealed that workload is the mechanism through which downsizing leads to interpersonal conflict among survivors, and restructuring accompanying the downsizing minimizes survivors' workload. Therefore, the current study suggests that, along with headcount reduction, managers should bring changes in their organizational structure and work processes to align them with the available workforce so that survivors' workload and interpersonal conflict could be minimized. Organizations should enrich survivors' jobs through work redesign to achieve active survivors' response and better cope with the downsizing's adverse effects (Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998). Organizations should also focus on survivors' job crafting by shaping their tasks and relational boundaries to reduce survivors' exposure to adverse working conditions (Frone & Blais, 2020) and minimize their interpersonal conflict.

10. Limitations and Future Research

The current study has some limitations that could influence the results' interpretation. First, a convenience sampling technique has been used, which is cost-effective and easy to carry out (Etikan, 2016), but restricts the generalizability of results to the broader population (Aboramadan et al., 2021). Therefore, future researchers should utilize various sampling techniques and data collection methods to extend the current study results. Second, we have employed a cross-sectional design to test our study model, which creates concerns for potential reverse causality (De Clercq & Belausteguigoitia, 2020). The cross-sectional design also limits the ability to make causal assertions about the relationship between independent and dependent variables (Dlouhy & Casper, 2021; Spagnoli & Balducci, 2017). Although, Dlouhy and Casper (2021) stated that it is challenging to obtain longitudinal data from downsizing organizations. However, Pearlin and Bierman (2013) argued that only longitudinal studies could better explain the mediating role of secondary stressors in the primary stressor and their outcomes relationship and enable us to

conclude causality. Therefore, future studies should utilize a longitudinal or experimental design to investigate better the impact of downsizing on interpersonal conflicts through the mediating role of job stressors.

Third, we collected data through self-reported measures, which have been noted to result in common method bias (CMB) (Dlouhy & Casper, 2021). Even though we followed all the essential guidelines to minimize the CMB issue and performed the necessary tests, which indicated that CMB is not a problem in this study, still, future studies should not rely on data from a single source. They should collect data on downsizing, workload, and interpersonal conflict from multiple sources, such as managers, subordinates, company reports, etc. Finally, we only examined the mediating role of workload: however, downsizing also promotes other job stressors such as role ambiguity and role conflict (Baillien & De Witte, 2009; Frone & Blais, 2020) that could foster interpersonal conflict among survivors. Therefore, future studies should investigate the mediating role of other job stressors in the relationship between downsizing and interpersonal conflict.

11. Conclusion

After downsizing, the success of organizations depends upon the fewer remaining employees who withdraw from the organization both physically and mentally (Allen et al., 2001; Datta et al., 2010). Numerous researchers (e.g., Mujtaba & Senathip, 2020; Appelbaum et al., 1999; Dlouhy & Casper, 2021) have confirmed the adverse effects of downsizing on survivors. Accordingly, our study demonstrates that downsizing enhances survivors' workload, promoting interpersonal conflict among them. The workload is crucial to understanding the impact of downsizing on interpersonal conflict among survivors. Restructuring accompanying the

downsizing minimizes survivors' workload, further preventing their interpersonal conflict. Therefore, this study suggests that along with headcount reduction, organizations should bring changes in their structure and work processes to minimize the detrimental effects of downsizing, such as survivors' workload and interpersonal conflict. This study makes several theoretical contributions and practical implications for both the employees and employers and highlights some critical gaps in the literature that future research should address.

CHAPTER 3:

THE BUFFERING ROLE OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN CONFLICT TRANSFORMATION

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Chapter 3

1. Introduction
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5. Data Analyses
6. Hypotheses Testing
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The Buffering Role of Emotional Intelligence in Conflict Transformation

Abstract

This study examines how and when task and process conflicts relate to relationship conflict by detailing the mediating role of negative emotions and the moderating effect of emotional intelligence. Hypotheses were tested with the survey data collected from 462 employees working in different organizations in Pakistan. The results revealed that individuals engaged in task and process conflicts are more likely to feel negative emotions toward others and consequently are more likely to engage in relationship conflict in the workplace. The relationship between task and process conflicts and negative emotions and the indirect association of task and process conflict with the relationship conflict via negative emotions is lower when employees are more emotionally intelligent. This study pinpointed a key mechanism, negative emotions, by which task and process conflicts lead to relationship conflict. Since emotionally intelligent individuals are better at regulating their negative emotions; therefore, emotional intelligence training can be an effective tool for minimizing employees' negative emotions during task and process conflicts, which can help reduce relationship conflict. By examining the mediating role of negative emotions and the moderating effect of emotional intelligence, this study adds to the previous research by detailing how and when task and process conflicts lead to relationship conflict.

Keywords: *Task Conflict, Process Conflict, Relationship Conflict, Negative Emotions, Emotional Intelligence*

1. Introduction

Conflict is inevitable in the workplace (Rahim, 2011) and refers to the disagreement or perceived interpersonal incompatibilities among individuals (Jehn, 1995; Cenkci, 2018). Research to date has distinguished three types of interpersonal conflict: task conflict, process conflict, and relationship conflict (Jehn, 1995, 1997; Jehn & Mannix, 2001). Early studies on the distinct effects of task, process, and relationship conflicts on individual and group outcomes demonstrated the positive effects of task conflict and the adverse effects of process and relationship conflicts (e.g., Jehn, 1995; Jehn & Mannix, 2001; DeChurch et al., 2013; Giebels et al., 2016; Shaukat et al., 2017; Rezvani et al., 2019; Pitafi et al., 2020). However, the meta-analysis by De Dreu and Weingart (2003) and the empirical study by Khosravi et al. (2020) found that task conflict is also detrimental. Several researchers (e.g., Choi & Cho, 2011; Greer et al., 2008; Rispens, 2012) argued that the damaging effects of task conflict are due to its close link with the relationship conflict. Therefore, it is essential to investigate the interplay among different types of interpersonal conflicts.

Accordingly, the goal of this study was threefold. First, in the past, researchers have given more attention to task and relationship conflicts and mostly neglected process conflict, considering it similar to the task conflict (Kuriakose et al., 2019). The majority of the researchers (e.g., Choi & Cho, 2011; Guenter et al., 2016; Jimmieson et al., 2017; Rispens, 2012) investigated the association between task and relationship conflicts. However, only a few studies (e.g., Greer et al., 2008; van den Berg et al., 2014) have examined the link of process conflict with other types of interpersonal conflicts. Therefore, numerous researchers (e.g., Guenter et al., 2016; Kuriakose et al., 2019; van den Berg et al., 2014) called for investigating the interplay

among task, process, and relationship conflicts. Accordingly, this study investigated how and when task and process conflicts relate to relationship conflict.

Second, we examined the mechanism that transforms task and process conflicts into relationship conflicts. According to Choi and Cho (2011), theoretical mechanisms underlying the relationship between conflict types are unclear. Similarly, Curşeu et al. (2012) and van den Berg et al. (2014) directed researchers to examine the co-occurrence of negative emotions associated with the task and process conflicts, which can serve as a mechanism in the interplay among conflict types. Rispens (2012) also called for more research on the mediating role of negative emotions in conflict transformation. Hence, responding to the mentioned-above calls for future research on conflict transformation and its underlying mechanism, this study examined the mediating role of negative emotions in conflict transformation. In particular, based on affective event theory (AET) (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), we posit that work events such as task and process conflicts would lead to employees' emotional experiences (often negative emotions) that would further lead to employees' negative attitudes, what we call relationship conflict. The rationale for choosing negative emotions as an underlying mechanism is per the argument of Flores et al. (2018), who mentioned that negative emotions during task-related disagreements could be a mechanism that transforms cognitive conflict (task and process conflicts) into affective conflict (relationship conflict).

Finally, using the contingency perspective of conflict (Jehn & Bendersky, 2003), we examined the moderating effect of emotional intelligence on the association of task and process conflicts with negative emotions and subsequent relationship conflict. Guenter et al. (2016) and Flores et al. (2018) called for exploring the various contingency factors that could dissociate cognitive conflict from affective conflict, which would help organizations engage employees in

task-related disagreements without experiencing relationship conflict. Numerous studies have examined the moderating effects of different variables in the transformation of cognitive conflict into affective conflicts, such as conflict resolution (Greer et al., 2008), trust among group members (Choi & Cho, 2011), emotion regulation (Curşeu et al., 2012; van den Berg et al., 2014), trait self-control (Jimmieson et al., 2017), and emotional self-leadership (Flores et al., 2018). However, there is little empirical evidence about how individuals' emotional intelligence (EI) influences conflict transformation. According to Flores et al. (2018), cognitive conflict may transform into affective conflict via negative emotions; thus, controlling one's negative emotions might prevent the transformation of cognitive conflict into affective conflict. Since emotionally intelligent people are more likely to control and manage their negative emotions (Rezvani et al., 2019; Kundi & Badar, 2021), we suggest that EI can be one of the essential contingency factors preventing the escalation of cognitive conflict into affective conflict.

By examining the mediating role of negative emotions and the moderating role of emotional intelligence in conflict transformation, our study contributes to the literature on interpersonal conflict, emotions, and emotional intelligence in the following ways. First, the present study investigated the interplay among different types of conflicts to extend our understanding of conflict transformation in the organizational setting, especially the transformation of process conflict, which is the least researched (Greer et al., 2008; Jehn & Mannix, 2001; Kuriakose et al., 2019). Second, this study contributes to the understanding of why cognitive conflict transforms into affective conflict by examining the mediating role of negative emotions that could serve as a mechanism in conflict transformation. By doing so, we answer the calls by various researchers (e.g., Curşeu et al., 2012; van den Berg et al., 2014) to investigate the mechanism through which conflict transforms from one form into another. Third,

we examined the moderating role of emotional intelligence in (a) the direct relationship between task and process conflicts and negative emotions and (b) the indirect association of task and process conflicts with the relationship conflict via negative emotions. Finally, the current study's unique feature is the context and geographic location in which it is based. We conducted this study in a developing Asian country context (i.e., Pakistan), where interpersonal conflict is a threat to organizational performance (Shaukat et al., 2017), increases employees' stress, and intensifies conflict among their families and communities (Kundi & Badar, 2021).

2. Literature Review and Hypotheses Development

2.1. Distinguishing Task, Process, and Relationship Conflicts

Conflict is the disagreement or perceived interpersonal incompatibilities among individuals (Jehn, 1995; Greer et al., 2008; Cenkci, 2018). Conflict arises within or between social entities (i.e., individuals, groups, organizations, etc.) (Ohuruogu, 2020; Rahim, 2011) when "one party perceives that its interests are being opposed or negatively affected by another party" (J. A. Wall & Callister, 1995, p. 517). Research has mainly distinguished three types of conflict: task conflict, process conflict, and relationship conflict, which are distinct both in their nature as well as in their varying effects on organizational outcomes (Jehn, 1995; Jehn & Mannix, 2001; Greer et al., 2008). The task, process, and relationship conflicts typology constitute one of the main pillars of the conflict management field, making Jehn and her co-authors the most influential contributors to the conflict management field (Caputo et al., 2019). Therefore, our study used Jehn's (1994, 1995) typology of conflict types: task, process, and relationship conflicts.

Task conflict is the conflict of ideas or difference of opinions regarding the contents and outcomes of different tasks (Jehn & Mannix, 2001; Jehn & Bendersky, 2003), and it is related to "what to do" (Jehn et al., 1999; Greer et al., 2008). Process conflict is disagreement regarding

logistics or means of task accomplishment (resource allocation), the delegation of responsibilities (who is responsible for what) (Greer et al., 2008; Jehn et al., 2008), and it is related to "how to do" (Jehn et al., 1999). Finally, relationship conflict is the interpersonal incompatibilities among individuals due to personality clashes and personal likes and dislikes (Jehn, 1997; Jehn & Mannix, 2001), based on personal taste, values, interpersonal styles, political preferences, and social issues (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; Greer et al., 2008).

Relationship conflict has been widely accepted as harmful to the employees and organizations, negatively affecting group members' satisfaction, performance, and employees' creativity (Jehn, 1997; Shaukat et al., 2017; Rezvani et al., 2019; Sinha et al., 2021; Hu et al., 2017). Similarly, researchers (e.g., Greer et al., 2008; Ayub et al., 2017) have found that process conflict is detrimental to employees and employers, decreasing employees' morale, productivity, and performance. However, research has yielded mixed findings on task conflict; some researchers (e.g., Shaukat et al., 2017; Pitafi et al., 2020) consider it beneficial, while others (e.g., De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; Khosravi et al., 2020) have found it detrimental.

2.2. Conflict Transformation

According to Jehn (1994, 1995, 1997), all the three types of conflicts (i.e., task, process, and relationship) transform into each other if not managed appropriately and in a timely manner. The majority of researchers have investigated the transformation of task conflict into relationship conflict (e.g., Jimmieson et al., 2017; Maltarich et al., 2018; Flores et al., 2018), while some researchers (e.g., Choi & Cho, 2011) have investigated it reciprocally by examining the transformation of relationship conflict into task conflict. However, very few studies have focused on the association between process and relationship conflicts (e.g., Greer et al., 2008; van den Berg et al., 2014). Accordingly, Rispens (2012) called for more research investigating the

interplay among all the three types of conflict. Therefore, based on Glasl's (1982) conflict escalation model, we examined the transformation of task and process conflicts into the relationship conflict.

According to the conflict escalation model (Glasl, 1982), conflict among individuals can deepen and strengthen into more severe forms because of one-party contentious actions and behaviors that foster adverse reactions in the other party. Thus, we expected that task and process conflicts could be transformed into relationship conflicts if not managed properly (de Wit et al., 2013; van den Berg et al., 2014; Guenter et al., 2016). One of the key reasons for the escalation of task conflict into the relationship conflict is that group members take the task-related disagreements so personally that they feel that they are being criticized on a personal level (de Wit et al., 2013). If this misperception persists, it leads to relationship conflict (Jimmieson et al., 2017). Each individual takes a position during task-related arguments, which become a part of their self-concept. Any statement criticizing that position is considered a threat to their self-concept; therefore, they perceive task-related criticism as a personal attack (Guenter et al., 2016). Consequently, they become defensive during task-related discussions, and such defensive behavior triggers hostility in others (Kundi & Badar, 2021), which brings forth relationship conflict. Moreover, when an individual's idea is continuously rejected during task-related discussions, they consider it a personal rejection and begin to dislike their opponent (Jehn, 1995, 1997), which gives rise to friction in their interpersonal relationships, causing relationship conflict.

Task and process conflicts are closely related because task conflict is the disagreement based on "what to achieve," and process conflict is based on "how to achieve" (Greer et al., 2008; van den Berg et al., 2014); therefore, process conflict may also transform into relationship

conflict. According to Greer et al. (2008), process conflict is more ambiguous than task conflict because individuals do not know whether the disagreement during process conflict is related to the task or the person. Therefore, process conflict transforms into all other conflicts (especially into relationship conflict). Moreover, disagreement regarding the distribution of roles and delegation of assignments during process conflict creates negative emotions in employees, disturbing their interpersonal relationships (Kuriakose et al., 2019; van den Berg et al., 2014), which leads to relationship conflict. Therefore, based on the conflict escalation model and the literature on the interrelationship among different types of conflicts, we formed the following hypotheses:

H1a: Task conflict positively relates to relationship conflict.

H1b: Process conflict positively relates to relationship conflict.

2.3. The Mediating Role of Negative Emotions

There is no standard definition of emotion in the literature; therefore, researchers have defined it with reference to a list of words, such as joy, surprise, fear, sadness, and disgust (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996; Cabanac, 2002). Emotions can be defined as any mental experience with high intensity and high hedonic content (pleasure/displeasure) (Cabanac, 2002). There are two types of emotions/affect—positive/pleasant and negative/unpleasant (Watson et al., 1988; Diener et al., 1995; Smits et al., 2002). A positive affect is an extent to which a person feels active, alert, and enthusiastic. In contrast, negative affect is the state of unpleasant engagement that consists of negative feelings like anger, disgust, guilt, fear, contempt, and nervousness (Watson et al., 1988). Emotion is a reaction to an event; therefore, it is event or object specific (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), and it could arise as a response to a changing relationship (Mayer et al., 1999).

According to affective event theory (AET) (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), different events in the workplace give rise to employees' emotional reactions, and these emotional experiences

shape employees' attitudes and behaviors. Accordingly, in the light of AET, we argue that task and process conflicts are work events (Yang & Mossholder, 2004) that foster negative emotions among employees facing a task or/and process conflicts, which could increase relationship conflict. Conflicts arise when two or more social entities interact to achieve their objectives (Rahim, 2011), which gives rise to competitive orientation and creates negative feelings (Park & Nam, 2020; Zhang et al., 2019). If an individual's suggestion is continuously shut down during task and process conflicts, they may consider it a personal rejection, which can foster negative emotions (de Wit et al., 2013). Therefore, task and process conflicts can enhance employees' negative emotions (Hopkins & Yonker, 2015; Zhang et al., 2019). Moreover, during task conflict, while defending one's own point of view and disagreeing with the others' point of view, nonverbal elements like tone of voice, facial expression, gestures, etc., stimulate the emotional response of others (Yang & Mossholder, 2004), fostering negative emotions. Similarly, during process conflicts, employees disagree about the role distributions and task delegation. They are not ready to take on extra responsibilities or accept those roles that do not match their personal preferences. Such disagreements could also increase their negative emotions (van den Berg et al., 2014).

The negative emotions that arise during task and process conflicts enhance employees' relationship conflicts (van den Berg et al., 2014) because negative emotions are the key antecedents of the relationship conflict (Yang & Mossholder, 2004). Due to the high involvement of negative emotions, relationship conflict is also called emotional or socio-emotional conflict (Jehn & Mannix, 2001). According to Choi and Cho (2011) and Flores et al. (2018), positive emotions during disagreements prevent, while negative emotions transform the cognitive conflict into affective conflict. Similarly, Rispens (2012) found that anger transforms

cognitive conflict into affective conflict. People with negative emotions focus more on the opposing sides of things (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). They negatively perceive their opponents during the task and process-related disagreements, which causes friction in their interpersonal relations and leads to relationship conflict. According to the literature, task and process conflicts positively relate to negative emotions, and negative emotions relate to relationship conflict; therefore, negative emotions may serve as an essential underlying mechanism that transforms cognitive conflict into affective conflict. Based on AET, we hypothesized the following:

H2a: Negative emotions mediate the relationship between task and relationship conflicts.

H2b: Negative emotions mediate the relationship between process and relationship conflicts.

2.4. Emotional Intelligence as Moderator

Salovey and Mayer (1990) were among the pioneers who suggested the name emotional intelligence (EI) and defined it as the ability to be aware of and manage one's own emotions and the emotions of others. According to Yang and Mossholder (2004), EI refers to the capabilities that enable individuals to process conflict-related emotions effectively**.** According to Mayer et al. (1999), EI comprises four basic abilities classes: perception, assimilation, understanding, and regulation of emotions. Wong and Law (2002) divided EI into four basic dimensions: self-emotions appraisal, others' emotions appraisal, regulation of emotions, and uses of emotions. According to Jordan and Lawrence (2009), emotional intelligence is the ability to deal with one's own emotions and those of others, where the ability to deal with one's own emotions is intrapersonal, and the ability to deal with others' emotions is an interpersonal ability. Jordan and Lawrence's (2009) model of EI is based on two dimensions, ability (awareness and management) and focus of attention (own and others), having four constructs: awareness of one's own

emotions, management of one's own emotions, awareness of others' emotions, and management of others' emotions.

Emotional intelligence has been the focus of research for the past two decades (Mattingly & Kraiger, 2019), and it has been extensively studied in relation to various individual, group, and organizational level outcomes, such as job performance, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intention (Wong & Law, 2002), team performance (Jamshed & Majeed, 2019), quality of decision making (Santos et al., 2018), and project performance (Khosravi et al., 2020). Emotional intelligence has attracted the attention of conflict management researchers (Caputo et al., 2019). Khosravi et al. (2020) contended that emotional intelligence prevents the arousal of the task, process, and relationship conflicts, while Kundi and Badar (2021) found that EI buffers the relationship between interpersonal conflict and counterproductive work behavior. The majority of the emotional intelligence studies in the conflict management domain have focused on the role of EI in the conflict-outcomes relationship (e.g., Kundi & Badar, 2021; Ma & Liu, 2019); however, little is known about the role of EI in the conflict transformation process.

Using the contingency perspective, we propose the buffering role of emotional intelligence (EI) in the relationship between task and process conflicts and negative emotions. According to the extant literature (e.g., de Wit et al., 2013; van den Berg et al., 2014; Rezvani et al., 2019), task and process conflicts lead to negative emotions. The negative emotions that arise during task and process conflicts could be minimized with emotional intelligence because EI is about effectively dealing with emotions, and people with high EI can regulate and control their negative emotions (Wong & Law, 2002; Law et al., 2004). Emotionally intelligent people have the ability to be aware of and manage their own emotions as well as the emotions of others, so they can better communicate with their fellow members during the task and process-related

disagreements with the appropriate emotional tone, which could prevent the arousal of negative emotions in others (Rezvani et al., 2019). Hence, EI minimizes the negative emotions arising during the task and process-related disagreements. Therefore, we hypothesized the following:

H3a: EI negatively moderates the relationship between task conflict and negative emotions.

H3b: EI negatively moderates the relationship between process conflict and negative emotions.

Moreover, according to Flores et al. (2018), negative emotions during task-related disagreements could be a mechanism that transforms cognitive conflict into affective conflict. Thus, based on affective event theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), we have hypothesized the mediating role of negative emotions in transforming task and process conflicts into relationship conflict. However, according to the literature (e.g., Law et al., 2004; Rezvani et al., 2019; Kundi & Badar, 2021), emotionally intelligent people can control and manage their negative emotions. Therefore, using the contingency perspective of conflict (Jehn & Bendersky, 2003), we propose emotional intelligence as a contingency factor that could prevent the transformation of task and process conflicts into relationship conflict by minimizing the negative emotions.

Previous studies (e.g., Curşeu et al., 2012; van den Berg et al., 2014) have found emotion regulation as a contingency factor, buffering the direct relationship between task and process conflicts and relationship conflict. Emotion regulation is one of the dimensions of emotional intelligence (Jordan & Troth, 2004); therefore, emotional intelligence could be a better contingency factor than emotion regulation. Conflict is a two-way process, and it arises among social entities when they interact with each other (Rahim, 2002, 2011). The negative emotions that arise in one party during conflict are based on the emotional state of the opposition party because the opponents' emotions stimulate the emotional response of the other party. Therefore,

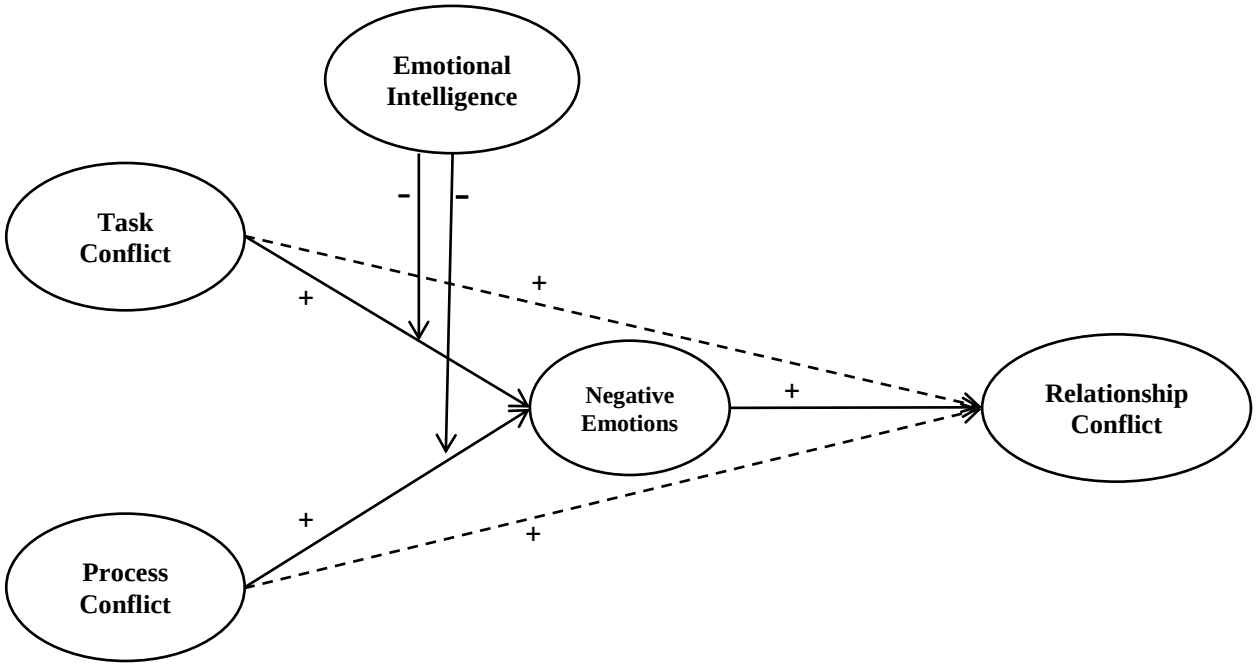
to better control and manage negative emotions, the person in conflict needs to understand the opponent's emotions before understanding and regulating their own emotions (Wong & Law, 2002). EI has both dimensions, dealing with one's own emotions and dealing with the emotions of others (Jordan & Lawrence, 2009). Individuals with a higher level of emotional intelligence are better able to understand, regulate, and use emotional information than those having a low level of emotional intelligence (Chen et al., 2019). Therefore, EI could better prevent the negative emotions that arise during task and process conflicts, further minimizing the relationship conflict. Yang and Mossholder (2004) also contended that emotional intelligence disassociates cognitive conflict from affective conflict because EI helps control negative emotions and facilitates effective communication (Rezvani et al., 2019). Based on the above discussion, we hypothesized the following:

> *H4a: EI negatively moderates the mediated relationship between task conflict and relationship conflict via negative emotions.*
>
> *H4b: EI negatively moderates the mediated relationship between process conflict and relationship conflict via negative emotions.*

3. Study 2 Framework

Figure 3.1:

Study 2 Research model



Note: The dotted lines indicate the direct relationship between independent and dependent variables.

4. Methods

4.1. Study Context

The study was conducted in Pakistani organizations where interpersonal conflict is one of the critical challenges threatening organizational performance (Shaukat et al., 2017). We selected four industries for the data collection: automobile, banking, telecom, and information technology because they are Pakistan's most common and rapidly growing sectors. The high demand for the services of these sectors has intensified competition, putting pressure for high performance on the employees working in these sectors. This has led researchers (e.g., Kundi & Badar, 2021;

Shaukat et al., 2017; Yousaf et al., 2020) to carefully consider and investigate the intra-organizational issues, such as interpersonal conflict and work behavior of employees working in these sectors. In addition, employees working in these sectors generally face a heavy workload, which enhances different types of interpersonal conflicts (e.g., task, process, and relationship conflicts). Taken together, we think that the unit of analysis (employees working in these sectors) is ideal.

4.2. Sample and Procedure

We collected data from 462 white-collar employees working in the chosen sectors using a cross-sectional design and convenience sampling. We adopted a cross-sectional and convenience sampling method for the following reasons: (i) due to the COVID-19 pandemic, the participating organizations only allowed one-time communication with the respondents, (ii) it is cheaper and highly efficient, (iii) it can adequately address many questions, (iv) it is appropriate to use when starting new areas of inquiry or/and studying more mature areas of inquiry to rule out alternative explanations (Spector, 2019).

We approached the organizations using our professional contacts and gained access to the participants through the managers of each organization. After gaining participants' consent, we distributed paper-and-pencil surveys. In some cases, we shared the online survey link with those employees who wanted to complete the survey online. Before administrating the surveys, we assured the confidentiality of the potential participants. Moreover, each survey included a short introduction and guidelines for completing the questionnaire. Finally, to ensure that the participants completed the surveys as honestly as possible, they were informed that there were no right or wrong answers to the questions (De Clercq et al., 2021).

The questionnaire was disseminated to 820 respondents (265 online and 555 hard copies); 518 employees completed the survey (159 online and 359 hard copies), representing a response rate of 63%. We conducted Little's (1988) missing completely at random (MCAR) test for each construct to determine whether the missing data were MCAR. The result revealed that the missing data were MCAR. We thus excluded questionnaires with more than 10% missing values (N = 32) and imputed the remaining missing values (N = 08). In addition, 24 questionnaires with pattern responses (the same rating for all responses) were also excluded, which resulted in 462 valid responses.

Of the 462 respondents, 86% were male; 60% were married; 60% were between 25–35 years of age; 36% had a bachelor's degree, whereas 60% had a master's qualification; 72% of the participants had less than ten years of professional experience, and 36% worked in managerial positions. The organizations were large-sized, with a workforce ranging from 500 to above 1000.

4.3. Measures

All the surveys were administered in English because it is the official language of business organizations in Pakistan (Kundi et al., 2020). The items were randomly ordered rather than grouped within the construct with which they were associated. All the items were anchored on a 7-point Likert-type scale.

Types of Conflict: We used three items to measure task conflict (e.g., "I often have disagreements with my group members about the tasks we are working on"; Cronbach's Alpha = 0.86) and three items to measure relationship conflict (e.g., "I often have relationship tension with my group members"; Cronbach's Alpha = 0.82) (adopted from Jehn, 1994, 1995). To measure process conflict, we used three items (e.g., "I often have disagreements with my group

members about 'who should do what' in our workgroup"; Cronbach's Alpha = 0.89) (adopted from Jehn & Mannix, 2001).

***Negative Emotions*:** We adopted eight items from the 16 items scale developed by Diener et al. (1995) and validated by Smits et al. (2002), measuring five dimensions of negative emotions (fear, anger, shame/embarrassment, guilt/regret, and sadness). To measure the intensity of emotions, we asked respondents to rate the extent to which they experience the following emotions during discussions with group members (fear, nervousness, anger, irritation, embarrassment, guilt, sadness, loneliness) on a 7-point scale (1=very high and 7=very low). Cronbach's Alpha of the overall scale was 0.91.

Emotional Intelligence (EI): To measure EI, we adopted a short version of the Workgroup Emotional Intelligence Profile (WEIP-S) consisting of 16 items, developed by Jordan and Lawrence (2009). According to Mayer et al. (1999), the self-reported measure is suitable for assessing EI. WEIP-S is a self-reported measure of EI in the workplace, which is valid, reliable, and increases the response rate due to its short form (Jordan & Lawrence, 2009). According to Jordan and Lawrence (2009), other measures of EI, for instance, the Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS; Law *et al.*, 2004), assess general ability and are used in a general context. However, WEIP-S measures emotional ability in the actual organizational context; therefore, it is more appropriate to use in the work context. Moreover, WEIP-S is based on the four main dimensions: awareness of one's own emotions, management of one's own emotions (ability to deal with one's own emotions), awareness of other's emotions, and management of others' emotions (ability to deal with others' emotions), where the ability to deal with one's own emotions is an intra-personal ability, while the ability to deal with others' emotions is the interpersonal ability, which is more related to conflict management (Jordan &

Lawrence, 2009). Therefore, WEIP-S is more suitable for measuring EI in conflict management studies. Cronbach's alpha of each dimension of EI included awareness of one's own emotions (0.90), management of one's own emotions (0.86), awareness of others' emotions (0.89), and management of others' emotions (0.89), while the overall Cronbach's alpha of the EI scale was 0.95.

Control Variables: We controlled for employees' gender, age, experience, and managerial position in our analyses because prior research (e.g., Kundi & Badar, 2021; Shih & Susanto, 2010) has demonstrated that emotional intelligence develops with a person's age and experience, and males and females react differently during interpersonal conflict due to their varying levels of emotional intelligence. Moreover, employees with more experience working in managerial positions may respond to the conflict situation differently.

5. Data Analyses

Following Anderson and Gerbing (1988), we first conducted confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) in AMOS-24 to examine our measurement model and discriminant validity of our study constructs. Next, we ran the structural equation modeling technique in AMOS-24 to test the direct and mediation hypotheses. Finally, we tested the moderation and moderated mediation hypotheses using Hayes's (2012) PROCESS Macro-Model 7, a widely used approach by the researchers testing moderation and moderated mediation hypotheses (e.g., Kundi & Badar, 2021; Zhang et al., 2015).

5.1. Preliminary Analysis

After examining missing values and potential outliers, we examined our study variables' skewness and kurtosis scores. We found that the skewness and kurtosis values fell within the acceptable range of -2 and +2 set by George and Mallery (2010), which indicates that our data represented no significant violation of the normality assumption. Table 3.1 shows the results of descriptive analysis, including means, standard deviations, average variance extracted scores (AVE), average shared variance (ASV), composite reliability (CR), and correlation among study variables. The correlation coefficients did not exceed 0.70, indicating the absence of multicollinearity among the study variables (Kundi & Badar, 2021).

As can be seen in Table 3.1, task conflict was positively correlated with process conflict ($r = .55$, $p < .001$), relationship conflict ($r = .53$, $p < .001$), and negative emotions ($r = .34$, $p < .001$). Process conflict was positively associated with relationship conflict ($r = .52$, $p < .001$) and negative emotions ($r = .36$, $p < .001$). Relationship conflict was positively associated with negative emotions ($r = .41$, $p<.001$) and negative emotions were negatively related to emotional intelligence ($r = -.21$, $p<.001$). Among the demographic variables, age was negatively correlated with process conflict ($r = -.11$, $p < .05$) and negative emotions ($r = -.01$, $p < .05$), which means that individuals become emotionally stable with age; therefore, they do not engage in the process conflict. Similarly, experience was negatively correlated with task conflict ($r = -.10$, $p < .05$) and process conflict ($r = -.10$, $p < .05$), whereas it was positively correlated with emotional intelligence ($r = .10$, $p < .05$). These results suggest that employees with more professional experience are more emotionally intelligent and face low levels of task and process conflict because they know more about their jobs and the people working there.

Table 3.1

Means, Standard Deviations, and Inter-correlations among variables

Variables	Mean	SD	AVE	ASV	CR	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Gender	1.14	.35	--	--	--	--								
2. Age	2.24	.70	--	--	--	-.23**	--							
3. Experience	2.03	.99	--	--	--	-.25**	.75**	--						
4. Managerial Position	.36	.48	--	--	--	-.13**	.30**	.37**	--					
5. Task Conflict	3.27	1.37	.69	.14	..87	.022	-.07	-.10*	.001	**(.86)**				
6. Process Conflict	2.86	1.39	.74	.14	.89	-.022	-.11*	-.10*	-.029	.55**	**(.89)**			
7. Relationship Conflict	2.44	1.17	.61	.15	.83	-.029	-.06	-.03	.060	.53**	.52**	**(.82)**		
8. Negative Emotions	3.08	1.08	.61	.09	.90	.021	-.10*	-.06	-.029	.34**	.36**	.41**	**(.91)**	
9. Emotional Intelligence	4.7	1.07	.56	.01	.95	-.022	.06	.10*	.058	-.009	-.076	-.083	-.21**	**(.95)**

Notes: N = 462; *p < .05, **p< .01; SD = standard deviation, AVE = average variance extracted, CR = construct reliability, ASV = average shared variance; numbers in brackets are Cronbach Alphas.

Gender: 1=Male, 2=Female; **Age:** 1=below 25, 2= 26-35, 3= 36-45, 4= 46-55, 5= 56-65, 6=above 65; **Experience:** 1=below 5 years, 2= 5-10, 3= 11-15, 4=above 15; **Managerial Position:** 0=Non Manager, 1= Manager

5.2. Measurement Assessment

Following prior research (e.g., Kundi et al., 2020; De Clercq et al., 2021), before testing the main hypotheses, we conducted a series of confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) using AMOS-24. We compared our hypothesized five-factor model with all other alternative models to check the distinctiveness of the constructs and model fitness. To assess the fitness of our proposed model, we used three different fit indices, namely the comparative fit index (CFI), the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) (Hu & Bentler, 1998).

Table 3.2

Fit statistics of measurement models

Model	$\chi 2$	df	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
Five-factor model: include TC, PC, RC, NE, EI	834.04	464	0.96	0.042	0.036
Four-factor model: combines TC and PC	1246.10	468	0.92	0.06	0.044
Three-factor model: combines PC and RC with TC	1489.63	471	0.90	0.07	0.049
Two-factor model: combines PC & RC with TC, and NE with EI	2073.67	473	0.84	0.09	0.187
One-factor model:	2942.01	474	0.76	0.106	0.289
Method$_U$	689.92	431	.97	.036	.031
Method$_I$	855.54	476	.96	.042	.037
Method$_R$	862.79	477	.96	.042	.037

Notes: $\chi 2$ = Chi-square, df = Degree of Freedom, CFI = Comparative Fit Index, RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation, SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual.
TC=Task Conflict, PC=Process Conflict, RC=Relationship Conflict, NE=Negative Emotions, EI=Emotional Intelligence

The results (see Table 3.2) indicated that our proposed five-factor model (task conflict, process conflict, relationship conflict, negative emotions, and emotional intelligence) has an acceptable fit to data ($\chi 2$ [464] = 834.38, CFI = 0.96, RMSEA = 0.042, SRMR = .036). We

compared our proposed five-factor model to several alternative models, including a four-factor model in which we combined task and process conflict, a three-factor model (task, process, and relationship conflict combined), a two-factor model (task, process, and relationship conflict combined, and emotional intelligence combined with negative emotions), and a one-factor model. The CFA results (see Table 3.2) indicated that the intended five-factor model has a better fit than the alternative models.

To assess the adequacy of our measures, we checked the convergent validity through (i) factor loadings, (ii) CR values, and (iii) AVE scores. Factor loadings of all variables were higher than the threshold value of 0.6 (Chin, 2010) (see Appendix B1), the CR values were higher than the cutoff value of 0.7, and all the AVE scores were higher than the threshold value of 0.5 (see Table 3.1), supporting the convergent validity of the constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). To assess discriminant validity, we compared the AVE value of each construct with its ASV score (mean of the squared correlations among constructs). We found that the AVE value of each construct was higher than its ASV score (see Table 3.1), thereby supporting the discriminant validity of the study constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Moreover, Cronbach's alpha and the CR values of each dimension of EI were higher than 0.8, confirming the convergent validity of EI dimensions. The AVE values of EI dimensions, namely awareness of one's own emotions, management of one's own emotions, awareness of others' emotions, and management of others' emotions, were .52, .50, .56, and .63, respectively. Their AVE values were higher than their ASV scores; thus, the convergent and discriminant validities of sub-dimensions of EI were also established.

5.3. Dealing with Common-Method Biasness (CMB)

We applied both procedural and statistical remedies to minimize the problem of common method variance. Procedurally, following the guideline of López Bohle et al. (2018), we ensured the confidentiality of the respondents, informed them about the study's objectives, and clarified that there were no right or wrong answers. Following Shih and Susanto (2010), we placed the dependent and independent variables separately in different sections with different instructions to psychologically separate the dependent variable from the independent variables and randomly ordered items of the constructs.

Statistically, following the recommendations of Williams and McGonagle (2016), we conducted the unmeasured latent method construct (ULMC) method to reduce the likelihood of common method variance (CMV). In this regard, we ran three CFA models: (i) the method factor model ($Method_U$) to examine whether CMV exists; (ii) the method factor with equal method factor loadings within and freely estimated loadings between substantive latent constructs ($Method_I$) to check whether the extent of CMV varied between substantive constructs; and (iii) the reference model with restricted correlations of substantive latent constructs ($Method_R$) without the inclusion of a method factor. Our results (see Table 3.2) showed that CMV was not a threat since there was no substantial deterioration in model fit.

6. Hypotheses Testing

H1a and H1b questioned whether task conflict and process conflict positively relate to relationship conflict. As can be seen in Table 3.3, task conflict positively predicted relationship conflict ($\beta = 0.34$, $p < 0.01$), the same way process conflict positively predicted relationship conflict ($\beta = 0.30$, $p < 0.01$), supporting H1a and H1b respectively. Moreover, task conflict positively related to negative emotions ($\beta = 0.21$, $p < 0.01$), in the same way as process conflict

positively related to negative emotions (β = 0.26, p < 0.01), and the effect of negative emotions (mediator) on the relationship conflict was also positive and significant (β = 0.22, p < 0.01).

Table 3.3

Results of Path Analysis

Direct Paths					
Hypothesis	**Paths**	**B**		**SE**	
H1a	Task Conflict → Relationship Conflict	0.34**		0.065	
H1b	Process Conflict → Relationship Conflict	0.30**		0.066	
	Task Conflict → Negative Emotion	0.21**		0.062	
	Process Conflict → Negative Emotion	0.26**		0.067	
	Negative Emotion → Relationship Conflict	0.22**		0.048	
	Indirect Paths	**Bootstrapping**		**95% CI**	
		B	**SE**	**LLCI**	**ULCI**
H2a	TC → NE → RC	0.046	0.017	0.017	0.087
H2b	PC → NE → RC	0.056	0.019	0.025	0.10

Notes: N = 462; *p < .05, **p < .01. TC=Task Conflict, **PC**=Process Conflict, **RC**=Relationship Conflict, **NE**=Negative Emotions.
Gender, Age, Experience, and Managerial Position were controlled and were found to be insignificant

Hypothesis 2a questioned whether task conflict would indirectly relate to the relationship conflict via negative emotions. Our bootstrapping results (see Table 3.3) showed that the indirect relationship between task conflict and relationship conflict via negative emotions was positive and statistically significant (β = .046; 95% CI [.017; .087]) because the confidence interval (CI) for the indirect effect does not include zero (Zhao et al., 2010), supporting H2a. Moreover, our results also found an indirect relationship between process conflict and relationship conflict via negative emotions (β = .056; 95% CI [.025; .10]), supporting H2b. Negative emotions partially mediated the relationship of both task and process conflicts with the relationship conflict because the relationship between predictors (task and process conflicts) and the outcome variable (relationship conflict) remained significant after including the mediator (negative emotions).

Table 3.4

Moderated Mediation Results (Process macro-Model 7)

	Predictors	Negative Emotions	Relationship Conflict
	Gender	.003	.08
	Age	-.24**	-.04
	Experience	.10	-.04
	Managerial Position	-.07	.17*
	Task Conflict	.27***	.38***
	Process Conflict	.27***	.36***
	Emotional intelligence	-.22***	
H3a	Task Conflict × Emotional Intelligence	-.14***	
H3b	Process Conflict × Emotional Intelligence	-.13***	
	Negative Emotions		.28***
	R^2	.20***	.34***

		Effect Size	Bootstrap SE	*LLCI*	*ULCI*
	Conditional direct effect of task conflict on negative emotions				
	-1 SD	.427	.049	.3301	.5243
	Mean	.274	.033	.2088	.3402
	+1 SD	.122	.045	.0326	.2109
	Conditional indirect effect of task conflict on relationship conflict				
	-1 SD	.1196	.024	.0756	.1674
	Mean	.0768	.015	.0488	.1092
	+1 SD	.0341	.013	.0114	.0620
H4a	*Index of moderated mediation*	-.040	.011	-.0612	-.0199
	Conditional direct effect of process conflict on negative emotions				
	-1 SD	.407	.047	.3149	.4994
	Mean	.271	.033	.2062	.3364
	+1 SD	.135	.044	.0490	.2218
	Conditional indirect effect of process conflict on relationship conflict				
	-1 SD	.112	.023	.0695	.1605
	Mean	.075	.015	.0475	.1072
	+1 SD	.037	.014	.0141	.0686
H4b	*Index of moderated mediation*	-.035	.010	-.0556	-.0161

Note (s): n= 462; SD = standard deviation; SE = standard error; LLCI = lower limit confidence interval; UCLI = upper limit confidence interval
*p < 0.05; **p < 0.01; ***p < 0.001

H3a and H3b questioned the moderating effect of emotional intelligence on the relationship between task and process conflicts and negative emotions, respectively, in such a way that task conflict and process conflict would be strongly related to negative emotions in the

absence of emotional intelligence, and vice versa. Our results (see Table 3.4) revealed a negative, significant effect of the task conflict x emotional intelligence interaction term (β = -.14, $p < 0.001$) in predicting negative emotions, providing support to H3a. Similarly, the results revealed a significant negative effect of process conflict x emotional intelligence interaction term (β = -.13, $p < 0.001$) in predicting negative emotions, supporting H3b. The findings of process macro similarly revealed that the relationship between task conflict and negative emotions was weaker at a higher level of emotional intelligence (0.427 at one SD below the mean, 0.274 at the mean, and 0.122 at one SD above the mean). Similarly, the relationship between process conflict and negative emotions was weaker at a higher level of emotional intelligence (0.407 at one SD below the mean, 0.271 at the mean, and 0.135 at one SD above the mean). These findings confirmed the buffering effect of emotional intelligence on the positive relationship of task and process conflicts with the negative emotions.

We further plotted the interactions (i.e., TC x EI and PC x EI) on negative emotions by conducting a simple slope test. The figures (illustrated in Figures 3.2 and 3.3) revealed that emotional intelligence negatively moderates the relationship between task and process conflicts and negative emotions. We controlled for gender, age, experience, and managerial position. Results revealed that only age was negatively related to negative emotions (β = -.24, $p < 0.01$). In contrast, all other control variables had no significant relationship with negative emotions and relationship conflict variables (see Table 3.4).

Figure 3.2: Interactive effects of Emotional Intelligence (EI) and Task Conflict on Negative Emotions

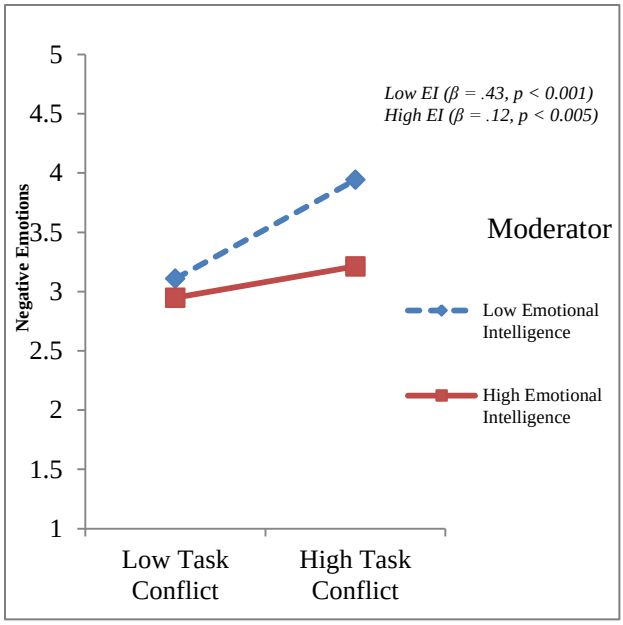
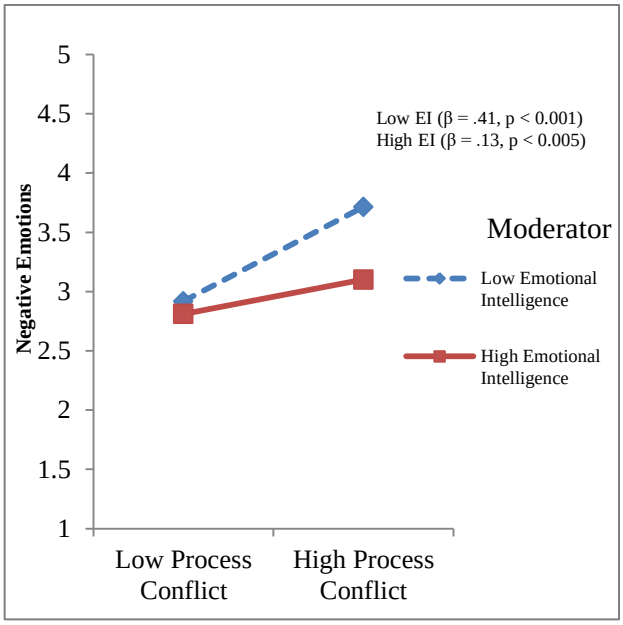


Figure 3.3: Interactive effects of Emotional Intelligence (EI) and Process Conflict on Negative Emotions



Note: *We adopted the method of mean ± 1 standard deviation in order to identify low and high task conflict and process conflict*

H4 questioned the moderating effect of emotional intelligence on the indirect relationship of (a) task conflict and (b) process conflict with the relationship conflict via negative emotions. Results (see Table 3.4) revealed that the indirect relationship between task and relationship conflicts via negative emotions is moderated by emotional intelligence (β = -.040; 95% CI [-.0612; -.0199]), supporting H4a. Table 3.4 shows the diminishing effect sizes at higher levels of emotional intelligence (0.120 at one SD below the mean, to 0.077 at the mean, to 0.034 at one SD above the mean). Similarly, the mediated relationship between process and relationship conflicts via negative emotions was also moderated by emotional intelligence (β = -.035; 95% CI [-.0556; -.0161]). The effect sizes were found to diminish at higher levels of the moderator (0.112 at one SD below the mean, to 0.075 at the mean, to 0.037 at one SD above the mean), supporting H4b. These findings confirmed that emotional intelligence buffers the positive

indirect relationship between task and process conflicts and relationship conflict through negative emotions.

6.1. Test of Robustness

Following Aboramadan et al. (2021), we compared our hypothesized model with two plausible alternative models to ensure that the hypothesized model did not suffer from endogeneity problems. In the first alternative model (see Appendix B2), we assumed that relationship conflict influences negative emotions, which in turn influences task and process conflicts. In the second alternative model (see Appendix B3), we assumed that relationship conflict influences task and process conflicts, which in turn influences negative emotions. The results of both alternative models were consistent with the results of our hypothesized model, which suggests that our hypothesized model provides a sufficient explanation of the data.

7. Discussion

This study aimed to examine how task and process conflicts relate to relationship conflict and when this influence was most likely to diminish. The results highlighted that individuals engaged in task and process conflicts are more likely to feel negative emotions toward others and consequently are more likely to engage in relationship conflict at the workplace. The mediated relationship of task and process conflicts with the relationship conflict is weaker when employees are more emotionally intelligent because emotional intelligence minimizes negative emotions, subsequently reducing relationship conflict among employees. These findings carry important theoretical implications for the literature regarding workplace conflict and emotional intelligence.

8. Theoretical Contributions

This research makes several theoretical contributions to the literature on interpersonal conflict. First, our study found a direct relationship between task and process conflicts and the relationship conflict, lending further support to the conflict escalation model (Glasl, 1982), arguing that conflict among individuals can transform into more severe forms because of the contentious reaction and behavior of one party that foster a negative reaction in the other party. Moreover, our study answered Rispens's (2012) call to investigate the interplay among different types of conflicts. In line with prior studies (e.g., de Wit et al., 2013; van den Berg et al., 2014; Jimmieson et al., 2017), this research supported the positive relationship between task and relationship conflicts, as well as the positive relationship between process and relationship conflicts, which has been the least explored by the other researchers.

Second, this research answered the calls by Curşeu et al. (2012) and van den Berg et al. (2014) to investigate the mechanism through which conflict transforms from one form into another. Our results illustrated the mediating role of negative emotions in transforming task and process conflicts into relationship conflict. These results provide further support to the affective event theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), which suggests that work events (task and process conflicts) give rise to emotional experiences (negative emotions), which in turn, leads to employees' negative attitudes and behaviors (relationship conflict). Moreover, the results also demonstrated the positive relationship between task and process conflicts and negative emotions, providing empirical support to previous studies that claimed this relationship (Yang & Mossholder, 2004; de Wit et al., 2013). We also found a positive link between negative emotions and relationship conflict, empirically supporting the previous studies arguing for this relationship (e.g., Desivilya & Yagil, 2005; van den Berg et al., 2014).

Finally, following up on calls for exploring the different contingency factors that could decouple task and process conflicts from relationship conflict (e.g., Choi & Cho, 2011; Flores et al., 2018) and the calls for further exploring the emotion regulation role in the association between task and process conflicts and negative emotions (Curşeu et al., 2012; van den Berg et al., 2014), we examined the moderating effect of emotional intelligence in the transformation of task and process conflicts into relationship conflict via negative emotions. As expected, our results identified emotional intelligence as a contingency factor for the interplay among different types of interpersonal conflicts, which helps to dissociate task and process conflicts from the relationship conflict and contributes to the understanding of conflict as a multidimensional construct. Furthermore, in light of the contingency model, this study further adds to affective event theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) by arguing that work events give rise to employees' negative emotions, but these negative emotions would be lower when employees are emotionally intelligent.

9. Practical Implications

Along with theoretical contributions, this study has some practical implications for both managers and individual employees. According to the literature (e.g., De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; Greer et al., 2008; Khosravi et al., 2020), task conflict may be functional only if it is not highly correlated with the relationship conflict. Our study results revealed that task and process conflicts are associated with relationship conflicts. Therefore, this study suggests that organizations should engage their employees in constructive debates that could promote the exchange of divergent thoughts and viewpoints, improving the quality of decisions (Shaukat et al., 2017; Rezvani et al., 2019). However, they should discourage the escalation of task and process conflicts into relationship conflict (Greer et al., 2008; Jimmieson et al., 2017).

Our study revealed that negative emotions are the mechanism through which task and process conflicts transform into relationship conflict. Since emotional intelligence minimizes negative emotions; therefore, organizations should increase their employees' emotional intelligence by providing them with emotional intelligence training (Kundi & Badar, 2021; Rezvani et al., 2019), which would help them manage interpersonal conflict effectively. Organizations should consider emotional intelligence as a prerequisite selection criteria for employees' hiring, promotion, and training (Rezvani et al., 2019) because EI enables employees to understand and manage their own emotions and the emotions of other employees (Jordan & Lawrence, 2009). Emotional intelligence helps employees minimize negative emotions and dysfunctional conflict and help them maintain a good interpersonal relationship, which improves organizational performance. Emotional socialization should be provided to the new employees to help them understand the organization's emotional landscape and minimize their inappropriate reactions to other employees.

Organizations should provide effective communication training to their employees, which would help them choose the right words and tone during a discussion so that employees may not take the task and process-related disagreements as a personal attack. Moreover, the disputing parties are mostly unaware of their behavior patterns during the conflict. They cannot identify the available options for resolving the conflict, which could escalate conflict (Caputo et al., 2019). Therefore, during discussions and brainstorming sessions, organizations should have a moderator who should intervene during unpleasant exchanges to minimize negative emotions and provide a favorable environment for productive discussion.

10. Limitations and Future Research

This study has some limitations that can influence the interpretation of the results. First, we have used a convenience sampling technique, which is easy to carry out and cost-effective (Etikan, 2016) but restricts the ability to generalize the results to the broader population (Aboramadan et al., 2021). Thus, future researchers should utilize a variety of sampling techniques and data collection methods to extend the present study results.

Second, we have employed a cross-sectional design to test our model, which limits the ability to make causal assertions about the relationship between independent and dependent variables (Giebels et al., 2016; Huang, 2012) and creates concerns for potential reverse causality (De Clercq & Belausteguigoitia, 2020). Future studies should use longitudinal or experimental designs for investigating the interplay among different types of conflicts, which could better explain the causal relationship among conflicts. Moreover, based on the stress model of Lazarus and Folkman (1984), we argue that individuals face task- and process-related conflicts first, which is a cognitive response. Then they experience a negative emotional response (secondary appraisal), which further leads to relationship conflict. Therefore, a longitudinal study could enable future researchers to draw conclusions regarding causality by examining the impact of task and process conflicts on negative emotions and subsequently on relationship conflict. Moreover, according to Choi and Cho (2011), relationship conflict can enhance task and process conflicts and raise the possibility of reverse causality, but our study did not investigate the reciprocal nature of the these processes. Therefore, future researchers should examine the reverse causality by investigating the effect of relationship conflict on task and process conflicts.

Third, we collected data through self-reporting, which has been noted to result in common method bias (CMB) and may have contaminated our findings. We followed all the

necessary guidelines and performed the necessary tests, which showed that common method bias is not a problem in this study. Moreover, we have tested interaction (moderating effect) in the current study, and according to Evans (1985), CMB is not a significant problem when testing the interaction effects. Still, future studies should not rely on data from a single source. They should collect data regarding conflicts, emotions, and emotional intelligence from multiple sources (from managers, different group members, etc.).

Fourth, the current study focused only on horizontal conflict (conflict among employees of the same level). Future studies should focus on the interplay among different types of vertical conflict (e.g., the conflict between managers and subordinates).

11. Conclusion

Research on emotions, emotional intelligence, and conflict is fundamental to understanding employee behavior in the workplace; therefore, it has attracted researchers' attention (Caputo et al., 2019). In line with this theme, we have incorporated emotions and emotional intelligence into conflict management research. Our study demonstrates that negative emotions are the underlying mechanism through which task and process conflicts transform into relationship conflict. Emotional intelligence is the contingency factor that minimizes negative emotions during task and process conflicts, preventing the transformation of task and process conflicts into relationship conflict. This study makes several theoretical contributions, has practical implications for both managers and employees working in different organizations, and highlights some crucial gaps in the literature that future researchers should address.

CHAPTER 4:

THE MODERATING EFFECT OF EMPLOYEES' GOAL ORIENTATIONS ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN INTERPERSONAL CONFLICT AND INNOVATIVE JOB PERFORMANCE

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Chapter 4

1. Introduction
2. Theory and Hypotheses Development
3. Study 3 Framework
4. Methods
5. Data Analyses
6. Hypotheses Testing
7. Discussion
8. Theoretical Contributions
9. Practical Implications
10. Limitations and Future Research
11. Conclusion

The moderating effect of employees' goal orientations on the relationship between interpersonal conflict and innovative job performance

Abstract

Research has found both positive and negative effects of interpersonal conflict on performance outcomes. However, little is known about the relationship between interpersonal conflict and employees' innovative job performance. Accordingly, this study examined when task, process, and relationship conflicts relate to employees' innovative job performance by detailing the moderating effect of employees' goal orientations (i.e., mastery and performance goal orientations). Hypotheses were tested with survey data collected from 448 employees working in different organizations in Pakistan. The results revealed that task, process, and relationship conflicts negatively relate to employees' innovative job performance. However, employees' mastery goal orientation weakens while performance goal orientation strengthens this negative relationship. Since mastery goal orientation minimizes and performance goal orientation increases the adverse effects of interpersonal conflict on employees' innovative job performance; therefore, our study suggests that organizations should use employees' goal orientation as a selection and training criterion. Managers should promote a learning-oriented and innovation-supportive culture by developing an appraisal system that appreciates and rewards employees for new learning and innovative job performance, rather than in-role job performance. This study contributes to the debates on outcomes of interpersonal conflict by highlighting the importance of employees' goal orientation for understanding the impact of interpersonal conflict on performance outcomes (i.e., innovative job performance).

Keywords: *Task Conflict, Process Conflict, Relationship Conflict, Mastery Goal Orientation, Performance Goal Orientation, Innovative Job Performance*

1. Introduction

Employees' innovative performance helps organizations survive and compete in today's rapidly changing markets worldwide (Pitafi et al., 2020). Organizations continuously try to enhance employees' creativity and innovative performance (Zhang et al., 2015), which could benefit both employees and the organizations (De Clercq & Belausteguigoitia, 2020). Innovative job performance is the intentional generation, promotion, and realization of new ideas within work roles, groups, or organizations (Kanter, 1988; Scott & Bruce, 1994) that require good interpersonal relationships among coworkers (Janssen, 2000; Pitafi et al., 2020). Since interpersonal conflict damages employees' relationships (Khosravi et al., 2020); therefore, it could be one of the potentially influential factors affecting employees' innovative job performance. Accordingly, researchers (De Clercq & Belausteguigoitia, 2020; Giebels et al., 2016) called for investigating the interpersonal conflict - innovative performance relationship.

Interpersonal conflict is classified into three types: task, process, and relationship conflicts, which are distinct both in their nature and their varying effects on organizational outcomes (Greer et al., 2008; Jehn, 1994, 1995; Jehn & Mannix, 2001). Task conflict has been associated with positive, while process and relationship conflicts with adverse effects (Shaukat et al., 2017; Rezvani et al., 2019; Pitafi et al., 2020). However, De Dreu and Weingart's (2003) meta-analysis and the empirical study by Khosravi et al. (2020) found that task conflict is also detrimental, negatively affecting employees' satisfaction and performance. Since there are conflicting findings of the facets of interpersonal conflict on individual job outcomes; therefore, it is essential to examine the impact of interpersonal conflict types on employees' outcomes (specifically innovative performance).

Furthermore, according to the contingency model of conflict (Jehn & Bendersky, 2003), conflict outcomes are not determined only by the conflict types, but different contingency factors play an essential role in the conflict - outcomes relationship. Accordingly, numerous researchers (De Clercq & Belausteguigoitia, 2020; Giebels et al., 2016) called for examining the moderating effect of various contingency factors. De Clercq et al. (2017) specifically called for investigating the moderating effect of employees' goal orientation on the interpersonal conflict and employees' performance outcomes relationship. Employees' goal orientation (mastery and performance goal orientations) predict their behavior and attitude in the achievement context (Ames, 1992; Janssen, 2000, 2004; Nicholls, 1984), affecting their innovative performance (Janssen, 2000, 2004). Therefore, goal orientation could affect the interpersonal conflict - innovative job performance relationships. Only a few studies (De Clercq et al., 2017; Huang, 2012) have investigated the moderating role of team goal orientation on the interpersonal conflict and performance outcomes (e.g., employees' creativity and team performance) relationship. However, we could not find empirical studies investigating the moderating effect of employees' goal orientation on interpersonal conflict and employees' innovative performance relationships. Therefore, based on the contingency model of conflict (Jehn & Bendersky, 2003), we propose the moderating role of employees' mastery and performance goal orientations on the relationship between task, process, and relationship conflicts and employees' innovative job performance.

This study contributes to the literature on interpersonal conflict, innovative performance, and goal orientation in the following ways. First, we extend current interpersonal conflict literature by examining the effects of interpersonal conflict types, namely task, process, and relationship conflict, on individual innovative performance. Studies examining the impact of interpersonal conflict on creativity and innovative behavior (De Clercq & Belausteguigoitia,

2020; Giebels et al., 2016) have not thoroughly examined the effects of each type of interpersonal conflict on the innovative job performance. Based on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), this study emphasizes how each interpersonal conflict type diminishes employees' innovative job performance. By doing so, the current study answers the calls by various researchers (De Clercq & Belausteguigoitia, 2020; O'Neill et al., 2013; Pitafi et al., 2020) to investigate the relationship between conflict types and performance outcomes (innovative performance in our case).

Second, personality dimensions have been considered the most important factors when dealing with conflict (Kundi & Badar, 2021). In this research, we examined individual personality as a critical contingency factor. Specifically, we examined the dual nature of individuals' goal orientations, namely mastery, and performance goal orientations, on individuals' innovative job performance to determine which goal orientation strengthens/diminishes the relationship between conflict types and innovative performance. Accordingly, the current study answers the call by various researchers (De Clercq et al., 2017; De Clercq & Belausteguigoitia, 2020; Giebels et al., 2016) to investigate the different contingency factors affecting the interpersonal conflict - performance outcomes relationship. Thus, the present study provides an opportunity to investigate whether interpersonal conflict affects employees' innovative performance at work and how this could be mitigated. Our findings are expected to provide insights into which one goal orientation type is essential when managing employees who deal with interpersonal conflict.

Finally, the unique feature of this study is the context and geographic location in which it is based. This study is conducted in a developing Asian country (i.e., Pakistan). The country's cultural features make the study's theoretical scope particularly notable. This study addresses the

call for more investigations of work-related behaviors in international settings (Wall & Callister, 1995; De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; Khosravi et al., 2020).

2. Theory and Hypotheses Development

Conflict is a natural outcome of human interactions (Pitafi et al., 2020) that arises within or between social entities (Ohuruogu, 2020; Rahim, 2011) "when one party perceives that its interest is opposed or negatively affected by the other party" (J. A. Wall & Callister, 1995, p. 517). There has been a considerable debate on whether the conflict is beneficial or detrimental to work-related outcomes (De Clercq & Belausteguigoitia, 2020; De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; Jehn, 1997; Rahim, 2011). Some researchers (e.g., Giebels et al., 2016; Jehn, 1997; Rahim, 2002, 2011) support a moderate level of task conflict in the workplace, arguing that a minimal level of conflict stimulates discussions, which helps in new ideas generation that improve the quality of decisions. In contrast, other researchers (e.g., Wall & Callister, 1995; De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; Khosravi et al., 2020) discourage conflict in the workplace. They argue that conflict increases employees' cognitive load, enhances their negative emotions, damages interpersonal relations, and prohibits information exchanges, thereby hindering employees' creativity and innovative performance (De Clercq & Belausteguigoitia, 2020; Suliman & Al-Shaikh, 2007).

We propose the negative relationship between interpersonal conflict and employees' innovative job performance based on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964). The social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) suggests that the exchanges among individuals in the social relations are interdependent and contingent on reactions from others, thus generating obligations (i.e., reciprocity). Social exchange is the interpersonal interactions of two or more parties (Wu et al., 2018); therefore, social exchange theory is an important theoretical perspective for understanding individuals' relationships in the workplace (Kundi & Badar, 2021; Wu et al., 2018). Due to its

focus on the reciprocity relationship, the social exchange has been used to analyze the conflict phenomenon and its impact on different performance outcomes, such as counterproductive work behavior and innovative work behavior (Kundi & Badar, 2021; Wu et al., 2018). Innovative job performance requires a variety of cognitive and social activities, such as generating, discussing, promoting, and implementing creative ideas (Kanter, 1988; Scott & Bruce, 1994), thus, needs good interpersonal relationships among coworkers (Janssen, 2000; Pitafi et al., 2020). However, interpersonal conflicts damage the social exchanges among individuals and create frictions in their relationships (Khosravi et al., 2020). Therefore, we propose that interpersonal conflict could negatively affect employees' innovative job performance based on the social exchange idea.

2.1. Task, Process and Relationship Conflicts and Innovative Job Performance

Interpersonal is classified into three types: task, process, and relationship conflicts (Jehn, 1995; Jehn & Mannix, 2001; Greer et al., 2008). Task conflict is the conflict of ideas or differences of viewpoints regarding the contents and outcomes of different tasks related to "what to do" (Greer et al., 2008; Jehn, 1994; Jehn et al., 1999). Process conflict is the disagreement regarding means of task accomplishment (resource allocation) or delegation of responsibilities (who is responsible for what) (Greer et al., 2008; Jehn, 1997). It is related to "how to do" and/or "who should do what" (Jehn et al., 1999; Jehn & Mannix, 2001). Finally, relationship conflict is the interpersonal incompatibilities among individuals due to personality clashes and personal likes and dislikes (Jehn, 1997; Jehn & Mannix, 2001), based on personal taste, values, interpersonal styles, political preferences, and social issues (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; Greer et al., 2008).

Prior research demonstrated that task conflict is beneficial; positively affects group performance and satisfaction (Huang, 2012; O'Neill et al., 2013), team decision quality (Flores et al., 2018), individual and team creativity (De Clercq et al., 2017; Hu et al., 2017; Pitafi et al.,

2020), and task and contextual performance (Yousaf et al., 2020). They argued that task conflict stimulates employee discussions that foster new ideas generation and improve decision-making (Flores et al., 2018; Jehn, 1997), promoting performance (Yousaf et al., 2020). However, other researchers (e.g., De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; Khosravi et al., 2020; Mannes, 2008; Yang & Mossholder, 2004) demonstrated that task conflict is also detrimental, negatively affecting employees satisfaction and performance. Accordingly, some researchers (e.g., Giebels et al., 2016; Hu et al., 2017; Pitafi et al., 2020) have found that task conflict positively affects individual and team creativity. However, some other researchers (e.g., De Clercq et al., 2017; De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; Wall & Callister, 1995) demonstrated that task conflict hinders creativity. They argued that task conflict increases interpersonal tension and negative stress, preventing employees from focusing on the problems and steering them away from generating novel ideas.

Moreover, prior research demonstrated that task conflict generates negative emotions (Hopkins & Yonker, 2015; Zhang et al., 2019), which damages interpersonal relationships among employees (Khosravi et al., 2020), and restricts information exchanges (Yang & Mossholder, 2004). Since innovative job performance requires good interpersonal relationships and information exchanges among coworkers (Janssen, 2000; Pitafi et al., 2020); therefore, task conflict could hinder innovative job performance. Moreover, task conflict delays the implementation of new ideas (Jehn, 1997) and discourages the support of others for the novel ideas (Kanter, 1988). Therefore, it could hinder the promotion and implementation of creative ideas, which are essential for innovative job performance (Kanter, 1988; Scott & Bruce, 1994). Therefore, task conflict could negatively affect innovative job performance. Thus, we hypothesized the following;

H1: Task conflict negatively relates to employees' innovative job performance

Process conflict has not been extensively researched as task and relationship conflict; however, it is consistently detrimental to individual and group level outcomes (de Wit et al., 2012; O'Neill et al., 2013; Khosravi et al., 2020). Process conflict increases employees' negative emotionality that hinders employees from focusing on the tasks at hand (Jehn & Mannix, 2001; Greer et al., 2008), thereby lowering employees' performance. Accordingly, previous research (e.g., Greer et al., 2008; Khosravi et al., 2020) and meta-analyses of de Wit et al. (2012) and O'Neill et al. (2013) confirmed that process conflict negatively affects performance.

Process conflict occurs due to assigning inappropriate tasks to employees or misallocation of resources (Greer et al., 2008; Jehn et al., 1999), which develops employees' perception of procedural injustice (Jehn, 1997), which according to O'Neill et al. (2013), could hinder employees' innovative performance. Process conflict also enhances competition among employees that restricts information exchange (Yang & Mossholder, 2004). Information exchange is vital for innovative performance because it helps to promote and implement creative ideas (Kanter, 1988; Scott & Bruce, 1994). Therefore, employees engaged in process conflict may not exchange their innovative ideas, negatively affecting their innovative job performance. Moreover, innovative performance requires good interpersonal relationships among employees and needs the support of coworkers, superiors, and subordinates to promote and implement creative ideas (Janssen, 2000; Suliman & Al-Shaikh, 2007). However, process conflict enhances employees' negative emotionality (Jehn & Mannix, 2001; Greer et al., 2008) and disturbs their interpersonal work relationships (Shaukat et al., 2017). Therefore, instead of searching for creative solutions to the problems at hand, employees engaged in process conflict devote their

energy to overcoming resistance from their coworkers, which hinders their innovative job performance. Hence, we formed the following hypothesis:

H2: Process conflict negatively relates to employees' innovative job performance

Relationship conflict has been widely accepted as harmful to the employees and organizations; negatively affecting employees' satisfaction and performance (DeChurch et al., 2013; O'Neill et al., 2013; Rezvani et al., 2019; Shaukat et al., 2017), and their creativity (De Clercq & Belausteguigoitia, 2020; Pitafi et al., 2020). Creativity is the first stage of innovative job performance related to generating new and creative ideas (Scott & Bruce, 1994); therefore, relationship conflict could negatively affect innovative job performance.

Innovative job performance requires cognitive activities for new ideas generation and social activities for promotion, discussion, and implementation of novel ideas (Kanter, 1988). However, relationship conflict, on the one hand, blocks employees' cognitive functioning to process complex information (Jehn, 1995; Rezvani et al., 2019), thereby hindering new ideas creation and blocking employees' creative mindset. On the other hand, relationship conflict cutoffs social ties among employees and negatively affects their interpersonal work relationships (Khosravi et al., 2020; Shaukat et al., 2017), thereby hindering the exchange, promotion, and implementation of novel ideas (Janssen, 2000; Suliman & Al-Shaikh, 2007), thus, negatively affect innovative job performance. Therefore, we formulated the following hypothesis:

H3: Relationship conflict negatively relates to employees' innovative job performance

2.2. Goal Orientations as Moderator

Conflict is the process in which each party strives to achieve its own goals (Rahim, 2011; Shih & Susanto, 2010). According to achievement goal theorists (e.g., Ames, 1992; Dweck & Leggett,

1988; Dweek, 1986; Nicholls, 1984), individuals' goal orientations reflect their achievement behavior and motivate them to meet their respective achievement goals (Janssen, 2004). Therefore, individuals with different goal orientations behave differently during interpersonal conflict, which affects the outcomes of interpersonal conflict (Huang, 2012), specifically innovative behavior (De Clercq et al., 2017). Accordingly, we propose that employees' goal orientation could moderate the relationship between task, process, and relationship conflicts and employees' innovative job performance.

According to achievement goal theory, there are two types of employees' goals orientations: mastery goal orientation and performance goal orientation (Ames, 1992; Ames & Archer, 1988; Van Preen & Janssen, 2002), which exist independently from each other (Nederveen Pieterse et al., 2013). Mastery orientation reflects one's goal of developing knowledge and competence, gaining and mastering new skills, and understanding work; however, performance orientation refers to one's goal of establishing superiority over others by outperforming them (Ames, 1992; Janssen, 2000, 2004; Nederveen Pieterse et al., 2013). Mastery orientation positively affects individuals' outcomes (Nederveen Pieterse et al., 2013); i.e., success (Ames & Archer, 1988), job satisfaction, in-role job performance, and innovative job performance (Janssen, 2004). Studies (e.g., Huang, 2012; Nederveen Pieterse et al., 2013; Van Preen & Janssen, 2002) investigating the moderating effect of goal orientations have found that mastery orientation increases the positive and decreases the adverse effects of different variables on performance outcomes.

Mastery-oriented individuals try to learn from others because their primary goal is learning, acquiring knowledge, and mastering new skills (Ames, 1992; Janssen, 2000). They are motivated to elaborate on the large pool of information (Nederveen Pieterse et al., 2013). They

consider social interaction a valuable source of learning; therefore, they try to improve exchange relationships with their colleagues despite interpersonal conflict (Huang, 2012), which helps them promote and implement their creative ideas that foster their innovative performance (Janssen, 2004). Mastery-oriented individuals prefer complex and challenging tasks (Ames & Archer, 1988); hence they view task conflict as an opportunity for learning and acquiring new knowledge. They engage in constructive debate and discussion during task conflict because they consider feedback as a means of improvement rather than a denial of their ability, which decreases the adverse effects of interpersonal conflict on individual and group outcomes (Huang, 2012), especially on innovative job performance. Moreover, mastery-oriented individuals take the new assignments as a challenge (Ames & Archer, 1988) rather than perceiving them as an ego cost (Huang, 2012). They search for creative ways to perform the newly assigned task during process conflict; hence, process conflict could not decrease their innovative job performance. Therefore, we propose that mastery goal orientation diminishes the adverse effects of task, process, and relationship conflicts on innovative job performance.

> *H4: Mastery goal orientation weakens the negative relationship of a) task conflict, b) process conflict, and c) relationship conflict with innovative job performance*

Research (e.g., Ames & Archer, 1988; Janssen, 2004) contended that performance orientation negatively relates to organizational outcomes, such as in-role job performance and innovative performance. However, according to Nederveen Pieterse et al. (2013), unlike mastery orientation, performance orientation is not consistently linked with performance. Huang (2012) demonstrated that performance orientation enhances the adverse effects of interpersonal conflict on team performance. The goal of performance-orientated individuals is to establish superiority over others by outperforming them (Ames, 1992; Van Preen & Janssen, 2002); therefore, they are uncooperative. They restrict information-sharing during task conflict (Huang, 2012) and do

not share their creative ideas with others. Such attitudes hinder new ideas' promotion and implementation, eventually minimizing the innovative performance of the performance-oriented individuals (Janssen, 2000, 2004; Scott & Bruce, 1994). Moreover, performance-oriented individuals consider any criticism/feedback during task conflict as a judgment about their fixed ability that hurts their ego (Huang, 2012). They feel criticism as a personal attack, which fosters their negative emotions and damages their interpersonal relationship, which could hinder the promotion and implementation of novel ideas, thus, negatively affecting innovative performance.

Performance-oriented individuals try to outperform others (Ames, 1992; Van Preen & Janssen, 2002); therefore, they use a competing approach to serve their personal interests during the interpersonal conflict. A competitive approach disturbs employees' interpersonal relationships (DeChurch et al., 2013) and negatively affects their performance (Maltarich et al., 2018), especially innovative performance that requires good interpersonal relationships (Janssen, 2000; Suliman & Al-Shaikh, 2007). Similarly, performance-oriented individuals use a competitive approach during the process and relationship conflicts (Huang, 2012). The competitive approach increases relational distance among employees and damages their interpersonal relationships (DeChurch et al., 2013), thereby negatively affecting employees' innovative job performance (Janssen, 2000; Suliman & Al-Shaikh, 2007; Zhang et al., 2015). Moreover, performance-oriented individuals have a failure-avoiding pattern of motivation (Ames, 1992); therefore, they do not accept extra work or new assignments during process conflict. If they are assigned new tasks during process conflict that do not match their personal preferences or abilities, they perceive them as an ego cost (Huang, 2012) rather than taking them as a challenge (Ames & Archer, 1988). They might try to avoid the new assignments instead of searching for creative ways of doing them, which could have eventually fostered their innovative

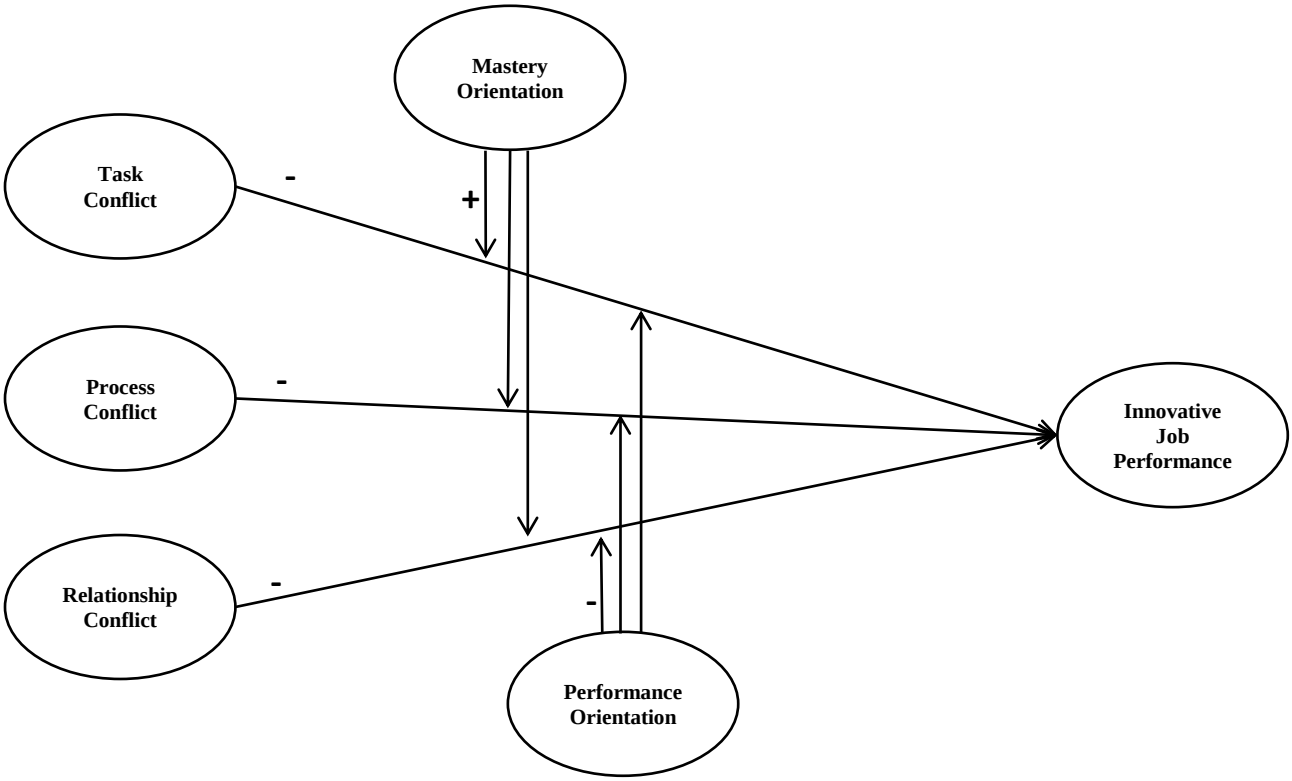
job performance. Furthermore, performance-oriented individuals during relationship conflict maintain their social-emotional distance from their opponents (Huang, 2012), which intensifies the harmful effects of relationship conflict on performance outcomes (i.e., innovative job performance). Thus we hypothesized the following:

> *H5: Performance goal orientation strengthens the negative relationship of a) task conflict, b) process conflict, and c) relationship conflict with innovative job performance*

3. Study 3 Framework

Figure 4.1:

Study 3 Research Model



4. Methods

4.1. Sample and Procedure

Using a cross-sectional design and convenience sampling technique, we collected data through questionnaires from 448 white-collar employees working in Pakistan's four common and rapidly growing industries: automobile, banking, telecom, and information technology, where interpersonal conflict is a critical challenge that threatens organizational performance (Shaukat et al., 2017). We used a convenience sampling and cross-sectional design for the following reasons: (i) the participating organizations allowed only one-time communication with the respondents due to the COVID-19 pandemic, (ii) it is cheaper and highly efficient, (iii) it can adequately address many questions, and (iii) it is appropriate to use when starting new areas of inquiry or/and to study more mature areas of inquiry to rule out alternative explanations (see Spector, 2019).

We disseminated surveys to 820 respondents (265 online and 555 hard copies) and received 518 responses (159 online and 359 hard copies), with a response rate of 63%. To determine whether or not the missing data were MCAR, we conducted Little's (1988) missing completely at random (MCAR) test for each construct and found that missing data were MCAR. We excluded the questionnaires with more than 10% missing values (N = 44) and imputed the remaining missing values (N = 11). In addition, we excluded 26 questionnaires with pattern responses (the same rating for all responses), which resulted in 448 valid responses.

Of the 448 employees, 86% were male; 60% were married; 36% of the participants had a bachelor's, whereas 60% had a master's qualification; and the majority (60%) were between 25-35 years of age. 72% of the participants had less than ten years of professional experience, and

36% worked in managerial positions. All the organizations were large-sized, with a workforce ranging from 500 to above 1000.

4.2. Measures

All the surveys were administered in English because English is the official language of business organizations in Pakistan (Kundi et al., 2020). We randomly ordered all the items rather than grouping them within the constructs with which they were associated. We anchored all the items on a 7-point Likert-type scale.

Interpersonal Conflict: We used three items to measure task conflict (e.g., "I often have disagreements with my group members about the tasks we are working on"; Cronbach's Alpha = 0.86), and three items to measure relationship conflict (e.g., "I often have relationship tension with my group members"; Cronbach's Alpha = 0.82) (adopted from Jehn, 1994, 1995). We measured process conflict with the three items (e.g., "I often have disagreements with my group members about 'who should do what' in our workgroup"; Cronbach's Alpha = 0.89) (adopted from Jehn & Mannix, 2001).

Goal Orientation: We adopted the scale developed by Van Preen and Janssen (2002) for measuring individuals' differences in goal orientation (mastery orientation and performance orientation). The subjects responded to the question "I feel most successful in my job when…," after which they judged eight mastery and eight performance goal orientation items. Cronbach's Alphas for mastery orientation (0.93) and performance orientation (0.89) were satisfactory.

Innovative Job Performance: Innovative job performance was assessed with the widely used (e.g., Janssen, 2004; Zhang et al., 2015) nine items scale developed by Janssen (2000, 2001), measuring individual innovation in the workplace, which draws on Kanter (1988) work

on stages of innovation. Three of the nine items refer to idea generation, three refer to idea promotion, and three refer to idea realization. The scale achieved a high level of internal reliability (Cronbach's Alpha = 0.93).

Control variables: According to Zhang et al. (2015), gender, educational background, working experience, and employees' positions could affect their creativity and innovative performance. Similarly, previous studies (e.g., Kundi & Badar, 2021; Shih & Susanto, 2010) have demonstrated that males and females react differently during the interpersonal conflict, and individuals' age and experience also affect their attitude during the conflict. Suliman and Al-Shaikh (2007) argued that highly educated people favorably react during the conflict, and they have a high level of readiness to create and innovate. Moreover, according to Janssen (2000), highly educated people perform higher-level jobs and occupy managerial positions that could affect their innovative performance. Therefore, we controlled employees' gender, age, experience, education level, and managerial position in our analyses.

5. Data Analyses

Following Anderson and Gerbing (1988), first, we conducted confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) in AMOS-24 to examine the model fitness and discriminant validity of our study constructs (i.e., task conflict, process conflict, relationship conflict, mastery orientation, performance orientation, and innovative job performance). Next, to test our study hypotheses, we utilized Haye's (2012) PROCESS Macro-Model 2, an extension of SPSS software and widely used by the researchers testing the moderation hypotheses (e.g., Kundi & Badar, 2021; Zhang et al., 2015).

5.1. Preliminary Analysis

After examining the potential outliers and missing values, we assessed our study variables' skewness and kurtosis scores. The results revealed that skewness and kurtosis values fell within the acceptable range of -2 and +2 set by George and Mallery (2010), which indicates that our data represented no significant violation of the normality assumption. Table 4.1 shows the results of descriptive analysis and correlations among the study variables. The correlation results showed that no coefficient exceeded the 0.70 level, indicating the absence of multicollinearity among the study variables (Kundi & Badar, 2021).

The correlation results (see in Table 4.1) revealed that task conflict was positively correlated with process conflict (r= .55, p < .001), relationship conflict (r= .49, p < .001), and negatively linked with the innovative job performance (r= -.36, p < .001). Process conflict was positively correlated with relationship conflict (r= .47, p < .001) and negatively correlated with mastery orientation (r= -.12, p < .001) and innovative job performance (r= -.40, p < .001). Relationship conflict was also negatively associated with the innovative job performance (r= -.28, p<.001). Mastery orientation was positively correlated with performance orientation (r= .16, p<.001) and innovative job performance (r= .18, p<.001), and performance orientation was also positively correlated with innovative job performance (r= .17, p<.001). Among the demographic variables, gender was negatively correlated with innovative job performance (r= -.13, p < .001) and age was negatively associated with process conflict (r= -.01, p < .05). Experience was negatively correlated with task conflict (r= -.01, p < .05) and process conflict (r= -.01, p < .05). These results suggest that employees with more experience understand their work and their colleagues; therefore, they face low task and process related conflict.

Table 4.1
Inter-correlations and Descriptive statistics results

Variables	Mean	SD	AVE	CR	ASV	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Gender	1.14	.35	--	--	--	--										
2. Age	2.24	.71	--	--	--	-.23**	--									
3. Qualification	2.66	.59	--	--	--	-.045	.23**	--								
4. Experience	2.04	.99	--	--	--	-.25**	.75**	.16**	--							
5. Managerial Position	.36	.48	--	--	--	-.13**	.30**	.145**	.36**	--						
6. Task Conflict	3.26	1.35	.63	.84	.11	.04	-.073	-.031	-.10*	-.006	**(.86)**					
7. Process Conflict	2.86	1.39	.67	.86	.12	-.01	-.11*	-.009	-.10*	-.024	.55**	**(.89)**				
8. Relationship Conflict	2.48	1.18	.66	.85	.09	.08	-.012	.030	-.03	.063	.49**	.47**	**(.82)**			
9. Mastery Orientation	5.38	1.41	.77	.94	.01	.03	-.007	.019	-.04	-.022	.014	-.12**	-.088	**(.93)**		
10. Performance Orientation	4.43	1.50	.69	.92	.03	.08	.016	.049	-.019	.022	-.014	-.038	-.036	.16**	**(.89)**	
11. Innovative Performance	4.99	1.02	.60	.93	.07	-.13**	.085	.015	.07	.041	-.36**	-.40**	-.28**	.18**	.17**	**(.93)**

Note: N = 448; *p < .05, **p< .01; SD = standard deviation, AVE = average variance extracted, CR = composite reliability, ASV = average shared variance; numbers in brackets are Cronbach Alphas.

Gender: 1=Male, 2=Female; **Age:** 1=below 25, 2= 26-35, 3= 36-45, 4= 46-55, 5= 56-65, 6=above 65; **Qualification:** 1=Matric, 2=Bachelors, 3=Masters, 4=Doctorate; **Experience:** 1=below 5 years, 2= 5-10, 3= 11-15, 4=above 15; **Managerial Position:** 0=Non Manager, 1= Manager

5.2. Measurement Assessment

Following previous research (e.g., Kundi et al., 2020; De Clercq et al., 2021), we conducted a series of confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) using AMOS-24 and compared our hypothesized six-factor model with all other alternative models to examine whether the measures indeed represent different constructs. To assess our proposed model's fit, we used three different fit indices: the comparative fit index (CFI), the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) (Hu & Bentler, 1998). Our results (see Table 4.2) indicated that our intended six-factor model (task conflict, process conflict, relationship conflict, mastery orientation, performance orientation, and innovative performance) provided an acceptable fit to data ($\chi 2$ [322] = 483.098, CFI =0.98, RMSEA =0.033, SRMR = .037) and was better than the alternative models.

Table 4.2
Fit statistics of measurement models

Model	$\chi 2$	DF	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
6-factor (hypothesized) Model: TC, PC, RC, MO, PO, IP	483.10	322	0.98	0.033	0.037
5-factor Model: combines TC and PC	863.50	327	0.93	0.061	0.048
4-factor Model: Combines PC and RC with TC	1143.68	331	0.90	0.074	0.054
3-factor Model: Combines PC and RC with TC, and MO with PO	2067.79	334	0.79	0.108	0.105
2-factor Model: Combines PC and RC with TC, and MO and PO with IP	3792.27	336	0.58	0.152	0.149
1-factor Model:	4804.08	337	0.45	0.172	0.173
Method$_U$	388.98	294	0.98	0.027	0.037
Method$_I$	566.11	343	0.97	0.038	0.046
Method$_R$	566.25	344	0.97	0.038	0.046

Note: $\chi 2$ = Chi-square, DF = Degree of Freedom, CFI = Comparative Fit Index, RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation, SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual.
TC=Task Conflict, PC=Process Conflict, RC=Relationship Conflict, NE=Negative Emotions, EI=Emotional Intelligence

To check the adequacy of our measures, we examined the convergent validity through (i) factor loadings, (ii) CR values, and (iii) AVE scores. The results (see Appendix C) revealed that factor loadings were above the threshold values of .6 set by Chin (2010). CR values of the constructs were higher than the threshold value of .7, and all the AVE scores were higher than the cutoff value of .5 (See Table 4.1), which supports the convergent validity of our constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). To assess discriminant validity, we compared the AVE value of each construct with its ASV value (mean of the squared correlations among constructs). We found (see Table 4.1) that the AVE value of each construct was higher than its ASV value, supporting the discriminant validity of our study constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

5.3. Dealing with Common-method Biasness (CMB)

We took both the procedural and statistical remedies to minimize the common method biasness problem. Procedurally, following López Bohle et al. (2018), we took several steps, e.g., informed the respondents about the study's objectives, ensured their confidentiality, and clarified that there were no right or wrong answers. Additionally, we randomly ordered the items and placed the dependent and independent variables separately in different sections with different instructions to separate the dependent variable psychologically from the independent variables (Shih & Susanto, 2010). Statistically, following the recommendations of Williams and McGonagle (2016), we conducted the unmeasured latent method construct (ULMC) method to reduce the likelihood of common method variance (CMV). In this regard, we ran three CFA models: (i) the method factor model ($Method_U$) to examine whether CMV exists; (ii) the method factor with equal method factor loadings within and freely estimated loadings between substantive latent constructs ($Method_I$) to check whether the extent of CMV varied between substantive constructs; and (iii) the reference model with restricted correlations of substantive latent constructs

($Method_R$) without the inclusion of a method factor. Our results (see Table 4.2) showed that CMV was not a threat since there was no substantial deterioration in model fit.

6. Hypotheses Testing

H1, H2, and H3 hypothesized that task, process, and relationship conflicts negatively relate to innovative job performance. Study results (see Table 4.3) revealed a significant negative relationship between task conflict and innovative job performance ($\beta = -.27$, $p < 0.01$), process conflict and innovative job performance ($\beta = -.28$, $p < 0.01$), and relationship conflict and innovative job performance [$\beta = -.21$, $p < 0.01$), thereby supporting H1, H2 and H3 respectively. Moreover, both the moderators; mastery orientation ($\beta = .13$, $p < 0.01$) and performance orientation ($\beta = .11$, $p < 0.01$) were positively associated with innovative job performance. We controlled for the demographic variables (i.e., gender, age, qualification, experience, and managerial position). We found (see Table 4.3) that only gender had a significant negative effect on innovative job performance ($\beta = -.34$, $p < 0.01$); however, all other control variables had no significant relationship with innovative job performance.

H4a, H4b, and H4c hypothesized that mastery goal orientation weakens the negative relationship between task, process, and relationship conflicts and employees' innovative job performance. Our study results (see Table 4.3) revealed that mastery orientation positively moderated the negative relationship between task conflict and innovative job performance ($\beta = .11$, $p < 0.01$), process conflict and innovative performance ($\beta = .085$, $p < 0.01$), and relationship conflict and innovative performance ($\beta = .128$, $p < 0.01$), supporting H4a, H4b, and H4c respectively. It means the negative relationship between interpersonal conflict and innovative performance would be weaker in the presence of mastery orientation and vice versa.

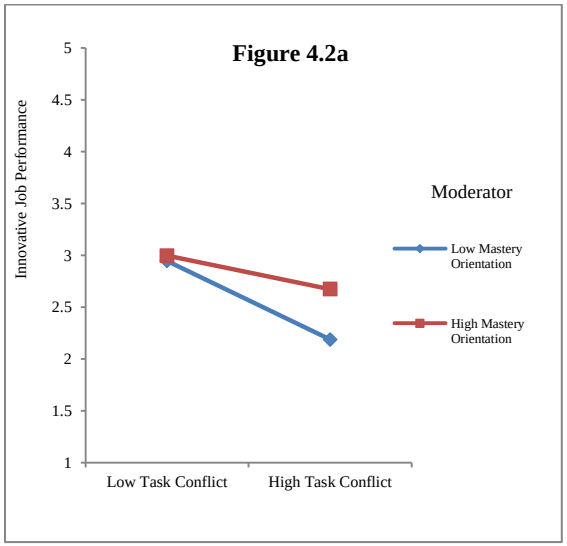
Table 4.3
Moderation Results (Process Macro-Model 2)

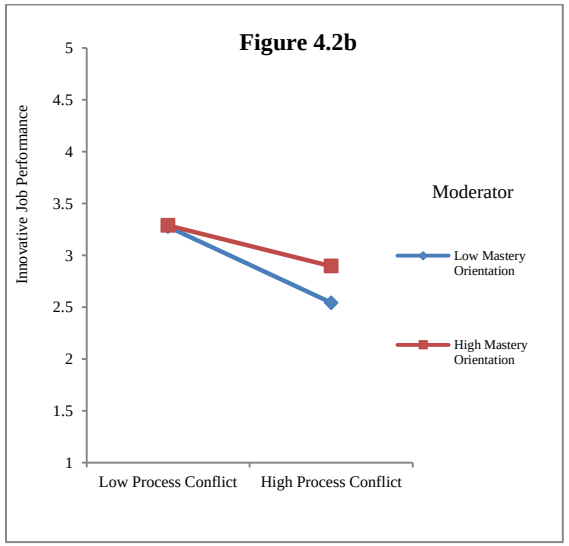
		Innovative Job Performance	
		B	SE
	Gender	-.34**	.128
	Age	.03	.093
	Qualification	-.04	.075
	Experience	-.01	.067
	Managerial Position	.06	.095
H1	Task Conflict	-.27**	.032
H2	Process Conflict	-.28**	.031
H3	Relationship Conflict	-.21**	.038
	Mastery Orientation	.13**	.031
	Performance Orientation	.11**	.029
H4a	Task Conflict x Mastery Orientation	.11**	.024
H4b	Process Conflict x Mastery Orientation	.085**	.023
H4c	Relationship Conflict x Mastery Orientation	.128**	.028
H5a	Task Conflict x Performance Orientation	-.057**	.021
H5b	Process Conflict x Performance Orientation	-.056**	.020
H5c	Relationship Conflict x Performance Orientation	-.083**	.026
	R^2	.244**	
	R^2 Change	.043**	

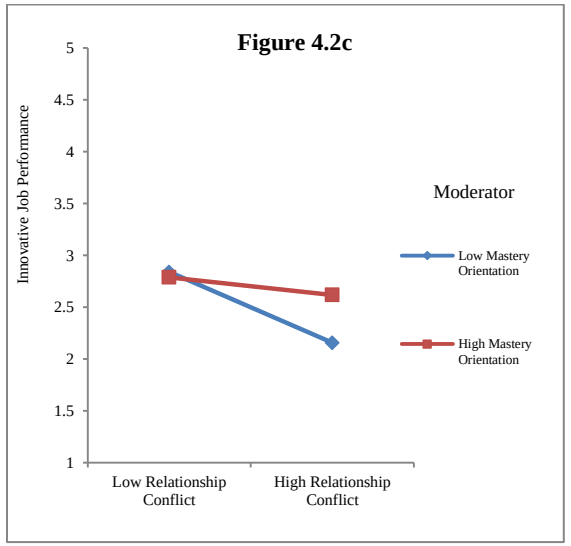
Note (s): n =448; *p<0.05; **p<0.01; **SE** = standard error; **Beta coefficients and average bootstrap estimates are stated; bootstrapping procedure [5000 iterations, bias corrected, 95% CI]**

To illustrate the difference, we conducted a simple slope test by plotting the interactions (i.e., TC x MO, PC x MO, and RC x MO) on innovative job performance (illustrated in figure 4.2). Figure 4.2 showed that innovative job performance was lower at higher levels of task conflict, process conflict, and relationship conflict, indicating the negative relationship between interpersonal conflict and innovative job performance. However, this negative relationship was weaker at a higher level of mastery orientation, indicating that mastery goal orientation weakens the negative relationship between interpersonal conflict and innovative job performance.

Figure 4.2:
The moderating role of mastery goal orientation on interpersonal conflict– innovative job performance relationship



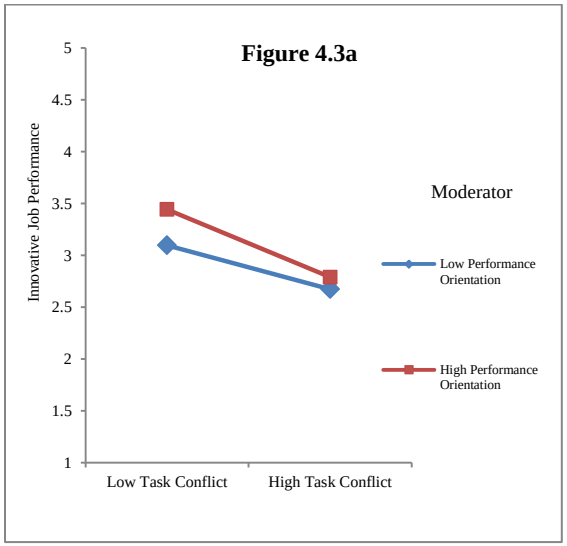


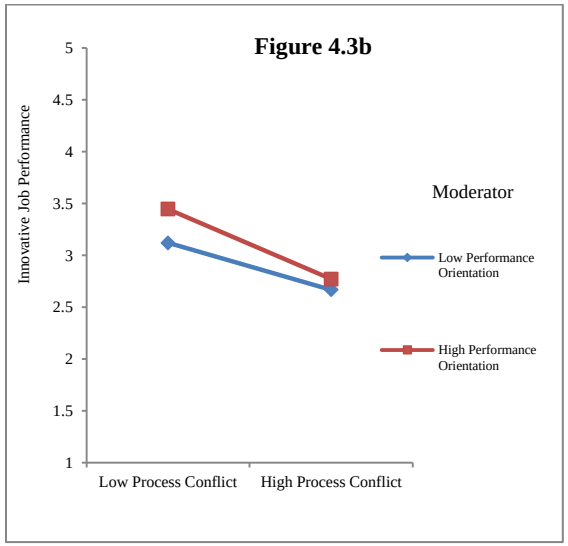


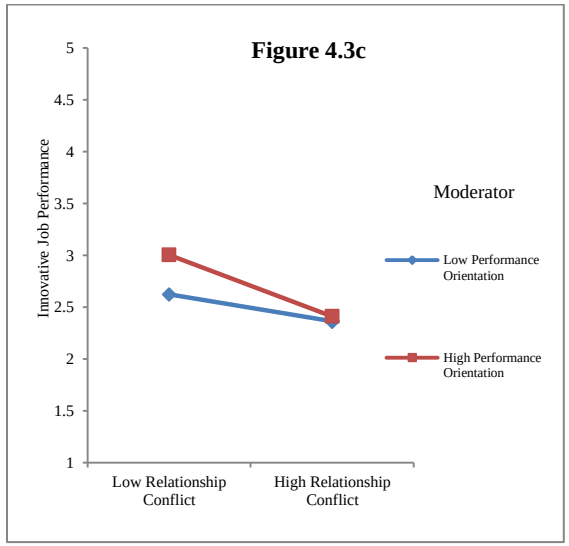
Moreover, H5a, H5b, and H5c hypothesize that performance goal orientation would strengthen the negative relationship between task, process, and relationship conflicts and employees' innovative job performance. Results (see Table 4.3) indicated that performance orientation negatively moderated the relationship between task conflict and innovative job performance ($\beta = -.057$, $p < 0.01$), process conflict and innovative job performance ($\beta = -.056$, $p < 0.01$), and relationship conflict and innovative job performance ($\beta = -.083$, $p < 0.01$). The interaction terms were significant and negatively linked to innovative performance, thus supporting H5a, H5b, and H5c, respectively. It means that the negative relationship between interpersonal conflict and innovative performance will be stronger in the presence of performance orientation and vice versa.

To illustrate the difference, we plotted the interactions (i.e., TC x PO, PC x PO, and RC x PO) on innovative job performance (shown in figure 4.3). Figure 4.3 indicated that the negative relationship between interpersonal conflict and innovative performance is weaker at a lower level of performance orientation than at a higher level of performance orientation, where this relationship becomes stronger. This indicates that performance orientation strengthens the negative relationship between interpersonal conflict and innovative performance.

Figure 4.3:
The moderating role of performance goal orientation on interpersonal conflict– innovative job performance relationship







7. Discussion

This study investigated the relationship between task, process, and relationship conflicts and employees' innovative job performance, and the moderating role of employees' goal orientation (mastery orientation and performance orientation). The results highlighted that interpersonal conflict types (task, process, and relationship conflict) were negatively related to employees' innovative job performance. However, employees' mastery goal orientation weakened while performance goal orientation strengthened the negative relationship between task, process, and relationship conflicts and employees' innovative job performance. These findings carry important theoretical implications for the existing literature regarding interpersonal conflict, employees' innovative job performance, and employees' goal orientations.

8. Theoretical Contributions

The findings of this study made several theoretical contributions. First, this empirical study contributes to the debate among researchers regarding the outcomes of interpersonal conflicts (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; Kundi & Badar, 2021; O'Neill et al., 2013; Rezvani et al., 2019). Our results revealed that each interpersonal conflict type (i.e., task, process, and relationship) negatively affects employees' innovative job performance. These results support the previous research (de Wit et al., 2012; O'Neill et al., 2013; Khosravi et al., 2020; Greer et al., 2008), demonstrating that process conflict is detrimental to employees' performance. The results also support the studies (Huang, 2012; O'Neill et al., 2013; Rezvani et al., 2019; Shaukat et al., 2017), demonstrating the negative association between relationship conflict and employees' satisfaction and performance. Moreover, our findings support some previous studies (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; Khosravi et al., 2020; Mannes, 2008), explaining that task conflict is detrimental to employees' satisfaction and performance. However, it

contradicts others (Giebels et al., 2016; Pitafi et al., 2020; Yousaf et al., 2020; Flores et al., 2018), demonstrating that task conflict positively affects employees' performance, satisfaction, innovative work behavior, and creativity.

We found a negative association between task conflict and employees' innovative job performance; however, some previous studies (Pitafi et al., 2020; N. Hu et al., 2017; De Clercq et al., 2017) demonstrated that task conflict positively affects individual and team creativity. There could be several reasons for this. First, task conflict can promote new ideas generation (Pitafi et al., 2020; De Clercq et al., 2017; N. Hu et al., 2017). Thus, it could enhance creativity, which is one of the multistage processes of innovative job performance (Kanter, 1988; Scott & Bruce, 1994). However, task conflict delays the implementation of new ideas (Jehn, 1997) and discourages others' support for the promotion and implementation of novel ideas. Therefore, task conflict could adversely affect innovative performance. Second, task conflict generates negative emotions (de Wit et al., 2012; Hopkins & Yonker, 2015; Zhang et al., 2019) and restricts information exchange (Yang & Mossholder, 2004); therefore, it can hinder the generation, promotion, and implementation of new ideas (innovative job performance). Third, researchers (Choi & Cho, 2011; Greer et al., 2008; Rispens, 2012) demonstrated that task conflict generates adverse outcomes when closely related to relationship conflict. Prior research (Flores et al., 2018; Maltarich et al., 2018) has found a close association between task and relationship conflict. Therefore, the close association between task and relationship conflicts could be one of the reasons for the adverse effects of task conflict on innovative job performance.

Our study also contributes to understanding the least research area, 'employees' goal orientations' (Nederveen Pieterse et al., 2013), unexplored in the conflict management domain (except Huang, 2012). Our results highlighted that mastery goal orientation weakens while performance orientation strengthens the negative relationship between interpersonal

conflict and innovative job performance, providing empirical evidence to the contingency perspective of conflict (Jehn and Bendersky 2003) by explaining that conflict outcomes are contingent on various moderators. Our findings support the previous studies demonstrating that mastery orientation positively while performance orientation negatively moderates the relationship between job demand and job satisfaction (Van Preen & Janssen, 2002a), cultural diversity and team performance (Nederveen Pieterse et al., 2013), and task and relationship conflicts and team performance (Huang, 2012). These results also align with the studies demonstrating the positive effects of mastery orientation and adverse effects of performance orientation on employees' innovative job performance (Janssen, 2004). To conclude, we found that each type of interpersonal conflict is detrimental to employees' innovative job performance; however, employees' mastery goal orientation minimizes while performance goal orientation increases the adverse effects of interpersonal conflict on innovative performance.

9. Practical Implications

This study has several practical implications that could help managers minimize the detrimental effects of employees' interpersonal conflict and enhance their innovative performance. First, our study suggests that managers should minimize employees' interpersonal conflict because interpersonal conflict damages employees' work relationships and hinders the promotion and implementation of novel ideas, thereby adversely affecting employees' innovative performance. Managers may engage employees in constructive debates and discussions that could foster the exchanges of divergent opinions and viewpoints (Rezvani et al., 2019; Shaukat et al., 2017), helping employees in new ideas generation. However, they should discourage the escalation of employees' interpersonal conflict (Greer

et al., 2008) by intervening during unpleasant exchanges among employees to avoid the detrimental effects of interpersonal conflict.

Second, previous research (e.g., Karlsson et al., 2021; Turner, 2009) has encouraged diversity in the workplace. Numerous researchers (e.g., Martinez et al., 2017; Østergaard et al., 2011; Turner, 2009) demonstrated that team diversity (gender, age, skills, and education diversity) positively affects individual, team, and firms' innovative performance. However, diversity leads to interpersonal conflict (Jehn, 1994; Jehn et al., 1999; Martinez et al., 2017; Zouaghi et al., 2020), and interpersonal conflict adversely affects employees' innovative performance. Therefore, we suggest that managers should focus not only on increasing diversity in the workplace but also on managing interpersonal conflict among employees. Managers can benefit from diversity and decrease the detrimental effects of diversity on innovative performance by providing negotiation and conflict resolution training to their employees (Martinez et al., 2017; Zouaghi et al., 2020). Therefore, we suggest that managers should provide conflict management training to their employees to gain the positive outcomes of diversity.

Third, mastery goal-oriented individuals maintain good interpersonal relationships, helping the organizations minimize the detrimental effects of interpersonal conflict and improve employees' innovative performance. Therefore, our study suggests that the HR managers should use goal orientation as a criterion for the employees' selection (Huang, 2012) and recruit employees with a natural disposition toward learning (De Clercq et al., 2017), which would help them promote a knowledge-sharing culture. The HR managers should train their employees to foster their mastery goal orientation and hinder their performance goal orientation (Nederveen Pieterse et al., 2013) which would help promote a learning-oriented work environment (De Clercq et al., 2017). Furthermore, our study suggests that organizations should build an innovation-supportive culture by developing an appraisal

system that encourages, appreciates, and rewards their employees for new learning and innovative job performance, rather than in-role job performance. Doing so would encourage employees to share knowledge with their colleagues, maintain a good interpersonal relationship and improve innovative performance.

10. Limitations and Future Research

This study has some limitations that could influence the interpretations of the results. First, we employed a cross-sectional study design, which creates concerns about the potential reverse causality (De Clercq & Belausteguigoitia, 2020) and limits the ability to make causal assertions (Giebels et al., 2016; Huang, 2012). Therefore, future researchers should use a longitudinal design that would provide the opportunity to explain the lines of causality (Huang, 2012). Moreover, interpersonal conflict and employees' innovative job performance relationships could be susceptible to reverse causality (De Clercq et al., 2017) because promoting creative ideas may generate potential conflict (Khazanchi & Masterson, 2011). However, our study does not investigate the reciprocal nature of these processes. Therefore, future studies should examine the reverse causality by investigating the effects of innovative job performance on interpersonal conflicts.

Second, this study is solely based on the self-reported data that could cause the problem of common method variance (Giebels et al., 2016), and according to O'Neill et al. (2013), the self-reported data could exaggerate the conflict-performance relationship. Therefore, future researchers should collect data from multiple sources (employees, supervisors, behavioral observations, etc.) to reduce the common method variance problem (Huang, 2012). Third, we found a negative link between task conflict and employees' innovative job performance, which contradicts some previous studies (e.g., Giebels et al., 2016; Hu et al., 2017; Pitafi et al., 2020), demonstrating the positive relationship between

task conflict and employees' innovative work behavior, team creativity, and individual creativity. According to O'Neill et al. (2013), task conflict may only relate to some dimensions of innovation. Therefore, we suggest that future researchers should investigate the relationship between task conflict and different stages of innovative job performance: i.e., ideas generation, ideas promotion, and ideas realization. Future studies can also examine the curvilinear relationship between task conflict and innovative job performance because researchers (e.g., Giebels et al., 2016; Pitafi et al., 2020) argued that high and low level of task conflict differently affects employees' creativity and innovation.

Finally, numerous researchers (e.g., Martinez et al., 2017; Østergaard et al., 2011; Turner, 2009; Zouaghi et al., 2020) demonstrated that diversity (gender, age, education, and skills diversity) enhances innovative performance. Since diversity could lead to interpersonal conflict (Jehn, 1994; Jehn et al., 1999; Martinez et al., 2017; Zouaghi et al., 2020), and our study results revealed that interpersonal conflict adversely affects innovative performance. Therefore, diversity could play an essential role in interpersonal conflict and innovative performance relationships. We could not examine the critical role of diversity in interpersonal conflict and innovative performance relationships because we did not have team-level data. Therefore, we suggest that future researchers should also consider the critical role of diversity in interpersonal conflict and innovative performance studies, specifically to examine the mediating role of interpersonal conflict in the diversity - innovative performance relationship.

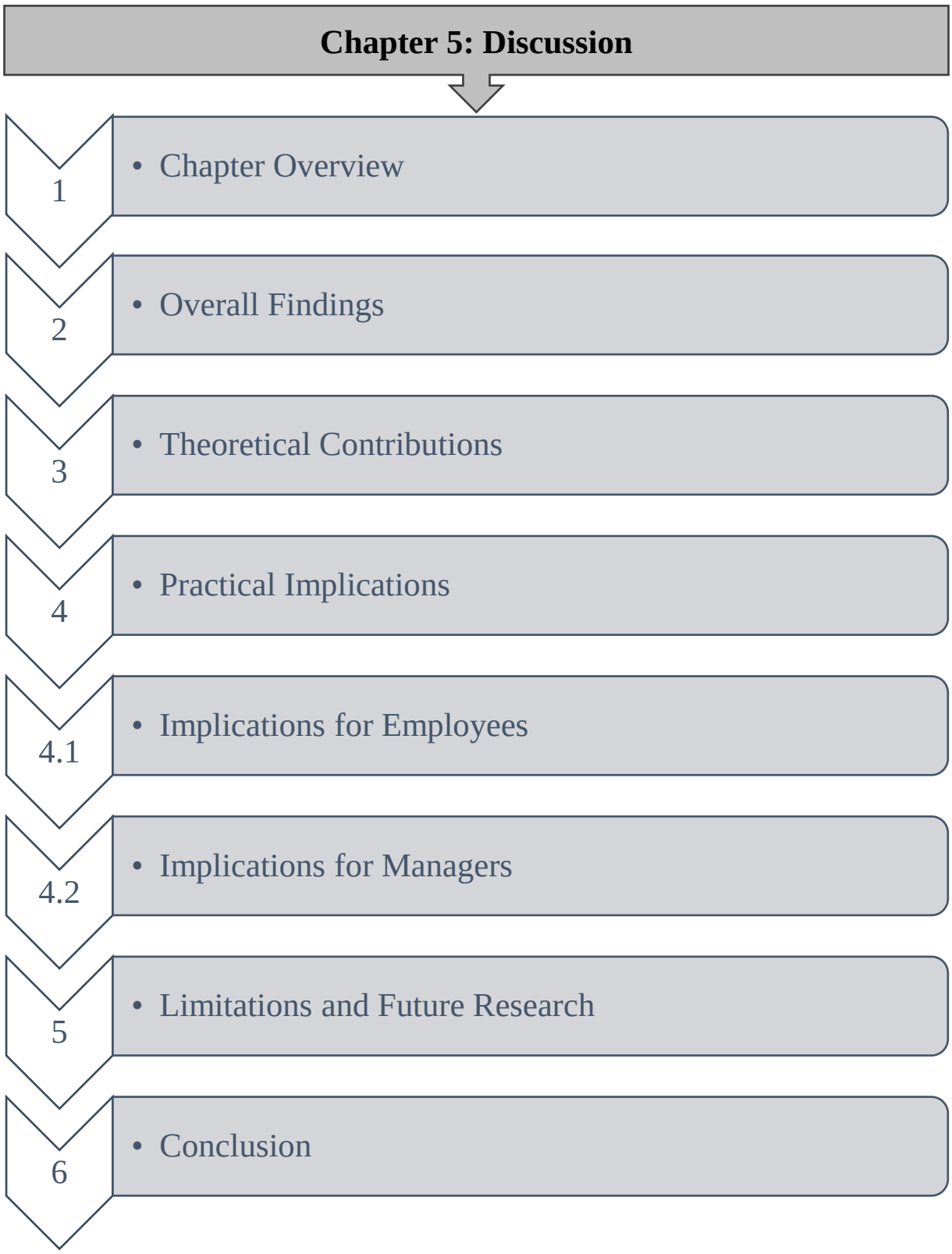
11. Conclusion

The controversy among researchers on the relationship between interpersonal conflict and performance outcomes arises a need to investigate the association between different types of interpersonal conflict and their outcomes (especially innovative job performance) and the contingency factors affecting this relationship. In line with this theme, the current study has

incorporated employees' goal orientations as the contingency factor affecting the relationship between interpersonal conflict and employees' innovative job performance. The findings revealed that interpersonal conflict negatively affects employees' innovative job performance. However, employees' mastery goal orientation decreases while performance goal orientation increases the adverse effects of interpersonal conflict on employees' innovative performance.

CHAPTER 5:

DISCUSSION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1. Chapter Overview

This chapter outlines overall findings, theoretical contributions, practical implications, and research limitations, followed by future research directions based on our study findings. Finally, the conclusion of the dissertation is provided.

2. Overall Findings

This dissertation aimed to gain greater insight into the effects of downsizing on employees' innovative performance with a critical role of interpersonal conflict in the organizations of a developing Asian country, Pakistan. More specifically, the purpose was to examine how and when downsizing leads to different types of interpersonal conflict among survivors, how and when cognitive conflict transforms into affective conflict, and how and when various interpersonal conflicts affect employees' innovative job performance. Accordingly, we divided this dissertation into three sub-articles.

The first study examined the relationship between downsizing and different types of interpersonal conflicts (i.e., task, process, and relationship conflicts) with the mediating role of workload, based on the stress process model (Pearlin & Bierman, 2013). We also examined the moderating effect of organizational restructuring on the association between downsizing and workload and the indirect relationship between downsizing and interpersonal conflict via workload based on the downsizing and work redesign framework (Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998). Our findings revealed that downsizing was positively related to the task, process, and relationship conflicts, and workload mediated the relationship between downsizing and task and process conflicts. The workload was not associated with relationship conflict, nor did it mediate the association between downsizing and relationship conflict. Moreover, the organizational restructuring negatively moderated the downsizing and workload relationship and the indirect relationship between downsizing and task and process

conflicts via workload. Our findings validated the suggested research model, confirming the mediating role of workload in the relationship between downsizing and interpersonal conflict (i.e., task and process conflicts) and the buffering effect of organizational restructuring in minimizing the adverse effects of downsizing (e.g., workload and interpersonal conflict).

The first study results revealed that downsizing is positively related to all three interpersonal conflicts (i.e., task, process, and relationship conflicts). However, workload only mediated the relationship between downsizing and task and process conflicts, and it did not mediate the link between downsizing and relationship conflict. Therefore, we predicted that other factors could promote the relationship conflict among survivors after downsizing. Numerous researchers (e.g., Choi & Cho, 2011; Guenter et al., 2016; Jimmieson et al., 2017; Rispens, 2012; van den Berg et al., 2014) demonstrated that cognitive conflicts (i.e., task and process conflicts) transform into affective conflict (relationship conflict). Therefore, we proposed that the relationship conflict among survivors after downsizing may increase due to their task and process conflicts. Accordingly, we examined the association between task and process conflicts and relationship conflicts to determine the causes of relationship conflict after downsizing. Moreover, to understand the underlying mechanism of conflict transformation, we examined the mediating role of negative emotions in the relationship between task and process conflicts and the relationship conflict. We also examined the moderating effect of emotional intelligence on the association of task and process conflicts with negative emotions and the indirect association of task and process conflict with the relationship conflict via negative emotions. Our study results revealed that task and process conflicts were positively related to relationship conflict, and the negative emotions mediated this relationship. Moreover, emotional intelligence negatively moderated the task and process conflicts and negative emotions relationship, and the indirect association of task and process conflicts with the relationship conflict via negative emotions. These findings validated the

second study's suggested research model by confirming the mediating role of negative emotions in the association of task and process conflicts with the relationship conflict and the buffering effect of emotional intelligence in preventing the transformation of task and process conflicts into relationship conflict.

In the third study, we examined the interpersonal conflict (e.g., task, process, and relationship conflicts) and employees' innovative performance relationships and the moderating effect of employees' goal orientations (e.g., mastery and performance goal orientations) on these relationships. Early studies (e.g., Jehn & Mannix, 2001; DeChurch et al., 2013; Giebels et al., 2016; Shaukat et al., 2017; Rezvani et al., 2019; Pitafi et al., 2020) on the distinct effects of task, process, and relationship conflicts on individual, group and organizational level outcomes demonstrated the positive effects of task conflict and the adverse effects of the process and relationship conflicts. However, some researchers (e.g., De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; Khosravi et al., 2020; van Woerkom & Sanders, 2010) demonstrated that task conflict is also detrimental. To further add to this controversial debate on the outcomes of interpersonal conflict, we examined the link between different types of interpersonal conflicts and employees' innovative job performance in our third study. Moreover, we also examined the moderating effects of employees' goal orientations on the interpersonal conflict - innovative job performance relationships. The results of this study validated the suggested research model, confirming that all three types of interpersonal conflicts (i.e., task, process, and relationship conflicts) are negatively related to employees' innovative job performance. However, employees' mastery goal orientation weakens while performance goal orientation strengthens the negative relationship between interpersonal conflict and innovative job performance.

Across the three different studies, we found that downsizing leads to interpersonal conflict among survivors through the mediating role of workload; the task and process

conflicts lead to relationship conflict via negative emotions, and all three types of interpersonal conflicts negatively affect employees' innovative job performance. Moreover, we also found that organizational restructuring minimizes the adverse effects of downsizing, emotional intelligence prevents the transformation of task and process conflicts into relationship conflict, and employees' mastery goal orientation minimizes while performance goal orientation increases the adverse effects of interpersonal conflict on employees' innovative job performance. Thus, we pinpointed the critical underlying mechanisms (e.g., workload, interpersonal conflict, and negative emotions) that could foster the adverse effects of downsizing. We also highlighted the organizational-level factors (i.e., restructuring) and individual-level factors (i.e., emotional intelligence and employees' goal orientations) that could minimize the adverse effects of downsizing. Below we discuss the theoretical and practical implications based on our studies' findings.

3. Theoretical Contributions

This dissertation contributes to the existing literature on downsizing and restructuring, interpersonal conflict, emotions and emotional intelligence, employees' goal orientation, and innovative job performance in several important ways, which are discussed below.

3.1. Downsizing

Our first contribution lies in demonstrating the downsizing's effects on interpersonal conflict among survivors. Numerous researchers (e.g., Ashman, 2016; Frone & Blais, 2020; Hammond et al., 2019) have argued that downsizing could promote organizational conflict. However, the questions about downsizing generate which types of conflict and among whom were unaddressed. Accordingly, researchers (e.g., Datta et al., 2010; Ashman, 2016) called for empirical studies investigating the association between downsizing and interpersonal conflict. Moreover, there are three types of interpersonal conflicts: task conflict, process

conflict, and relationship conflict (Jehn, 1995; Jehn & Mannix, 2001; Greer et al., 2008). Again, no comprehensive study has investigated the relationship between downsizing and different types of interpersonal conflict. Therefore, this dissertation provided empirical evidence to the prior research arguing that downsizing could promote organizational conflict (Ashman, 2016; Freeman, 1994; Gandolfi & Hansson, 2011b; Frone & Blais, 2020). Moreover, our findings further highlighted which type of interpersonal conflict is generated after downsizing. Moreover, these findings provided further support to the previous research (Ashman, 2016; Burke, 2009; Dlouhy & Casper, 2021; Gandolfi & Hansson, 2011; Kets De Vries & Balazs, 1997; Zorn et al., 2017), demonstrating that the downsizing adversely affects the individual employees: the victims, executioners, and survivors of downsizing, and operational and financial performance of the organizations. Our study results further supported the literature by demonstrating that, along with other adverse effects, downsizing promotes interpersonal conflict among survivors.

Our second contribution lies in uncovering the underlying mechanism that explains how downsizing leads to interpersonal conflict among survivors. Various researchers (e.g., Datta et al., 2010; Frone & Blais, 2020; Dlouhy & Casper, 2021) called for investigating the mediating mechanism linking downsizing to survivors' outcomes. Since interpersonal conflict is also one of the downsizing outcomes (e.g., Ashman, 2016; Frone & Blais, 2020; Hammond et al., 2019); however, the mechanism that leads the downsizing to the interpersonal conflict was unclear. Therefore, by confirming the mediating role of workload in the downsizing and interpersonal conflict relationship, this study highlighted how downsizing leads to interpersonal conflict among survivors.

Third, this dissertation makes several essential contributions by investigating the moderating effect of organizational restructuring on the downsizing and workload relationship and the indirect association between downsizing and interpersonal conflict via

workload. First, we differentiated downsizing from restructuring. Some researchers have placed the downsizing under restructuring (e.g., Knight & Parker, 2021; Supartha, 2020). Some used them alternatively (e.g., Garaudel et al., 2008), while others (e.g., Cameron, 1994; Freeman & Cameron, 1993) mixed up downsizing with restructuring by broadly defining the downsizing. However, downsizing differs from restructuring (Rondeau & Wagar (2003). Numerous researchers (e.g., Kets De Vries & Balazs, 1996, 1997; Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998; Rondeau & Wagar, 2003; Wagar, 2009) argued that headcount reduction (downsizing) fosters adverse outcomes; however, restructuring minimizes the damaging effects of downsizing. To the best of our knowledge, non of the study has empirically investigated the moderating effect of restructuring on downsizing and its outcomes relationship. Therefore, by examining the moderating effects of restructuring on the relationship of downsizing with workload and interpersonal conflict; this dissertation provided empirical evidence to the prior research (Kets De Vries & Balazs, 1996, 1997; Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998; Rondeau & Wagar, 2003; Wagar, 2009), arguing that restructuring minimizes the adverse effects of downsizing. Moreover, this study also answered the calls by various researchers (e.g., Dlouhy & Casper, 2021; Datta et al., 2010; Harney et al., 2018) to explore the different contingency factors that could moderate the downsizing and its outcomes relationship. Moreover, using the moderated-mediation model, this dissertation highlighted the underlying mechanisms and boundary conditions for the downsizing and interpersonal conflict relationship and answered the questions of how and when downsizing leads to interpersonal conflict.

Moreover, using a sequential model based on three sub-studies, this dissertation confirmed that downsizing promotes interpersonal conflict among survivors, the cognitive type of interpersonal conflict becomes more intensified and transformed into dysfunctional conflict, and the interpersonal conflict negatively affects employees' innovative performance. Our results provided support to the previous studies (Ashman, 2016; Burke, 2009; Dlouhy &

Casper, 2021; Gandolfi & Hansson, 2011; Kets De Vries & Balazs, 1997; Zorn et al., 2017), demonstrating the adverse effects of downsizing on individual employees and the operational and financial performance of the organizations. By examining the downsizing's impacts on interpersonal conflict and innovative performance, this dissertation answered the calls by various researchers (Fernández-Menéndez et al., 2020; Marques et al., 2014) to assess the downsizing effects on non-financial outcomes.

Furthermore, our dissertation brings a new perspective to the downsizing and innovative performance relationship by examining the critical role of interpersonal conflict in the downsizing and innovative performance relationship. For example, previous studies on the downsizing (or job insecurity) and innovative performance relationship examined the mediating role of various factors, including organizational commitment (Marques et al., 2014), psychological contract (Niesen et al., 2018), increased irritation, and decreased concentration (Van Hootegem et al., 2019). However, we could not find studies on the critical role of relational factors (specifically interpersonal conflict) in the downsizing and innovative performance relationships. Therefore, by confirming that downsizing leads to interpersonal conflict and interpersonal conflict adversely affects survivors' innovative performance, our dissertation filled this research gap. Accordingly, our studies answered the calls by various researchers (e.g., Niesen et al., 2018; Van Hootegem et al., 2019) to examine the role of various essential mediators in the downsizing and innovative performance relationships.

3.2. Interpersonal Conflict

This dissertation contributes to the literature on interpersonal conflict in several important ways.

Our first contribution lies in exploring the unexamined antecedents of interpersonal conflict (i.e., downsizing and workload), which the prior researchers argued (e.g., Ashman, 2016; Frone & Blais, 2020; Hammond et al., 2019) but not empirically investigated. Our findings revealed that, along with other antecedents of interpersonal conflict, downsizing also promotes interpersonal conflict due to the increased workload post-downsizing.

Second, the current dissertation examined the transformation of task and process conflicts into relationship conflict to answer the calls by various researchers (Flores et al., 2018; Guenter et al., 2016; Kuriakose et al., 2019) to investigate the link among different types of interpersonal conflicts. The results revealed that task and process conflicts were positively associated with the relationship conflict supporting the previous research (Choi & Cho, 2011; Guenter et al., 2016; Jimmieson et al., 2017; Rispens, 2012), demonstrating the positive link between task and relationship conflicts. Similarly, our results also support the prior studies (e.g., Greer et al., 2008; van den Berg et al., 2014) demonstrating the positive association between process and relationship conflicts. The current study extended our understanding of the conflict transformation in the organizational setting, especially the transformation of process research, which is least researched (Greer et al., 2008; Jehn & Mannix, 2001; Kuriakose et al., 2019).

The third contribution of this dissertation to the literature on interpersonal conflict lies in uncovering the underlying mechanisms for transforming cognitive conflict into affective conflict (relationship conflict). By examining the mediating role of negative emotions in the association between task, process, and relationship conflicts, this dissertation answered the calls of various researchers (e.g., Curşeu et al., 2012; van den Berg et al., 2014; Guenter et al., 2016; Flores et al., 2018) for investigating the underlying mechanism transforming conflict from one form into another. The results revealed that negative emotions mediated the link between task, process, and relationship conflicts. Therefore, our findings provided

empirical support to the prior research (de Wit et al., 2013; van den Berg et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2019; Flores et al., 2018), arguing that task and process conflicts foster negative emotions that further promote relationship conflict.

The fourth contribution to the literature on interpersonal conflict lies in examining the boundary conditions for transforming task and process conflicts into relationship conflicts. By investigating the moderating effect of emotional intelligence, this study answered the call by researchers (Guenter et al., 2016; Flores et al., 2018; Jimmieson et al., 2017; van den Berg et al., 2014) to explore the different contingency factors decoupling cognitive conflict from the affective conflict. Our findings confirmed the negative moderation of emotional intelligence on the relationship between task and process conflicts and the negative emotions and the indirect association of task and process conflicts with the relationship conflict via negative emotions. We propose that employees engaged in task and process conflicts experience negative emotions during discussions and disagreements, which generate relationship conflict among them. Since emotionally intelligent individuals can effectively control and manage their negative emotions (Rezvani et al., 2019; Kundi & Badar, 2021). Therefore, emotional intelligence minimizes the negative emotions during the cognitive conflict, subsequently reducing the affective conflict (relationship conflict). Using the moderated-mediation model helped us understand the underlying mechanisms and boundary conditions for transforming cognitive conflict into an affective conflict that would help managers prevent the transformation of functional conflict into dysfunctional.

The fifth contribution of this dissertation to the literature on interpersonal conflict lies in empirically investigating the impact of different types of interpersonal conflict on employees' innovative job performance. There is a controversial debate in the literature (e.g., De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; Kundi & Badar, 2021; O'Neill et al., 2013; Rezvani et al., 2019) regarding the outcomes of interpersonal conflict. Early studies on the distinct effects of task,

process, and relationship conflicts on individual and group outcomes demonstrated the positive effects of task conflict and the adverse effects of the process and relationship conflicts (e.g., Jehn, 1995; DeChurch et al., 2013; Giebels et al., 2016; Shaukat et al., 2017; Rezvani et al., 2019; Pitafi et al., 2020). However, some researchers (e.g., De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; Khosravi et al., 2020; Mannes, 2008) demonstrated that task conflict is also detrimental. The current dissertation added to this controversial debate by presenting that all three types of interpersonal conflict are harmful to individual outcomes (i.e., innovative job performance), especially in the downsizing context. Moreover, this research answered the calls by researchers (e.g., De Clercq & Belausteguigoitia, 2020; Giebels et al., 2016) to examine the link between different types of interpersonal conflicts and innovative job performance. Furthermore, this dissertation also added to the debates on outcomes of interpersonal conflict by highlighting the essential role of individuals' goal orientations in predicting the outcomes of interpersonal conflict.

The sixth contribution of this dissertation to the literature on interpersonal conflict is comprehensively investigating the antecedents, transformation, and outcomes of interpersonal conflict. According to Rahim (2002, 2011), the conflict has a cycle, starting from the causes of conflict, leading to the process of conflict, and then outcomes of conflict, which in turn promotes conflict. Accordingly, researchers (e.g., Rahim, 2002, 2011; Wall & Callister, 1995) called for a comprehensive study examining interpersonal conflict's causes, process (transformation), and outcomes. Based on three sequential studies, our dissertation presented a complete picture of the interpersonal conflict starting from the causes/antecedents of interpersonal conflict (i.e., downsizing and workload), then the process of conflict (i.e., the transformation of conflict), leading to the outcomes/effects of interpersonal conflict (i.e., innovative job performance).

3.3. Innovative Job Performance

This dissertation also contributes to the emerging area of innovative performance research by examining the distinct effects of downsizing and different types of interpersonal conflicts (e.g., task, process, and relationship conflicts) on it. Previous studies on downsizing and individual and firms' innovations have mixed results. Some researchers (e.g., Bommer & Jalajas, 1999) demonstrated the negative while others (e.g., Fernández-Menéndez et al., 2020) demonstrated the positive effects of downsizing on firms' innovations; however, according to Mellahi and Wilkinson (2006, 2010), downsizing has no significant impact on firms' innovation. Similarly, numerous researchers (e.g., Bommer & Jalajas, 1999; Burke & Nelson, 1997; Mellahi & Wilkinson, 2008; Tsai & Yen, 2018) argued that downsizing could adversely affect survivors' innovative behavior, subsequently reducing organizational innovations. To further add to this controversial debate, we used a sequential model based on three sub-studies to examine the downsizing effects on survivors' innovative performance. The results revealed that downsizing promotes interpersonal conflict among survivors. The cognitive conflicts transform into affective (dysfunctional) conflicts, and all the three types of interpersonal conflict negatively affect employees' innovative performance. Thus, our dissertation confirmed that employees' innovative performance is adversely affected by the downsizing due to the interpersonal conflict generated among survivors.

Moreover, by examining the link between different types of interpersonal conflict and employees' innovative performance, the current dissertation answered the calls of various researchers (e.g., De Clercq & Belausteguigoitia, 2020; O'Neill et al., 2013; Pitafi et al., 2020) for assessing the impact of interpersonal conflict's types on employees' performance outcomes (especially innovative performance). Our findings revealed that employees' innovative performance is adversely affected by each interpersonal conflict type (i.e., task, process, and relationship conflict).

The adverse effects of process and relationship conflicts found in this study are in line with previous studies (e.g., Jehn, 1995, 1997; Jehn & Mannix, 2001; DeChurch et al., 2013; Giebels et al., 2016; Shaukat et al., 2017; Rezvani et al., 2019; Pitafi et al., 2020) demonstrating the detrimental effects of process and relationship conflicts on performance outcomes. However, the negative association between task conflict and employees' innovative job performance results supports some studies (e.g., De Clercq et al., 2017; De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; Wall & Callister, 1995), demonstrating the detrimental effects of task conflict on employees' creativity. However, it contradicts the others, showing the positive impacts of task conflict on group performance and satisfaction (Huang, 2012; O'Neill et al., 2013), team decision quality (Flores et al., 2018), individual and team creativity (De Clercq et al., 2017; N. Hu et al., 2017; Pitafi et al., 2020), and task and contextual performance (Yousaf et al., 2020). Our findings suggest that a good interpersonal relationship is vital for employees' innovative job performance, helping them generate, promote, and implement their novel ideas. Since the interpersonal conflict damages employees' interpersonal work relationships; therefore, it adversely affects employees' innovative performance.

3.4. Contributions to the Theories

This dissertation also makes several significant contributions to different theories discussed below.

3.4.1. Stress process theory

This dissertation provided empirical evidence to the stress process model (Pearlin & Bierman, 2013), proposing that primary stressors lead to the proliferation of secondary stressors that generate deleterious outcomes (including interpersonal conflict). Our results confirmed that a primary stressor (downsizing) leads to a secondary stressor (workload) that, in turn, generates deleterious outcomes (interpersonal conflict). Moreover, our dissertation

also provided a situational perspective to the stress process model (Pearlin & Bierman, 2013) by explaining that various situational factors (such as organizational restructuring) could influence the transformation of primary stressors into secondary stressors and subsequently harmful effects. We found that downsizing, a macro-level primary stressor, leads to a secondary stressor (i.e., workload) that further promotes interpersonal conflict among employees. However, this transformation of downsizing into workload and interpersonal conflict is lower when organizations use a proactive downsizing strategy by accompanying the headcount reductions with restructuring. Accordingly, we propose that various individual and firms level factors could influence the transformation of tressors into employees' attitudinal and behavioral outcomes.

3.4.2. Downsizing and work redesign framework

By examining the moderating effect of organizational structuring on the downsizing and its outcomes (i.e., workload and interpersonal conflict) relationship, this dissertation provided empirical evidence for the downsizing and work redesign framework of Mishra and Spreitzer (1998). The downsizing and work redesign framework proposes that headcount reduction (downsizing) increases survivors' job stressors fostering their negative and fearful responses; however, work redesigning improves survivors' intrinsic job quality and enhances their active response toward downsizing. Our study results found that restructuring buffers the downsizing and workload relationship and the indirect relationship of downsizing and interpersonal conflict via workload, providing empirical evidence to the downsizing and work redesign framework of Mishra and Spreitzer (1998). Our findings propose that organizations can enhance survivors' intrinsic job quality and minimize the adverse effects of downsizing (i.e., workload and interpersonal conflict) by changing the organizational structure and work processes to align them according to the available workforce.

3.4.3. Affective event theory

By investigating the mediating role of negative emotions in the association among task, process, and relationship conflicts, the current dissertation provided empirical evidence to the affective event theory (AET) (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), proposing that various events in the workplace give rise to employees' emotional reactions, and these emotional experiences shape employees' attitudes and behaviors. Our study results revealed that negative emotions mediate the link between task and process conflicts and relationship conflict, confirming that task and process conflicts generate negative emotions that transform the task and process conflicts into relationship conflict.

Moreover, our findings also provided a contingency perspective to the affective event theory (AET) (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) by explaining that various contingency factors affect the transformation of work events into negative emotions and subsequently into negative attitudes and behavior. For example, cognitive conflict leads to negative emotions that further promote affective conflict; however, this transformation of the cognitive conflict into negative emotions and subsequently into affective conflict (i.e., relationship conflict) would be lower if employees are emotionally intelligent. Therefore, this dissertation confirmed that emotional intelligence is one of the essential contingency factors preventing the transformation of cognitive conflict into affective conflict via negative emotions.

3.4.4. Contingency perspective of conflict

There has been a considerable debate in the literature regarding the outcomes of interpersonal conflict. Some researchers (e.g., De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; Khosravi et al., 2020; Wall & Callister, 1995; Walton & Dutton, 1969) entirely discourage interpersonal conflict. They argue that too little conflict is as dysfunctional as too much conflict because conflict fosters negative emotions and damages employees' interpersonal relationships, adversely affecting employees' satisfaction, commitment, and performance. In contrast, other researchers (e.g.,

Jehn, 1997; Rahim, 2002, 2011) support a minimal level of interpersonal conflict (especially task conflict) in the workplace. They argue that a moderate level of task conflict stimulates discussion, generates alternatives, and improves decision-making, further enhancing organizational performance. They suggested that organizations should focus on conflict management rather than conflict termination. Similarly, some researchers (e.g., Jehn, 1994, 1997; Jehn & Mannix, 2001) argued that conflict outcomes depend upon conflict types (e.g., task, process, and relationship conflicts).

According to the contingency model of conflict (Jehn & Bendersky, 2003), conflict outcomes are not determined only by the types of conflict, but various contingency factors play an essential role in the conflict - outcomes relationship. Accordingly, numerous researchers (e.g., De Clercq & Belausteguigoitia, 2020; Giebels et al., 2016) called for examining the moderating effect of different contingency factors on the conflict-outcomes relationship. This study contributes to the contingency perspective of conflict by examining the moderating effect of the most-related and unexplored moderating variable, 'employees' goal orientation,' on the interpersonal conflict - innovative job performance relationship. Accordingly, the current study answered the call by De Clercq et al. (2017) for examining the moderating effect of employees' goal orientations on the interpersonal conflict - innovative job performance relationships. The findings revealed that mastery goal orientation decreases while performance goal orientation increases the adverse effects of interpersonal conflict on performance outcomes (i.e., employees' innovative job performance). Accordingly, we propose that it is not only the types of conflict that determine conflict outcomes but the various organizational, team, and individual level contingency factors (employees' goal orientations in our case) could affect the interpersonal conflict - outcomes relationship.

4. Practical Implications

The current dissertation examining the non-financial consequences of downsizing has numerous vital implications for the managers and HRM practitioners in a tense and delicate worldwide restructuring and downsizing situation. Our findings also have important implications for the fewer remaining employees -the survivors- whose performance post-downsizing is essential for the firm's survival and future competitive capabilities. Our dissertation (based on three studies) revealed that downsizing promotes different types of interpersonal conflict among survivors (i.e., task, process, and relationship conflicts) due to the increased workload post-downsizing. The task and process conflicts (cognitive conflicts) transform into relationship conflict (affective conflict) via individuals' negative emotions, and all three types of interpersonal conflicts adversely affect employees' innovative job performance. Moreover, restructuring minimizes survivors' workload, subsequently reducing the interpersonal conflict. Employees' emotional intelligence minimizes negative emotions during the interpersonal conflict, further hindering the transformation of cognitive conflict into affective conflict. Employees' mastery goal orientation reduces while performance goal orientation increases the adverse effects of interpersonal conflict on their innovative job performance. Thus, along with theoretical contributions, the current dissertation has some practical implications for the individual employees and managers, helping them avoid the adverse effects of downsizing. Our findings suggest ways for the managers that could help them improve the interpersonal relationship among survivors and enhance firms' performance in many ways.

4.1. Implications for Employees

Our dissertation has some important implications for individual employees. First, our findings revealed that a higher workload is one of the factors promoting interpersonal conflict among survivors post-downsizing. Therefore, our study suggests that survivors should

consider the workload as a challenge rather than perceiving it as a threat to their comfort zone. To better cope with the workload, survivors should cooperate with their colleagues, which would help them avoid interpersonal conflict and maintain a good interpersonal work relationships.

Second, our findings revealed that negative emotions transform the task and process conflicts into relationship conflicts. Therefore, we suggest that employees should control their negative emotions during the task-related discussion so that the cognitive conflict may not transform into the affective conflict. This would help them engage in productive discussions and debates without experiencing relationship conflict, which is more harmful to individual, group, and organizational level outcomes (e.g., Jehn & Mannix, 2001; DeChurch et al., 2013; Giebels et al., 2016; Shaukat et al., 2017; Rezvani et al., 2019; Pitafi et al., 2020). To do so, employees should consider their colleagues' criticisms and disagreements as positive feedback that could help them learn and develop, rather than consider it a personal attack or ego cost, which generates negative emotions and creates frictions in employees' interpersonal relationships. We suggest to employees that if you disagree with your colleagues' point of view or criticize their opinion, you should communicate according to their emotional state by using a proper tone of voice so that their negative emotions may not arise and a good interpersonal relationship could be maintained.

Third, we suggest that employees should focus on fostering their emotional intelligence. Individuals with high emotional intelligence understand and manage their own and others' emotions (Jordan & Lawrence, 2009; Wong & Law, 2002), and they can control their negative emotions (Khosravi et al., 2020; Kundi & Badar, 2021). Our findings also revealed that emotional intelligence helps minimize negative emotions during the task and process-related conflicts, subsequently reducing relationship conflict. Therefore, our study suggests that along with cognitive intelligence, employees should focus on improving their

emotional intelligence, which would help them control their negative emotions and effectively manage interpersonal conflict. They could do so by attending emotional intelligence training (Kundi & Badar, 2021; Rezvani et al., 2019).

Fourth, our findings revealed that employees' mastery goal orientation reduces while performance goal orientation increases the adverse effects of interpersonal conflict on employees' innovative performance. Therefore, this dissertation suggests that employees should change their goal orientation from performance goal orientation to learning/mastery goal orientation to minimize the adverse effects of interpersonal conflict on their innovative performance. To do so, they should focus on learning new things, mastering new skills and knowledge, and enjoying their job, rather than outperforming others to receive extrinsic rewards and appreciation. They should set their goals where learning is the ultimate objective, not beating others. By doing so, a cooperative work environment would be developed that would improve employees' interpersonal relationships and help them enhance their innovative performance.

4.2. Implications for Managers

Our dissertation offers the following practical implications for organizations' managers, helping them avoid the ill effects of downsizing.

4.2.1. Choosing alternatives to downsizing

This dissertation helps managers understand the adverse effects of downsizing on non-financial outcomes such as survivors' workload, interpersonal conflict, negative emotions, and employees' innovative performance that could further affect firms' operational and financial performance. Prior research (e.g., Mujtaba & Senathip, 2020; Hammond et al., 2019; Dlouhy & Casper, 2021; Ashman, 2016; Frone & Blais, 2020) demonstrated that downsizing could adversely affect the individual, group, and organizational level outcomes.

Similarly, our three sequential studies' results also revealed that downsizing promotes adverse outcomes by increasing survivors' workload, interpersonal conflict, and negative emotions and decreasing employees' innovative performance. Therefore, this dissertation suggests that while reducing the organizational workforce to decrease costs, HR managers should consider memory and knowledge loss. They should choose alternatives to layoff for cost reduction to avoid the damaging effects of downsizing on survivors and firms' operational and financial performance. If no alternative is feasible, then managers should carefully implement the downsizing strategy by considering its potentially adverse effects on survivors, such as increased workload, interpersonal conflict, negative emotions, and low innovative performance.

Our findings highlighted the essential mediating role of survivors' workload in the downsizing - interpersonal conflict relationship helping managers understand why downsizing leads to interpersonal conflict and which type of interpersonal conflict is exacerbated due to downsizing. Accordingly, our findings suggest that managers should manage survivors' job demands according to their capabilities to minimize interpersonal conflict. This dissertation suggests that managers should arrange mental health training and employee assistance programs after downsizing to better cope with the survivors who experience stress and psychological pressure (Frone & Blais, 2020).

4.2.2. Minimizing the adverse effects of downsizing through restructuring

The findings of this study could help managers minimize the negative consequences of downsizing. Prior studies (e.g., Kets De Vries & Balazs, 1996, 1997; Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998; Rondeau & Wagar, 2003; Wagar, 2009) demonstrated that headcount reduction promotes adverse outcomes; however, restructuring accompanying the downsizing could reduce the negative consequences of downsizing. Similarly, our findings revealed that restructuring minimizes survivors' workload and interpersonal conflict by negatively

moderating the relationship of downsizing with workload and interpersonal conflict. Therefore, the current study suggests that, along with headcount reduction, managers should change their organizational structure and work processes to align them with the available workforce to minimize the adverse effects of downsizing (i.e., survivors' workload and interpersonal conflict). During the downsizing strategy formulation, HR managers should follow the change management practices to align the new structure and work processes better according to the available workforce post-downsizing. By doing so, survivors' workload could be minimized, further reducing the interpersonal conflict, which is detrimental to the survivors' innovative performance.

According to the downsizing and work redesign framework (Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998), redesigning that enriches survivors' jobs in the downsizing context could help organizations better cope with the downsizing and achieve active survivors' response. Similarly, Frone and Blais (2020) suggested that managers should focus on survivors' job crafting by shaping their tasks and relational boundaries to reduce survivors' exposure to the adverse working conditions post-downsizing, which would help in reducing the damaging effects of downsizing on survivors. Accordingly, our findings suggest that managers should accompany headcount reduction with restructuring by bringing changes in the organizational structure and work processes, enriching survivors' jobs, giving them more authority and resources, and clarifying their tasks and relational boundaries. By doing so, organizations would gain active survivors' response that would enable them to better cope with the downsizing. If survivors are given more autonomy, authority and resources, they would positively react towards the downsizing (Harney et al., 2018) and would perceive higher workload as a challenge rather than a threat, which would reduce the adverse effects of downsizing.

4.2.3. Fostering employees' emotional intelligence

Prior research demonstrated the positive effects of emotional intelligence on individual, group, and organizational outcomes, including job performance, job satisfaction, organizational commitment (Wong & Law, 2002), team performance (Jamshed & Majeed, 2019), quality of decision making (Santos et al., 2018), and project performance (Khosravi et al., 2020). Moreover, Khosravi et al. (2020) demonstrated that emotional intelligence prevents task, process, and relationship conflicts from arising. Kundi and Badar (2021) found that EI buffers the relationship between interpersonal conflict and counterproductive work behavior. Similarly, our findings revealed that emotional intelligence prevents task and process conflicts from transforming into relationship conflict by minimizing the negative emotions during interpersonal conflict. Our study highlighted the importance of emotional intelligence, especially in conflict management, explaining that emotional intelligence help employees effectively manage interpersonal conflict. Therefore, our findings suggest that along with cognitive intelligence, HR managers should consider emotional intelligence a prerequisite for hiring, promoting, and training employees. Employees with high emotional intelligence better deal with their own and colleagues' emotions, and they can better manage their interpersonal relationships. Therefore, we suggest that managers should provide employees with emotional intelligence training to enhance their emotional intelligence (Kundi & Badar, 2021; Rezvani et al., 2019).

4.2.4. Managing employees' interpersonal conflict

Our findings revealed that cognitive conflict (task and process conflicts) becomes affective (relationship conflict) via negative emotions. These findings could help managers prevent the transformation of the cognitive conflict into affective conflict, helping them engage employees in constructive debate and discussion without experiencing relationship conflict. Managers should discourage the escalation of task and process conflicts into relationship

conflict (Greer et al., 2008; Jimmieson et al., 2017) by playing a moderating role during task-related discussions and disagreements among employees. They should intervene if there are any unpleasant exchanges among employees that could generate negative emotions and damage their interpersonal relationships. Moreover, the results revealed that all three types of interpersonal conflict adversely affect employees' innovative job performance. Therefore, this study suggests that managers should resolve each kind of interpersonal conflict among employees at an early stage to avoid their adverse effects on employees' innovative performance.

Moreover, previous research (e.g., Karlsson et al., 2021; Turner, 2009) has encouraged diversity in the workplace, demonstrating that team diversity (gender, age, skills, and education diversity) promotes individual, team, and firms' innovative performance (Martinez et al., 2017; Østergaard et al., 2011; Turner, 2009). However, diversity promotes interpersonal conflict (Jehn, 1994; Jehn et al., 1999; Martinez et al., 2017; Zouaghi et al., 2020), and interpersonal conflict adversely affects employees' innovative performance. Therefore, we suggest that managers should focus not only on promoting diversity in the workplace but also on managing interpersonal conflict among employees. Managers can gain the benefits of diversity and decrease its detrimental effects on innovative performance by effectively managing employees' interpersonal conflict and providing negotiation and conflict resolution training to their employees (Martinez et al., 2017; Zouaghi et al., 2020).

4.2.5. Focusing on employees' goal orientations

This dissertation helps managers understand the impact of employees' goal orientations on their innovative performance during the interpersonal conflict. Our study results highlighted that employees' mastery goal orientation decreases while performance goal orientation increases the adverse effects of interpersonal conflict on employees' innovative job performance. These findings offer practical insights into the importance of employees' goal

orientation (especially mastery goal orientation) for the organizations during employees' recruitment, training, and designing employees' appraisal systems. Huang (2012) suggested that the HR managers should use employees' goal orientation as a criterion for employees' selection in their efforts to increase innovative performance. De Clercq et al. (2017) also demonstrated that organizations should recruit employees having a natural disposition toward learning. Accordingly, our findings suggest that managers should recruit employees having mastery goal orientation (learning-oriented) rather than performance orientation (competition-oriented). Moreover, organizations should enhance their employees' mastery goal orientation by providing them training and by developing an appraisal system that encourages and rewards employees for new learning and innovative performance, rather than in-role-job performance. Doing so would help the organizations maintain good interpersonal relationships among employees and promote a knowledge-sharing culture that would enhance employees' innovative performance.

5. Limitations and Future Research

Like all other studies, there are a few limitations of the studies presented in this dissertation that could influence the results' interpretations. They are listed below.

i. We employed a cross-sectional design to test our studies model. According to researchers (e.g., De Clercq & Belausteguigoitia, 2020), the cross-sectional design creates concerns for potential reverse causality and limits the ability to make causal assertions about the relationship between independent and dependent variables (Dlouhy & Casper, 2021; Giebels et al., 2016; Spagnoli & Balducci, 2017). Although our arguments regarding the directionality of the relationship between independent and dependent variables in our three studies are driven by more theoretical and empirical perspectives and identified based on prior research findings, the reciprocal or reversed associations are still possible. For example,

in our second study, we have examined the transformation of task and process conflicts into relationship conflicts. According to Choi and Cho (2011), the relationship conflict could also promote task and process conflicts. Moreover, we examined the effects of interpersonal conflict on innovative job performance in our third study. However, according to Khazanchi and Masterson (2011), promoting creative ideas may generate potential conflict; therefore, interpersonal conflict and employees' innovative job performance relationship could be susceptible to reverse causality (De Clercq et al., 2017). However, we did not investigate the reciprocal nature of these processes. Future researchers should examine the possible reverse causality among different variables of the studied models. Moreover, we have used mediating models in our first two studies. According to Pearlin and Bierman (2013), longitudinal data could better explain the mediating mechanisms and conclude causality. Therefore, we suggest that future studies should utilize a longitudinal (three or more waves of data) or experimental design, which could better investigate the mediating mechanisms and explain the lines of causality (Huang, 2012).

ii. Our studies are solely based on self-reported measures. According to researchers (e.g., Dlouhy & Casper, 2021; Giebels et al., 2016), self-reporting raises concerns about potential common method bias (CMB), contaminating study findings. There are several indications that CMB might be minimalized in our results. First, the constructs, such as workload, interpersonal conflict, negative emotions, emotional intelligence, and employees' goal orientation, are difficult and inappropriate to assess with other than self-reporting measures. The individuals themselves can know better about their negative emotions, emotional intelligence, their goal orientations, and they could better explain the workload they feel and the interpersonal conflict they face. According to Mayer et al. (1999), self-reporting is a better way to measure individuals' emotional intelligence. Accordingly, the majority of the studies on emotional intelligence (e.g., Law et al., 2004; Jordan & Troth,

2004; Jordan & Lawrence, 2009; Kundi & Badar, 2021) have used and suggested self-reported measures for emotional intelligence. Similarly, studies on negative emotions (e.g., Desivilya & Yagil, 2005; Diener et al., 1995; Rispens, 2012; Smits et al., 2002; Watson et al., 1988), workload (e.g., Wall et al., 1995, 1996), and interpersonal conflict (e.g., Curşeu et al., 2012; Jehn et al., 1999; Khosravi et al., 2020; Kundi & Badar, 2021) have also used self-reported measures to assess negative emotions, workload, and interpersonal conflict variables. Therefore, self-reporting seems to be appropriate to measure our study constructs. Second, we followed all the procedural guidelines and employed the statistical remedies (i.e., Harman's single-factor test and Marker variable technique) to deal with the plausible CMB. We found that common method bias was not an issue for our results. Still, future researchers should not rely on data from a single source; instead, they should create a temporal separation of measurements or use different response options to measure the predictor and outcome variables to minimize the risk of common method bias (Huang, 2012).

iii. The third limitation of our study is the extent to which our results could be generalized to other cultural contexts. We collected the data for this dissertation from the business professionals working in different organizations located in a developing Asian country (i.e., Pakistan), having unique cultural, economic, and institutional mechanisms. The country's economic conditions influence organizations' strategies of downsizing and restructuring (Hussain et al., 2014). Moreover, Pakistani culture could be characterized by collectivism, which is the dominant cultural value of eastern countries (Hu et al., 2017; Huang, 2012). Individuals of such cultures differently approach others during the interpersonal relationship, affecting their interpersonal conflict (Hu et al., 2017; Huang, 2012) and its outcomes (Kundi & Badar, 2021; Shaukat et al., 2017; Yousaf et al., 2020). Although our findings were consistent with our theory-based predictions, we still do not know if these findings could be generalized to other cultures. Therefore, it would be

interesting to test these models in different cultural contexts to confirm whether similar results could be achieved in western cultures or in different geographical settings.

iv. We have measured downsizing and restructuring with the data collected from survivors through self-reported measures. Although, the majority of the prior researchers have also measured downsizing with the self-reported measure (i.e., binary questions) (e.g., Frone & Blais, 2020; Harney et al., 2018; Dlouhy & Casper, 2021). Some researchers (e.g., Rondeau & Wagar, 2003) assessed it by asking respondents about the size of the workforce reduced. However, downsizing and restructuring are macro/organizational level variables (Frone & Blais, 2020). Therefore, to have a clear picture of downsizing and restructuring and know exactly about the number of employees laid-off and the changes brought by the organization, we suggest that future researchers should assess downsizing and restructuring with the data collected from the management of the organizations or companies reports.

v. We examined only the horizontal conflict (conflict among employees of the same level) by investigating its antecedents, transformation, and outcomes. However, downsizing could promote interdepartmental/inter-group conflict (generated among different departments due to competition for limited resources) (Cyert & March, 1963) and vertical conflict (between managers and subordinates) (Ashman, 2016). Therefore, future researchers should conduct a comprehensive study on the vertical conflict to examine how and when downsizing leads to conflict between managers and subordinates, how and when different types of vertical conflicts transform from one form into another, and how vertical conflict affects various outcomes, including innovative performance.

vi. Innovative job performance consists of three stages: ideas generation, ideas promotion, and ideas realization; however, we have used innovative job performance as a single variable to examine the impact of interpersonal conflict on it. Our findings revealed a

negative association between task, process, and relationship conflicts and innovative job performance. However, some researchers (e.g., Giebels et al., 2016; Hu et al., 2017; Pitafi et al., 2020) have found the positive effects of task conflict on employees' innovative work behavior and team and individual creativity. According to O'Neill et al. (2013), task conflict may only relate to some dimensions of innovation. Therefore, we suggest that future researchers should investigate the impact of interpersonal conflict types on different stages of innovative job performance (i.e., ideas generation, ideas promotion, and ideas realization).

vii. The majority of prior researchers (e.g., Jehn & Mannix, 2001; DeChurch et al., 2013; Shaukat et al., 2017; Rezvani et al., 2019) demonstrated the positive effects of task conflict on individual, group, and organizational level outcomes. Some researchers (e.g., Giebels et al., 2016; Hu et al., 2017; Pitafi et al., 2020) even found a positive association between task conflict and employees' innovative work behavior, team creativity, and individual creativity that are closely related to the innovative performance. However, our findings revealed a negative link between task conflict and innovative job performance. One of the reasons for the negative association between task conflict and innovative job performance could be the data that has been collected from employees (survivors) of the downsized organizations. According to literature (Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998; Spagnoli & Balducci, 2017; Mujtaba & Senathip, 2020; Dlouhy & Casper, 2021), downsizing fosters survivors' fearful and negative responses due to stress, negative emotions, workload, and role ambiguity after downsizing. Such stressful work conditions could generate interpersonal conflict among survivors (Pearlin & Bierman, 2013; Frone & Blais, 2020), further decreasing their performance, including innovative job performance. Accordingly, we propose that employees in the downsized firms may react differently during the interpersonal conflict due to the stressful work conditions, affecting their interpersonal relationships and innovative performance. Therefore, we suggest that future researchers should collect data from

employees of other organizations to examine the link between different types of interpersonal conflict and innovative performance, especially between task conflict and innovative performance.

viii. Numerous researchers (e.g., Martinez et al., 2017; Østergaard et al., 2011; Turner, 2009; Zouaghi et al., 2020) demonstrated that diversity (gender, age, skills, and education diversity) could enhance innovative performance; however, according to Martinez et al. (2017), too much heterogeneity could be detrimental to innovation performance. Since diversity fosters interpersonal conflict (Jehn, 1994; Jehn et al., 1999; Martinez et al., 2017; Zouaghi et al., 2020), and our study results revealed that interpersonal conflict adversely affects employees' innovative performance. Therefore, diversity could play an essential role in interpersonal conflict and innovative performance relationships. Since we could not examine the critical role of diversity in interpersonal conflict and innovative performance relationships because we did not have team-level data. Therefore, we suggest that future studies on interpersonal conflict and innovative performance should also consider the critical role of diversity, specifically to examine the mediating role of interpersonal conflict in the diversity and innovative performance relationship.

6. Conclusion

Our research examines the adverse effects of downsizing on survivors' outcomes and suggests ways to minimize those damaging effects of the downsizing. More specifically, our dissertation sheds new light on how and when downsizing affects survivors' innovative performance with a critical role of the interpersonal conflict. Based on three sequential sub-studies, our dissertation examines how and when downsizing promotes interpersonal conflict among survivors, how and when cognitive conflicts transform into affective conflict, and how and when different types of interpersonal conflict affect employees' innovative job

performance. Our findings revealed that downsizing promotes interpersonal conflicts (task, process, and relationship conflicts) among survivors due to higher workload, and restructuring minimizes survivors' workload, subsequently reducing interpersonal conflict. The task and process conflicts lead to relationship conflict through negative emotions. Employees' emotional intelligence minimizes their negative emotions during task and process conflicts, subsequently reducing the relationship conflict. Moreover, each type of interpersonal conflict (task, process, and relationship conflict) negatively affects employees' innovative job performance. However, employees' mastery goal orientation decreases while performance goal orientation increases the adverse effects of interpersonal conflict on their innovative performance. Thus, based on three sequential sub-studies, our dissertation highlighted the critical underlying mechanisms such as survivors' workload, interpersonal conflict, and negative emotions that could increase the adverse effects of downsizing on survivors' innovative performance. Moreover, our dissertation highlighted the individual and organizational level contingency factors (e.g., restructuring, emotional intelligence, and employees' goal orientations) that could decrease or increase the adverse effects of downsizing on performance outcomes, especially innovative performance. Accordingly, we suggested various techniques for reducing the negative consequences of downsizing. We hope that future studies will continue to advance our understanding of the factors that could influence the downsizing's outcomes.

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Appendices

1. Appendix A

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
DS1						.789
DS2						.736
DS3						.889
RS1	.739					
RS2	.820					
RS3	.863					
RS4	.760					
RS5	.790					
RS6	.718					
WL1		.776				
WL2		.857				
WL3		.790				
WL4		.773				
WL6		.710				
TC1				.807		
TC2				.839		
TC3				.805		
PC1			.806			
PC2			.865			
PC3			.808			
RC1					.802	
RC2					.798	
RC3					.790	

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.[a]

a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

(DS: Downsizing, RS: Restructuring, WL: Workload, TC: Task Conflict, PC: Process Conflict, RC: Relationship Conflict)

2. Appendix B1

Factor Loadings of Paper 2 Variables

	Component				
	Task_Conflict	Process_Conflict	Relationship_Conflict	Negative_Emotions	Emotional_Intelligence
RC1			.835		
RC2			.809		
RC3			.701		
TC1	.872				
TC2	.869				
TC3	.745				
PC1		.829			
PC2		.875			
PC3		.869			
NE1				.729	
NE2				.710	
NE3				.709	
NE4				.685	
NE5				.761	
TE6				.784	
NE7				.763	
NE8				.753	
EI1					.695
EI2					.711
EI3					.745
EI4					.644
EI5					.679
EI6					.647
EI7					.725
EI8					.712
EI9					.762
EI10					.775
EI11					.788
EI12					.774
EI13					.779
EI14					.798
EI15					.781
EI16					.781

Standardized Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default model)

(RC: Relationship Conflict, TC: Task Conflict, PC: Process Conflict, NE: Negative Emotions, EI: Emotional Intelligence)

3. Appendix B2

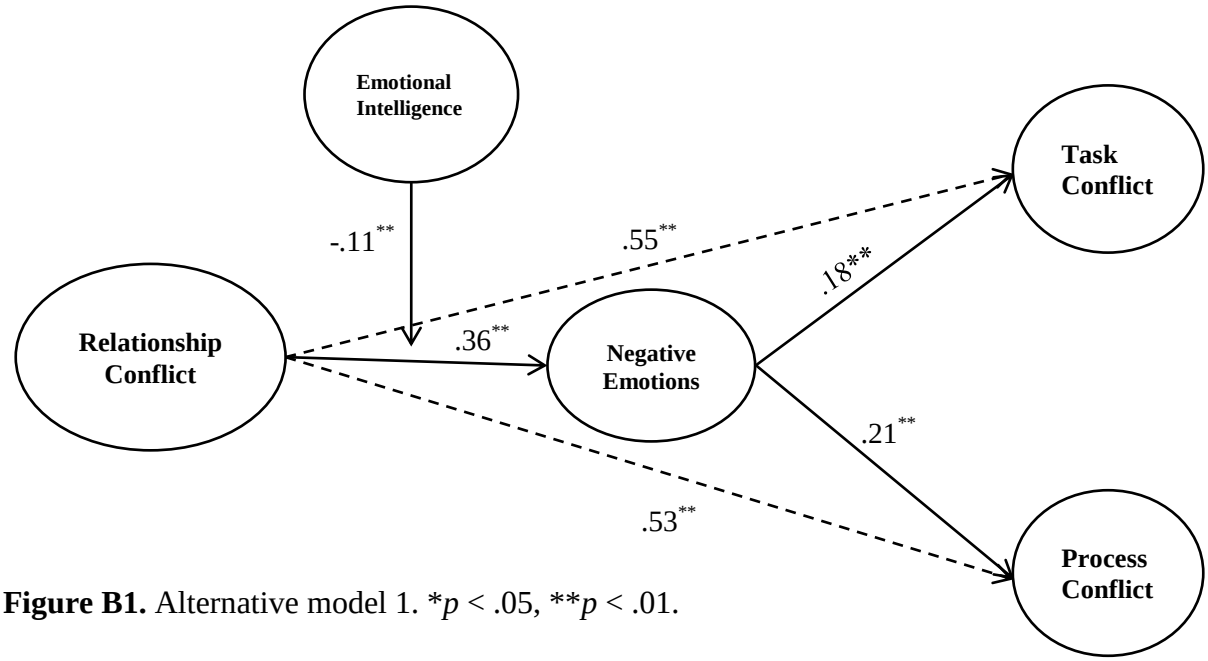

Figure B1. Alternative model 1. *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$.

4. Appendix B3

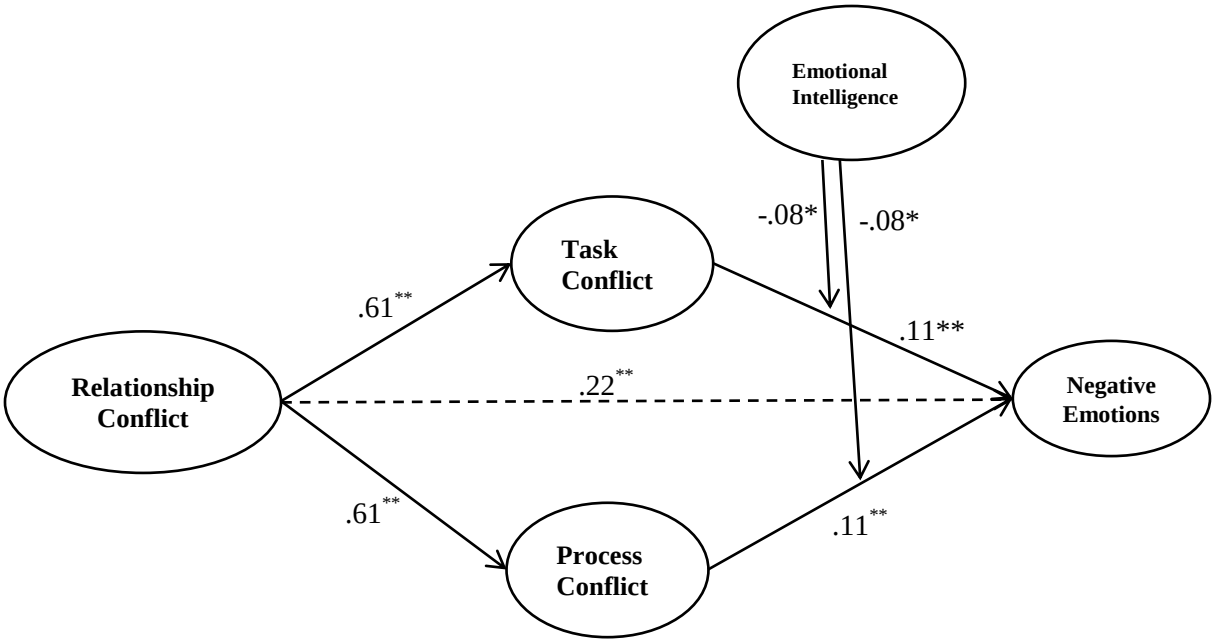

Figure B2. Alternative model 2. *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$.

5. Appendix C

Factor Loadings of Paper 3 Variables

	Component					
	RC	TC	PC	IP	MO	PO
TC1		.858				
TC2		.867				
TC3		.737				
PC1			.828			
PC2			.883			
PC3			..859			
RC1	.846					
RC2	.796					
RC3	.707					
IP1				.740		
IP2				.787		
IP3				.767		
IP4				.807		
IP5				.730		
IP6				.728		
IP7				.766		
IP8				.796		
IP9				.732		
MO1					.845	
MO2					.887	
MO3					.905	
MO4					.826	
MO5					.824	
PO1						.760
PO2						.749
PO3						.832
PO4						.833
PO5						.780

Standardized Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default model)

(TC: Task Conflict, PC: Process Conflict, RC: Relationship Conflict, IP: Innovative Job Performance, MO: Mastery Goal Orientation, PO: Performance Goal Orientation)

6. Appendix D: Questionnnaire

Dear Respondent,

I am a Ph.D. Scholar at IAE Paris, Sorbonne Graduate Business School, University Paris-1 Pantheon Sorbonne, France. My Ph.D. research aims to investigate the effects of downsizing on various outcomes, which would help employees and managers minimize the adverse and maximize the beneficial effects of downsizing. Your participation in completing the following survey will greatly assist me in my research. Please note that participation in this study is voluntary, and all responses will be kept confidential and anonymous. Moreover, there are no right or wrong answers to the questions.

A summary of the results will be sent to all the participants at the completion of this research project, which might help them better manage the downsizing effects.

Thank you in advance for your kind response and cooperation.

If you have any questions, please feel free to contact me.

Best Regards,
Rahman Ullah,

IAE Paris-1, Sorbonne Graduate Business School Paris, France
Email; rahman.ims25@gmail.com
Rahman.Ullah@etu.univ-paris1.fr

Gender: ○Male ○Female **Marital Status:** ○ Single ○ Married ○Divorced

Age: ○Below 25 ○25-35 ○36-45 ○46-55 ○56-65 ○Above 65

Qualification:○Matric ○Bachelors ○Masters ○ Doctorate ○Other…….

Professional Experience: ○Less than 5 years ○5-10 years ○11-15 years ○15+ years

Type of Industry ○Manufacturing ○Service **Name of Organization:** …….

Department: ……..…… **Designation:** ……..……...

Number of employees in your team: …… **Are you Manager of your team**: Yes○ No○

Number of employees in your organization:○Below 100 ○100-500 ○500-1000 ○1000+

Indicate the degree to which you agree with the following statements related to the conditions that exist for you at work.		**Strongly Disagree**						**Strongly Agree**
1	I have to work fast	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I have too much work to do	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I have to work very hard to finish a task	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	I have deadlines' pressure for tasks completion	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	I can't do my work in comfort	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	I have problems with the workload	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Indicate the degree to which the following conditions exist for you at work.		**None**						**A lot**
1	I have relationship tension with my group members	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I often get angry while working with my group members	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I have emotional conflict with my group members	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	I have conflict of ideas/opinions with my group members	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	I often have disagreements with my group members about the tasks we are working on	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	I often have conflicting opinions with my group members about the project we are working on	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	I often have disagreements with my group members about "who should do what" in our workgroup	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

8	I have conflict with my group members about task responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	I often disagree with my group members about resource distribution	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Indicate the degree to which you agree with the following statements.		**Strongly Disagree**						**Strongly Agree**
I feel most successful in my job...								
1	When I perform better than my colleagues	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	When I can clearly demonstrate that I am the best qualified person	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	When I accomplish something where others failed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	When I am the only one who knows about particular things or who has a particular skill	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	When I am clearly the most productive employee	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	When I feel I am improving	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	When I acquire new knowledge or master a new skill which was difficult for me in the past	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	When I learn something that motivates me to continue	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	When I learn something new that is fun to do	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	When I do my very best	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Indicate how often you experience the following emotions during a discussion with your group members?		**Never**						**Always**
1	Fear	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Nervous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Anger	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Irritation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Embarrassment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Guilt	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Sadness	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	Loneliness	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	Love	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	Caring	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	Joy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	Happiness	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Indicate the degree to which you agree with the following statements.		**Strongly Disagree**						**Strongly Agree**
1	I can explain the emotions I feel, to my team members	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I can discuss the emotions I feel, with other team members	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	If I feel down, I can tell my team members what will make me feel better	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	I can talk to other team members about the emotions I experience	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	I respect the opinion of other team members, even if I think they are wrong	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	When I am frustrated with my team members, I can overcome my frustration	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	When deciding on a dispute, I try to see all sides of the disagreement before I come to a conclusion	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	I give a fair hearing to the ideas of fellow team members	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	I can read fellow team members' 'true' feelings, even if they try to hide them	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	I am able to describe accurately the way other team members are feeling	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	When I talk to other members of the team, I can gauge their true feelings from their body language	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	I can tell my team members when they don't mean what they say	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	My enthusiasm can be motivator for other team members	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	I am able to cheer my team members up when they are feeling down	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	I can get fellow team members to share my keenness for a project	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	I can provide the 'spark' to get fellow team members enthusiastic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
How often do you perform the following work activities at the workplace?		**Never**						**Always**
1	I create new ideas for difficult issues	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I search out new working methods, techniques, or instruments	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I generate original solutions for problems	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	I mobilize support for innovative ideas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	I acquire approval for innovative ideas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	I make important organizational members enthusiastic for innovative ideas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	I transform innovative ideas into useful applications	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	I introduce innovative ideas into the work environment in a systematic way	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	I evaluate the utility of innovative ideas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Indicate the extent to which the following activities have been performed by your organization in the last two years.		**Very Low**						**Very High**
1	Laid-off (removed) employees	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Hired new employees	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Hired new employees in your department	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Encouraged employees for early retirement	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Is your organization growing?	Yes			or	No		
7	Did your organization downsize/lay off employees in the last few years?	Yes			or	No		
8	Did your organization inform employees before lay-off?	Yes			or	No		
9	Did your organization downsize to align the workforce with organizational requirements?	Yes			or	No		
10	Did your organization lay off employees due to organizational decline?	Yes			or	No		
To what extent the following activities have been performed by your organization in the last two years?		**Very Low**						**Very High**
1	Changed the organizational structure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Eliminated unnecessary tasks	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Changed the work-processes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Combined different departments/units	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Increased the use of new technology	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Employees' rotation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Employees' training	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	Did your organization redesign its structure & processes after employees' downsizing?	Yes			or	No		

Thank you once again for your time and kind response. ☺

Institut d'Administration des Entreprises de Paris

École doctorale de Management Panthéon-Sorbonne - ED 559
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Les suppressions d'emplois conduisent-elles toujours à une diminution de la capacité d'innovation des survivants?

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Résumé

L'objectif de cette thèse est de répondre à la question de recherche suivante : comment et quand la réduction des effectifs affecte-t-elle la performance des survivants en matière d'innovation ? En détail, nous avons divisé la présente thèse en trois sous-études séquentielles. La première étude examine comment et quand la réduction des effectifs entraîne différents types de conflits interpersonnels (p. ex. conflits de tâches, de processus et de relations) entre les survivants en examinant le rôle médiateur de la charge de travail et l'effet modérateur de la restructuration organisationnelle. La deuxième étude examine comment et quand les conflits cognitifs (par exemple, les conflits de tâches et de processus) se transforment en conflits affectifs (conflits relationnels) en détaillant le rôle médiateur des émotions négatives et l'effet modérateur de l'intelligence émotionnelle. La troisième étude examine comment les conflits interpersonnels affectent la performance innovatrice des survivants en examinant l'effet modérateur des orientations de but (orientation de but de maîtrise et orientation de but de performance) sur la relation entre les conflits de tâche, de processus et de relation et la performance des survivants en matière d'innovation.

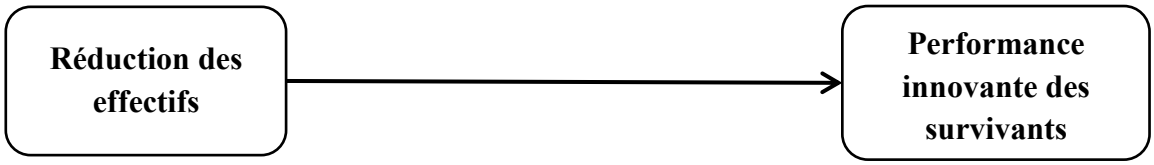
De nombreux chercheurs (e.g., Cameron et al., 1987; Love & Nohria, 2005; Maramba, 2017) ont démontré que la réduction des effectifs pouvait affecter l'innovation organisationnelle. La réduction des effectifs et l'innovation sont les pratiques managériales visant la survie, la croissance et la compétitivité des entreprises. (Niesen et al., 2018; Van Hootegem et al., 2019). Cependant, dans l'ensemble, la littérature montre que la réduction des effectifs a un effet négatif sur la propension à innover des employés. (Bommer & Jalajas, 1999) et l'innovation organisationnelle (Mellahi & Wilkinson, 2008). Par conséquent, l'importance d'étudier le lien

entre la réduction des effectifs et l'innovation des entreprises a augmenté, attirant les chercheurs en gestion. Cependant, la question de savoir si et comment la réduction des effectifs affecte l'innovation reste insuffisamment traitée par la littérature. (Maramba, 2017; Mellahi & Wilkinson, 2008; Ramdani et al., 2021). Les études sur la réduction des effectifs et l'innovation dans les entreprises donnent des résultats mitigés. Par conséquent, afin de clarifier davantage la situation, de nombreux chercheurs (e.g., Fernández-Menéndez et al., 2020; Maramba, 2017; Ramdani et al., 2021) ont demandé que des études soient menées pour déterminer comment et quand la réduction des effectifs affecte l'innovation des entreprises ou la performance des employés en matière d'innovation.

En outre, l'innovation organisationnelle est le produit d'innovations au niveau individuel basées sur le comportement de travail innovant des individus ou la performance professionnelle innovante. (Bommer & Jalajas, 1999; Niesen et al., 2018; Tsai & Yen, 2018; Van Hootegem et al., 2019). Par conséquent, pour comprendre l'impact de la réduction des effectifs sur l'innovation organisationnelle, il est essentiel de comprendre les effets de la réduction des effectifs sur les performances innovantes des individus. (Bommer & Jalajas, 1999; Tsai & Yen, 2018; Van Hootegem et al., 2019). Les recherches antérieures (e.g., Love & Nohria, 2005; Mellahi & Wilkinson, 2006, 2008, 2010; Ramdani et al., 2021) se sont principalement concentrées sur l'étude du lien entre la réduction des effectifs et l'innovation organisationnelle ; cependant, les recherches examinant empiriquement l'association entre la réduction des effectifs et la performance professionnelle innovante des employés sont rares, et, selon les chercheurs (e.g., Marques et al., 2014; Tsai & Yen, 2018) doivent être approfondies. Par conséquent, pour confirmer si la réduction des effectifs affecte la performance innovante des survivants, nous

avons d'abord examiné le lien entre la réduction des effectifs et la performance professionnelle innovante des survivants.

Figure 1



Nous avons effectué une analyse de régression simple à l'aide de SPSS v.25, et les résultats (voir tableau 1) ont révélé que la réduction des effectifs était négativement liée à la performance innovante des survivants ($\beta = .135$, $p < .001$). Nos résultats confirment donc que la réduction des effectifs a un effet négatif sur la performance innovante des survivants.

Tableau 1

Résultats de l'analyse de régression pour la réduction des effectifs et la performance des emplois innovants

	Performance professionnelle innovante	
	B	SE
Réduction des effectifs	-.135**	.036
R^2	.029**	
R ajusté^2	.027**	

Note (s) : n =462 ; **p<0,01
SE = erreur standard ; β= coefficients bêta non standardisés

En outre, la réduction des effectifs affecte la performance innovante des employés par un mécanisme de médiation approprié. (Marques et al., 2014). Par conséquent, de nombreux chercheurs (e.g., Marques et al., 2014; Mellahi and Wilkinson, 2008, 2010; Ramdani et al., 2021) ont appelé à examiner les mécanismes sous-jacents expliquant la relation entre la réduction des effectifs et l'innovation des entreprises ou la performance innovante des employés. La majorité des recherches précédentes (e.g., Love & Nohria, 2005; Mellahi & Wilkinson, 2006, 2008, 2010;

Ramdani et al., 2021) sur l'association entre la réduction des effectifs et l'innovation a examiné le rôle de la marge de manœuvre organisationnelle. De même, certains chercheurs ont souligné l'importance de facteurs au niveau individuel, comme l'insécurité de l'emploi des survivants (Burke & Nelson, 1997) la charge de travail élevée, le manque de personnel qualifié, le manque de moral et d'enthousiasme des employés pour l'innovation, l'aversion au risque (Maramba, 2017; Mellahi & Wilkinson, 2008) et l'engagement organisationnel (Marques et al., 2014). Cependant, nous n'avons pas pu trouver d'études examinant le rôle des facteurs relationnels (en particulier le conflit interpersonnel) dans la relation entre la réduction des effectifs et la performance innovante des survivants.

De nombreux chercheurs (e.g., Freeman, 1994; Kets De Vries & Balazs, 1996; Pitelis, 2007; Ashman, 2016; Frone & Blais, 2020; Hammond et al., 2019) ont affirmé que la réduction des effectifs pouvait favoriser les conflits interpersonnels entre différents individus. De même, les chercheurs (e.g., De Clercq et al., 2017; De Clercq & Belausteguigoitia, 2020; Hu et al., 2017; Pitafi et al., 2020) ont démontré que les conflits interpersonnels affectent négativement la créativité et les performances d'innovation des employés. Par conséquent, nous avons proposé que le conflit interpersonnel puisse être l'un des facteurs d'influence potentiels sur la performance innovante des survivants après une réduction des effectifs. La recherche a identifié trois types de conflits interpersonnels : les conflits de tâches, de processus et de relations. (Jehn, 1995; Jehn & Mannix, 2001; Greer et al., 2008). Il n'existe pas de recherche sur le rôle critique des types de conflits interpersonnels (conflit de tâche, de processus et de relation) dans la relation entre la réduction des effectifs et la performance innovante des survivants. Par conséquent, pour confirmer si le conflit interpersonnel peut expliquer l'association entre la réduction des effectifs et le rendement novateur des survivants, nous avons examiné le rôle médiateur du conflit

interpersonnel (conflits de tâche, de processus et de relation) dans la relation entre la réduction des effectifs et le rendement novateur des survivants.

Figure 2

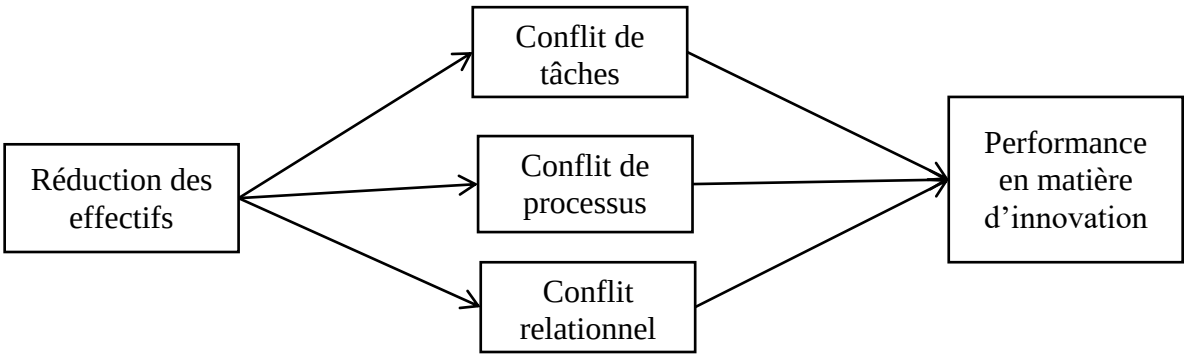


Tableau 2
Résultats de la médiation (macro-modèle de processus 4)

	Conflit de tâches		**Conflit de processus**		**Conflit relationnel**		**Performance innovante**	
Prédicteur	**B**	**SE**	**B**	**SE**	**B**	**SE**	**B**	**SE**
Réduction des effectifs	.23**	.045	.234**	.046	.22**	.038	-.081*	.036
Conflit de tâches							-.232**	.036
Conflit de processus							-.242**	.035
Conflit relationnel							-.210**	.043

	Bootstrapping		**IC À 95**	
Chemins indirects	***B***	**SE**	**LLCI**	**ULCI**
DS → TC → IP	-.054	.016	-.0884	-.0269
DS → PC → IP	-.057	.015	-.0890	-.0306
DS → RC → IP	-.050	.015	-.0797	-.0224

Note : N = 462 ; *p < .01, **p < .001, SE : Erreur standard
DS = Réduction des effectifs, TC = Conflit de tâches, PC = Conflit de processus, RC = Conflit de relations, IP = Performance innovante

Nous avons utilisé Hayes's (2012) PROCESS-Macro Model-4 pour tester le rôle médiateur des conflits interpersonnels (conflits de tâches, de processus et de relations) dans les relations downsizing - performance innovante. Nos résultats de bootstrapping (voir tableau 2) ont révélé que les relations indirectes entre la réduction des effectifs et la performance innovante des

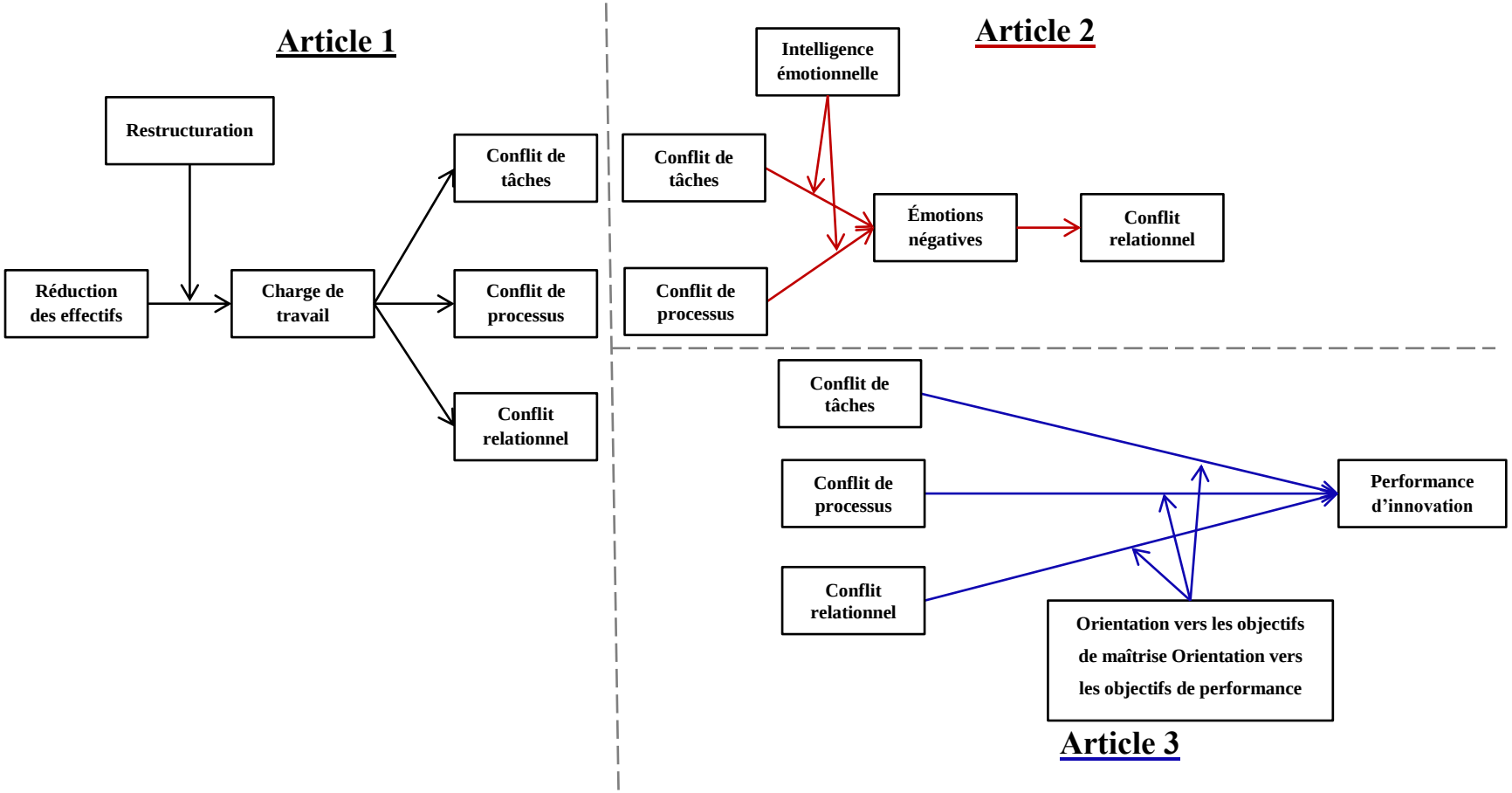
survivants via le conflit de tâche (β = -.054 ; IC 95% [-.0884 ; -.0269]), via le conflit de processus (β = -.057 ; IC 95% [-.0890 ; -.0306]), et via le conflit relationnel (β = -.050 ; 95% CI [-.0797 ; -.0224]) étaient négatifs et significatifs, confirmant le rôle médiateur du conflit interpersonnel dans la relation entre la réduction des effectifs et la performance innovante des survivants.

En outre, les chercheurs (e.g., Niesen et al., 2018; Van Hootegem et al., 2019) ont démontré que l'insécurité de l'emploi (ou la réduction des effectifs) n'affecte la performance innovante des employés que par le biais de médiations. Par conséquent, ils ont appelé à examiner le rôle de divers médiateurs essentiels dans la relation entre la réduction des effectifs et la performance innovante. En conséquence, sur la base des diverses lacunes de recherche identifiées par une analyse documentaire approfondie, cette dissertation a mis en évidence les mécanismes sous-jacents critiques tels que la charge de travail des survivants, les conflits interpersonnels et les émotions négatives qui pourraient augmenter les effets négatifs de la réduction des effectifs sur la performance innovante des survivants.

En outre, selon Fernández-Menéndez et al. (2020), la mesure dans laquelle la réduction des effectifs peut affecter l'innovation dépend de divers facteurs de contingence et des conditions dans lesquelles la réduction des effectifs se produit. Par conséquent, ils ont appelé à une recherche examinant l'effet modérateur de divers facteurs de contingence sur la relation entre la réduction des effectifs et l'innovation (la performance innovante dans notre cas). En conséquence, cette thèse a mis en évidence les facteurs de contingence au niveau individuel et organisationnel (par exemple, la restructuration, l'intelligence émotionnelle et les orientations des objectifs des employés) qui pourraient diminuer ou augmenter les effets négatifs de la réduction des effectifs sur les résultats de performance, en particulier la performance innovante.

Par conséquent, nous avons divisé cette thèse en trois sous-études (voir figure 3 : aperçu schématique de la thèse basé sur trois articles). La première étude a examiné comment et quand la réduction des effectifs conduit à des conflits interpersonnels chez les survivants en étudiant le rôle médiateur de la charge de travail et l'effet modérateur de la restructuration organisationnelle. La deuxième étude a examiné comment et quand les conflits de tâches et de processus conduisent à des conflits relationnels en détaillant le rôle médiateur des émotions négatives et l'effet modérateur de l'intelligence émotionnelle des employés. La troisième étude a examiné la relation entre les différents types de conflits interpersonnels (conflits de tâches, de processus et de relations) et la performance innovante des employés, ainsi que l'effet modérateur des orientations des objectifs des employés (orientation vers un objectif de maîtrise et orientation vers un objectif de performance). Les trois études de la présente thèse examinent donc de manière exhaustive les antécédents, la transformation et les résultats des conflits interpersonnels dans le contexte de la réduction des effectifs et de la restructuration.

Cadre de la dissertation



Notes : Les lignes noires indiquent les directions hypothétiques de l'étude 1, les lignes rouges de l'étude 2 et les lignes bleues de l'étude 3.

Figure 3 : Aperçu schématique de la dissertation basée sur trois articles

Conception et méthode de recherche

Nous avons adopté une méthode de recherche quantitative pour étudier les liens, les mécanismes sous-jacents et les conditions limites de l'association entre la réduction des effectifs, les conflits interpersonnels et la performance innovante des employés. Nous avons utilisé une approche hypothétique déductive, dans laquelle nous avons d'abord identifié les lacunes de la recherche, puis nous avons développé des hypothèses basées sur les théories existantes et les recherches antérieures, et enfin nous avons testé ces hypothèses avec les données recueillies auprès des employés travaillant dans des organisations de différents secteurs au Pakistan.

Nous avons recueilli des données par le biais de questionnaires auprès d'employés travaillant dans des organisations privées de quatre secteurs courants et en pleine expansion du Pakistan, notamment l'automobile, la banque, les télécommunications et les technologies de l'information, où des réductions d'effectifs ont eu lieu dans un passé proche. L'enquête a été administrée de deux manières : par la méthode papier-crayon et par une enquête en ligne (c'est-à-dire en utilisant le formulaire Google Docs., un outil en ligne de collecte de données de recherche).

L'enquête a été diffusée auprès de 820 répondants (265 en ligne et 555 sur papier), parmi lesquels 518 employés l'ont complétée (159 en ligne et 359 sur papier), soit un taux de réponse de 63%. Dans chaque étude, nous avons effectué Little’s (1988) un test de données manquantes complètement au hasard (MCAR) pour déterminer si les données manquantes étaient ou non MCAR. Les résultats ont révélé que les données manquantes étaient des MCAR. Après avoir éliminé les enquêtes avec plus de 10% de valeurs manquantes et les enquêtes avec des réponses types, nous avons finalement obtenu un échantillon de 462 réponses valides pour les première et deuxième études, et 448 réponses valides pour la

troisième étude. Nous avons testé les hypothèses de notre thèse avec la technique de modélisation par équation structurelle dans AMOS-24 et Hayes's (2012) PROCESS-Macro.

Aperçu de trois études

Le cadre conceptuel de la présente thèse, comme le montre la figure 3, a été testé empiriquement à l'aide de trois études. Nous avons brièvement discuté chacun des trois articles dans les sections suivantes.

Article 1 : Comment et quand la réduction des effectifs entraîne-elles des conflits interpersonnels chez les survivants : Le rôle médiateur de la charge de travail et l'effet modérateur de la restructuration organisationnelle

Cet article élargit notre compréhension de comment et quand la réduction des effectifs conduit à un conflit interpersonnel chez les survivants en étudiant le rôle médiateur de la charge de travail et l'effet modérateur de la restructuration organisationnelle. En s'appuyant sur le modèle de processus de stress (Pearlin & Bierman, 2013) et du cadre de réduction des effectifs et de réorganisation du travail (Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998)nous avons d'abord examiné la relation directe entre la réduction des effectifs et les conflits de tâches, de processus et de relations, puis nous avons étudié le rôle médiateur de la charge de travail dans cette relation. Nous avons ensuite examiné l'effet modérateur de la restructuration sur la relation entre la réduction des effectifs et la charge de travail et la relation indirecte entre la réduction des effectifs et les conflits interpersonnels via la charge de travail. Nous avons testé les hypothèses de notre étude à l'aide des données recueillies auprès de 462 cols blancs travaillant dans diverses organisations commerciales au Pakistan, notamment dans les secteurs de l'automobile, de la banque, des télécommunications et des technologies de l'information, où des réductions d'effectifs ont eu lieu dans un passé proche.

Nos résultats (voir tableaux 3 et 4) ont révélé que la réduction des effectifs favorise les conflits de tâches, de processus et de relations. La charge de travail a servi de médiateur à la

relation entre la réduction des effectifs et les conflits de tâches et de processus, ce qui signifie que la réduction des effectifs augmente la charge de travail des survivants, ce qui favorise davantage les conflits de tâches et de processus entre eux. La charge de travail n'était pas significativement liée aux conflits relationnels, et n'a pas non plus servi de médiateur à la relation entre la réduction des effectifs et les conflits relationnels. En outre, la relation entre la réduction des effectifs et la charge de travail des survivants et la relation indirecte entre la réduction des effectifs et les conflits de tâches et de processus via la charge de travail étaient plus faibles en présence d'une restructuration, ce qui signifie que la restructuration minimise la charge de travail des survivants, ce qui réduit par la suite les conflits interpersonnels entre eux.

Tableau 3
Résultats de la médiation (processus macro-modèle 4)

	Charge de travail		**Conflit de tâches**		**Conflit de processus**		**Conflit relationnel**	
Prédicteur	**B**	**SE**	**B**	**SE**	**B**	**SE**	**B**	**SE**
Genre	*.11*	*.189*	*-.01*	*.186*	*-.27*	*.186*	*.002*	*.161*
Âge	*-.12*	*.136*	*.02*	*.134*	*-.21*	*.134*	*-.10*	*.116*
Expérience	*.03*	*.099*	*-.19*	*.097*	*-.06*	*.098*	*-.03*	*.084*
Poste de direction	*.04*	*.097*	*.07*	*.095*	*-.01*	*.095*	*.13*	*.082*
Industrie	*-.31**	*.132*	*-.17*	*.131*	*.01*	*.131*	*.03*	*.113*
Taille de l'organisation	*.14*	*.092*	*.07*	*.091*	*.11*	*.091*	*-.07*	*.078*
Croissance organisationnelle	*-.14*	*.152*	*-.13*	*.149*	*-.05*	*.149*	*-.22*	*.129*
Réduction des effectifs	.21**	.048	.22**	.048	.24**	.048	.19**	.041
Charge de travail			.17**	.046	.19**	.046	.07	.039

Chemins indirects	**Bootstrapping**		**IC À 95**	
	B	**SE**	**LLCI**	**ULCI**
H2a Réduction des effectifs → charge de travail → conflit de tâches.	.036	.014	.0130	.0657
H2b Réduction des effectifs → charge de travail → conflit de processus.	.040	.014	.0167	.0708
H2c Réduction des effectifs → charge de travail → conflit relationnel.	.014	.009	-.0024	.0338

Note : N = 462 ; **p < .01, SE : Erreur standard

Tableau 4

Résultats de la médiation modérée (macro-processus-Modèle 8)

Hypothèse	Prédicteurs	Charge de travail B	SE
	Réduction des effectifs	.21**	.46
	Restructuration	-.03	.47
H3	**Restructuration × Réduction des effectifs**	-.16**	.03

		Bootstrapping		IC À 95	
	Effets indirects conditionnels	***Index***	***SE***	***LLCI***	***ULCI***
H4a	**DS × RS -> WL -> TC**	-.024	.009	-.0430	-.0080
H4b	**DS × RS -> WL -> PC**	-.032	.010	-.0542	-.0147
H4c	**DS × RS -> WL -> RC**	-.010	.007	-.0266	.0025

Note : **p < .01, les coefficients bêta et les estimations bootstrap moyennes sont indiqués ; les variables démographiques et les variables des caractéristiques de l'entreprise sont contrôlées ; procédure bootstrap [5000 itérations, biais corrigé, IC 95%] ; n = 462

DS= Réduction des effectifs ; RS= Restructuration ; WL= Charge de travail ; TC= Conflit de tâches ; PC= Conflit de processus ; RC= Conflit de relations.

Article 2 : Le rôle tampon de l'intelligence émotionnelle dans la transformation des conflits

Cette deuxième étude a examiné comment et quand les conflits de tâches et de processus se transforment en conflits relationnels en détaillant le rôle médiateur des émotions négatives et l'effet modérateur de l'intelligence émotionnelle. La première étude a révélé que la réduction des effectifs était positivement liée aux trois types de conflits interpersonnels (conflits de tâches, de processus et de relations) ; toutefois, la charge de travail n'a servi de médiateur que pour la relation entre la réduction des effectifs et les conflits de tâches et de processus. La charge de travail n'était pas liée de manière significative au conflit relationnel et n'a pas non plus servi de médiateur pour la relation entre la réduction des effectifs et le conflit relationnel. Par conséquent, nous avons prédit qu'il pourrait y avoir d'autres raisons favorisant les conflits relationnels chez les survivants. De nombreux chercheurs (e.g., Choi & Cho, 2011; Guenter et al., 2016; Jimmieson et al., 2017; Rispens, 2012; van den Berg et al., 2014) ont démontré que les conflits cognitifs (c'est-à-dire les conflits de tâches et de processus) se transforment en conflits affectifs (conflits relationnels). Par conséquent, dans la deuxième étude, sur la

base du modèle d'escalade des conflits (Glasl, 1982) et la perspective de contingence du conflit (Jehn & Bendersky, 2003) nous avons examiné comment et quand les conflits de tâches et de processus se transforment en conflits relationnels en étudiant le rôle médiateur des émotions négatives et l'effet modérateur de l'intelligence émotionnelle. Pour tester les hypothèses de notre étude, nous avons utilisé les données recueillies auprès de 462 employés à temps plein travaillant dans plusieurs organisations au Pakistan. Les résultats (voir tableaux 5 et 6) ont révélé que les conflits de tâches et de processus étaient positivement liés aux conflits relationnels et que les émotions négatives jouaient un rôle médiateur dans cette relation. L'intelligence émotionnelle modère négativement la relation entre les conflits de tâches et de processus et les émotions négatives, ainsi que l'association indirecte entre les conflits de tâches et de processus et les conflits relationnels via les émotions négatives. Ces résultats ont mis en évidence que les employés engagés dans des conflits de tâches et de processus sont plus susceptibles de ressentir des émotions négatives envers les autres, ce qui favorise les conflits relationnels entre eux ; cependant, l'intelligence émotionnelle empêche la transformation du conflit cognitif en conflit affectif en minimisant les émotions négatives.

Tableau 5

Résultats de l'analyse de cheminement

Voies directes					
Hypothèse	**Chemins d'accès**	**B**		**SE**	
H1a	Conflit de tâches → Conflit de relations	0.34**		0.065	
H1b	Conflit de processus → Conflit de relations	0.30**		0.066	
	Conflit de tâches → Émotion négative	0.21**		0.062	
	Conflit de processus → Émotion négative	0.26**		0.067	
	Émotion négative → Conflit relationnel	0.22**		0.048	
	Chemins indirects	**Bootstrapping**		**IC À 95**	
		B	**SE**	**LLCI**	**ULCI**
H2a	TC → NE → RC	0.046	0.017	0.017	0.087
H2b	PC → NE → RC	0.056	0.019	0.025	0.10

Notes : N = 462 ; *p < .05, **p < .01. TC=Conflit de **tâche**, PC=Conflit de **processus**, RC=Conflit de **relation**, NE=Émotions **négatives**. Le sexe, l'âge, l'expérience et la position managériale ont été contrôlés et se sont avérés non significatifs.

Tableau 6

Résultats de la médiation modérée (macro-processus-modèle 7)

	Prédicteurs	Émotions négatives		Conflit relationnel	
	Genre	.003		.08	
	Âge	-.24**		-.04	
	Expérience	.10		-.04	
	Poste de direction	-.07		.17*	
	Conflit de tâches	.27***		.38***	
	Conflit de processus	.27***		.36***	
	L'intelligence émotionnelle	-.22***			
H3a	Conflit de tâches × Intelligence émotionnelle	-.14***			
H3b	Conflit de processus × Intelligence émotionnelle	-.13***			
	Émotions négatives			.28***	
	R^2	.20***		.34***	
		Taille de l'effet	Bootstrap SE	*LLCI*	*ULCI*
	Effet direct conditionnel du conflit de tâches sur les émotions négatives				
	-1 SD	.427	.049	.3301	.5243
	Moyenne	.274	.033	.2088	.3402
	+1 SD	.122	.045	.0326	.2109
	Effet indirect conditionnel du conflit de tâches sur le conflit relationnel				
	-1 SD	.1196	.024	.0756	.1674
	Moyenne	.0768	.015	.0488	.1092
	+1 SD	.0341	.013	.0114	.0620
H4a	*Indice de médiation modérée*	-.040	.011	-.0612	-.0199
	Effet direct conditionnel du conflit de processus sur les émotions négatives				
	-1 SD	.407	.047	.3149	.4994
	Moyenne	.271	.033	.2062	.3364
	+1 SD	.135	.044	.0490	.2218
	Effet indirect conditionnel du conflit de processus sur le conflit de relations				
	-1 SD	.112	.023	.0695	.1605
	Moyenne	.075	.015	.0475	.1072
	+1 SD	.037	.014	.0141	.0686
H4b	*Indice de médiation modérée*	-.035	.010	-.0556	-.0161

Note (s) : n= 462 ; SD = écart-type ; SE = erreur-type ; LLCI = lower limit confidence interval ; UCLI = upper limit confidence interval
*p < 0,05 ; **p < 0,01 ; ***p < 0,001

Article 3 : L'effet modérateur de l'orientation vers les objectifs des employés sur la relation entre le conflit interpersonnel et la performance professionnelle innovante.

Les recherches ont révélé les effets positifs et négatifs des conflits interpersonnels sur les résultats en matière de performance, tels que la prise de décision, la performance individuelle et collective, la satisfaction des employés et la créativité individuelle et collective. Cependant, on sait peu de choses sur la relation entre les conflits interpersonnels et la performance innovatrice des employés. Par conséquent, dans cette troisième étude, nous

avons examiné le lien entre les conflits de tâches, de processus et de relations et la performance novatrice des employés. Nous avons également examiné l'effet modérateur de l'orientation des objectifs des employés (c'est-à-dire l'orientation vers la maîtrise et l'orientation vers la performance) sur cette relation. Nous avons testé les hypothèses à l'aide des données recueillies auprès de 448 employés travaillant dans différentes organisations au Pakistan.

Les résultats (voir tableau 7) indiquent que les conflits de tâches, de processus et de relations sont négativement liés à la performance novatrice des employés. Cependant, l'orientation vers un objectif de maîtrise affaiblit la relation négative entre le conflit interpersonnel et la performance innovante, tandis que l'orientation vers un objectif de performance la renforce. Cette étude contribue aux débats sur les résultats des conflits interpersonnels en soulignant l'importance de l'orientation vers les objectifs des employés pour comprendre les effets des conflits interpersonnels sur les résultats en matière de performance, en particulier sur la performance professionnelle innovante des employés.

Tableau 7
Résultats de la modération (Macro-Modèle de processus 2)

	Performance professionnelle innovante	
	B	SE
Genre	-.34**	.128
Âge	.03	.093
Qualification	-.04	.075
Expérience	-.01	.067
Poste de direction	.06	.095
H1 Conflit de tâches	-.27**	.032
H2 Conflit de processus	-.28**	.031
H3 Conflit relationnel	-.21**	.038
Orientation vers la maîtrise	.13**	.031
Orientation vers la performance	.11**	.029
H4a Conflit de tâches x Orientation vers la maîtrise	.11**	.024
H4b Conflit de processus x Orientation de maîtrise	.085**	.023
H4c Conflit relationnel x Orientation de maîtrise	.128**	.028
H5a Conflit de tâches x Orientation vers la performance	-.057**	.021
H5b Conflit de processus x Orientation vers la performance	-.056**	.020
H5c Relation Conflit x Orientation vers la performance	-.083**	.026

R^2	.244**
R^2 Changement	.043**

Note (s) : n =448 ; *p<0,05 ; **p<0,01 ; **SE** = erreur standard ; **les coefficients bêta et les estimations bootstrap moyennes sont indiqués ; procédure bootstrap [5000 itérations, biais corrigé, IC 95%].**

Conclusion

Nos résultats ont révélé que la réduction des effectifs favorise les conflits interpersonnels (conflits de tâche, de processus et de relation) chez les survivants en raison d'une charge de travail plus élevée, et que la restructuration minimise la charge de travail des survivants, réduisant ainsi les conflits interpersonnels. Les conflits de tâches et de processus conduisent aux conflits relationnels par le biais d'émotions négatives. L'intelligence émotionnelle des employés minimise leurs émotions négatives pendant les conflits de tâches et de processus, réduisant ainsi les conflits relationnels. En outre, chaque type de conflit interpersonnel (conflit de tâche, de processus et de relation) affecte négativement la performance professionnelle innovante des employés. Cependant, l'orientation des employés vers un objectif de maîtrise diminue, tandis que l'orientation vers un objectif de performance augmente les effets négatifs des conflits interpersonnels sur leur performance en matière d'innovation. Ainsi, sur la base de trois sous-études séquentielles, notre thèse a mis en évidence les mécanismes sous-jacents critiques tels que la charge de travail des survivants, les conflits interpersonnels et les émotions négatives qui pourraient augmenter les effets négatifs de la réduction des effectifs sur la performance innovante des survivants. De plus, notre thèse a mis en évidence les facteurs de contingence au niveau individuel et organisationnel (par exemple, la restructuration, l'intelligence émotionnelle et l'orientation des objectifs des employés) qui pourraient diminuer ou augmenter les effets négatifs de la réduction des effectifs sur les résultats de performance, en particulier la performance innovante. En conséquence, notre thèse a suggéré diverses techniques pour réduire les conséquences négatives de la réduction des effectifs.