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Citation

Cultural Disposition Influences in Workgroups: A Motivational Systems Theory of Group Involvement Perspective

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Abstract: Modern organizations often involve workgroup members who have different cultural heritage. This article provides an examination of how different cultural dimensions (e.g., uncertainty avoidance, individualism–collectivism) influence the ways that workgroups and their members respond to situations that involve threats and rewards. The threats and rewards activate distinct response patterns that are associated with a motivational systems theory of group involvement. Based on this theoretical foundation, a cultural dispositions approach is applied to reveal how culture could impact the ways group members respond (cognitively, affectively, motivationally) to situations that involve varying degrees of threats or rewards. This focus on cultural dispositions locates this article in the larger theoretical context of persons within situations that account for complexities of threat and reward cues as well as groups, organizations, and cultures. Consequently, this article has broad implications to the scientific and applied science communities interested in multicultural workgroups.

Modern organizations are embedded in diverse, dynamic, complex, competitive, and regulated environments. To further complicate these situations, multinational corporations and other organizations operate in conjunction with affiliates, associates, suppliers, distributors, and partners who may come from different cultures. One way that organizations structure their interactions with others and their interface with the environment is to use workgroups made of members with specific talents and experiences. These workgroups can be composed of members from a variety of cultural backgrounds. Moreover, these workgroups must rely on the talents and experiences of their members to effectively respond to the multifaceted challenges of the environments the organizations inhabit. Consequently, modern organizations are likely to utilize workgroups of multicultural membership as a means of managing their challenges.

We consider these complexities of modern organizations from the perspective of multicultural workgroups. In this article, we offer a conceptual formulation based on research from motivation, small groups, cultural psychology, organization science, cognitive psychology, and affective science. This integrated formulation, built upon motivational systems theory for group involvement (Park & Hinsz, 2006), provides a basis for understanding how individuals and groups respond to environments that vary in terms of the rewards and threats involved.

Motivational systems theory of group involvement predicts that individuals and interacting groups differ in their response to these situations. Importantly, motivational systems theory for group involvement provides a basis for understanding how the cultural dispositions held by group members (e.g., holistic or analytical reasoning) impact the motivational, cognitive, behavioral, and affective reactions to the rewarding and threatening aspects of the endeavors that organizations pursue. In articulating this conceptual formulation, we will describe how members of a multicultural workgroup with differing levels of cultural dispositions respond to reward and threat cues. By providing examples of how a motivational systems theory can be extended to incorporate cultural influences, we show how this comprehensive perspective can be applied to potentially explain and predict the impact of cultural dispositions on workgroup experiences.

Workgroups have long been of interest to researchers (e.g., Ringlemann, 1913, cited in Kravitz & Martin, 1986; Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1939). Historically, the demographic composition of these workgroups was generally quite homogeneous (e.g., males from one restricted geographical region). Although the workgroups of modern organizations are more diverse and potentially distributed or virtual, the general concept of a workgroup has remained relatively consistent over time. For this article, *workgroup* will be defined similarly to the current conception of work teams (Hackman, 1987). In particular, following Forsyth (1999) and McGrath (1984), we consider a workgroup to be two or more task-performing individuals who are interdependent in their actions and who work toward shared goals (cf. Salas, Dickinson, Converse, & Tannenbaum, 1992). Thus, this article will generally focus on workgroup performance and behavior, and the role that motivation is theorized to play in producing specific outcomes. Because cultural dispositions are likely to impact how and when people are motivated, relevant aspects of the relationship of workgroup members' cultural dispositions for motivation will be discussed. Moreover, we will also focus on workgroups as entities themselves. As such, the scope of this article encompasses content pertaining to both the individual and group levels,

and the processes that contribute to phenomena at both levels of analysis. Importantly, we view this approach as comprehensive, and one that conveys a strong appreciation for the varied contextual influences that operate among the different layers of a workgroup.

The conceptual formulation we offer is organized around the key notions of workgroups, culture and cultural dispositions, and motivational systems theory of group involvement. Our formulation is grounded in theoretical perspectives that emphasize how different aspects of contexts impact members of workgroups. We will emphasize rewards and threats as two specific aspects of the situation important for the challenges that workgroups face. We then discuss how approach and avoidance systems of motivation are responsive to threats and rewards, and how they affect workgroup members' responses to complex task and situational contexts. We then provide a general discussion of culture and how one can see the influence of culture on motivational, affective, cognitive, and behavioral reactions to situations characterized by threats and rewards. We contend that culture influences workgroups because their members possess important cultural dispositions to different degrees. These cultural dispositions generally moderate workgroup members' approach and avoidance motivation in response to rewards and threats.

In a following section, motivational systems are applied to articulate how and why individuals' involvement in groups influences motivational tendencies which provide a basis for understanding the potential influence of workgroups on members' thoughts, feelings, and actions. This robust framework is then used to explain how five specific cultural dispositions might influence responses from workgroup members. We then consider how the intensity of the cues about reward and threat influence how cultural dispositions impact the processes associated with motivational systems in groups. We conclude with a summary of the conceptual formulation, the implications of the formulation to a number of domains, limits to the topics we have considered, and a few suggestions for future fruitful research endeavors related to our conceptual formulation of how cultural dispositions influence workgroups' motivation, cognition, affect, and behavior.

Multicultural Workgroups

Based on the established understanding of culture within the field of cultural psychology, we define *culture* as a "constellation of loosely organized ideas and practices that are shared (albeit imperfectly) among a collection of interdependent individuals and transmitted across generations for the purpose of coordinating individual goal pursuits in collective living" (Chiu, Leung, & Hong, 2010, p. 4). This working definition of culture highlights that culture refers to ideas and practices as knowledge traditions. Previous theorizing suggests that some of these knowledge traditions could be loosely organized around some cultural dispositions (e.g., individualism–collectivism; Hofstede, 1980; Triandis, 1994) and shared imperfectly among members of the culture. As a result, this allows within-culture differences in that not all members of the culture will exhibit the same cultural dispositions to the same degree. This definition fits well with a focus on workgroups because culture is shared among a collection of interdependent individuals such as those who constitute a workgroup. In addition, this definition of culture aligns with an emphasis on motivation from group involvement in terms of the purposeful coordination of individual goal pursuits for collective living.

Culture confers conventionalized and well-learned routines to help individuals interpret and navigate their social environment effectively by making some knowledge traditions more accessible (Chiu & Hong, 2006; Leung, Maddux, Galinsky, & Chiu, 2008). Yet, reliance on culturally confined knowledge could lead to many undesirable consequences (e.g., reduced creativity, Leung et al., 2008) and creating barriers that limit understanding between different cultural incumbents (Möller & Svahn, 2004). Loosening these cultural confines by assuming an open attitude toward interacting or working with people from different cultures can facilitate sensemaking (Ashforth, Harrison, & Corley, 2008; Leung & Chiu, 2008), build diverse social networks (Fitzsimmons, 2013), and foster greater cognitive complexity (Tadmor & Tetlock, 2006). These benefits often lead to greater collaborative success in the workplace (Tadmor, Galinsky, & Maddux, 2012). Given that multicultural workgroups consist of members who are culturally or ethnically diverse (Brett & Moran, 2011), it is conceivable that multicultural workgroups are in a better position to reap these benefits and to outperform culturally homogeneous workgroups. However, this outcome is contingent on certain favorable workgroup dynamics. Workgroup success also depends upon individual efforts to overcome cultural differences and conflicts (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003) and to receive benefits from the members' diverse perspectives, information, and social networks (De Dreu, Nijstad, & van Knippenberg, 2008; Fitzsimmons, 2013; Roberge & van Dick, 2010).

For decades, it has been apparent that workgroups in organizations are becoming more diverse (Jackson & Ruderman, 1999; Milliken & Martins, 1996; Stahl, Maznevski, Voigt, & Jonsen, 2010; K. Y. Williams & O'Reilly, 1998). Earlier this diversity fell along demographic lines of age, gender, religion, ethnicity, and nationality. However, more recently, it has become apparent that cultural diversity plays an increasing role in the diversity that members bring to their workgroups (e.g., Fitzsimmons, 2013; Fitzsimmons, Miska, & Stahl, 2011; Roberge & van Dick, 2010). Note that cultural diversity goes beyond the externally identified features of members noted by demographics (surface diversity) to reflect the more psychological aspects of a member's cultural heritage (deep diversity; Harrison, Price, & Bell, 1998; Zellmer-Bruhn, Maloney, Bhappu, & Salvador, 2008). Although cultural diversity has long been a feature of international and multinational organizations, it now permeates a greater array of modern organizations. Two hypothetical examples of multicultural workgroups provide illustrations.

Cargo transport on ships is an industry found in most countries that have ports and access to sea lanes (e.g., Panama, Liberia, India). In international trade, in which goods are transported from one location (e.g., Rotterdam) to a destination (e.g., Singapore), the ship might be owned by a Greek firm, registered in Panama, with the crew hands being mostly Filipino. Yet, the Captain of the ship could be Saudi, the Chief Engineer Italian, the Chief Cook Canadian, with Spanish and Panamanian Deck Officers. For this multicultural workgroup to transport their cargo safely and effectively, a number of conditions must be satisfied. The members have to fulfill their own duties and responsibilities, and they also have to manage any diversity-related issues that arise as they coordinate their efforts and work together as a group. These demands require additional skills on the part of the members as well as effective strategies for managing those multicultural interactions.

A different multicultural workgroup can be seen in training exercises conducted by officers in military alliances. Imagine that these officers are presented with a scenario in which hostages are

taken at a tourist resort on a Pacific Island. Although the island may be under the jurisdiction of one nation (e.g., France), other stakeholders such as the hostages (e.g., Korean, Japanese, Australian) and organizations involved (e.g., multinational hotel chain) might be from a variety of nations. As a training exercise for this joint task force, the members would have to work effectively within the context of multiple cultures and divergent perspectives (e.g., military, security, corporate, rescue). Training exercises of this sort are made routine because it is recognized that situations of this consequence only allow for a small margin of error, so successful resolutions are especially unlikely when workgroup members are not capable of operating effectively with members having different cultural backgrounds.

Our conceptualization is inspired by the types of work situations described in the two prior scenarios. However, we admit that our approach does not provide a general framework for the effective performance and management of multicultural workgroups. Rather, our approach focuses on one viewpoint regarding a cultural psychological conceptualization of how workgroup members' different cultural dispositions would influence the workgroup's management and performance. Also, our examination of workgroup effectiveness builds on a theoretical framework that explains how motivational systems will impact the ways that members would think, feel, and act in situations such as those illustrated in the examples. Although limited in its approach and the factors taken into consideration, this conceptualization does provide a basis for launching a significant analysis of how cultural dispositions and motivational systems of groups combine to influence the reactions of members of multicultural workgroups in the complex situations prevalent in modern organizations.

Multicultural Workgroups in Contexts

A critical feature of our approach is that it recognizes that members of multicultural workgroups are embedded in contexts. Multicultural workgroups are susceptible to contextual influences due to situational demands and expectations, as well as their interactions with people in the situation. One type of context involves the specific *tasks* the members of multicultural workgroups are asked to perform. The *cultural experiences* and background of these members provide them with another context to bring to the workgroup. Moreover, each *workgroup* has its own unique context, while the workgroup itself exists in a larger *sociocultural–organizational context*. As a result, the members enter a cultural envelop in which the workgroup performs its tasks and interacts with other workgroups. Consequently, it is important to appreciate the context in which members of multicultural workgroups operate and function.

In addition to multicultural workgroups being contextually situated, it is also important to recognize that members of multicultural workgroups are context sensitive (Hinsz & Ladbury, 2012a; Levine, Resnick, & Higgins, 1993). Research consistently demonstrates that minor variations in contexts produce important changes in how members in the group think, feel, and act (Hinsz & Ladbury, 2012a). The field of cultural psychology by its nature demonstrates how individuals are sensitive to differences in cultural contexts (e.g., Hong, Morris, Chiu, & Benet-Martínez, 2000; Ramírez-Esparza, Gosling, Benet-Martínez, Potter, & Pennebaker, 2006). Social psychology also indicates that the thoughts, feelings, and actions of individuals are influenced by the social context (Allport, 1985). Likewise, organizational science highlights how members of organizations are sensitive to variations in organizational structures and processes (Joshi & Roh,

2009; Miner, 2006). Yet, we also need to recognize that workgroups are context sensitive (e.g., Hackman, 1999; Hinsz & Ladbury, 2012a; Hinsz et al., 1997a). We extend this traditional view that groups demonstrate sensitivity to tasks, member compositions, and organizational contexts to also acknowledge their sensitivity to the cultural context of the workgroup. Therefore, it is critical to appreciate that multicultural workgroups are both situated within and sensitive to their context.

Situation and Task Environment Features

Aspects of context commonly encountered by members of multicultural workgroups include the task environment and the general situation in which those multicultural workgroups exist. Here, we focus on situations and task environments in which the workgroups are pursuing strategic goals and objectives. This would perhaps be best represented by the missions in which workgroups operate and function in the military (e.g., Sutton & Pierce, 2003). These missions can be considered strategic endeavors in that the workgroups are given goals and objectives, but within constraints and with limited resources (e.g., personnel, time, material). Organizations also assign workgroups strategic endeavors. Hence, we will use *strategic endeavors* as a generic term to indicate the collection of related activities a workgroup is expected to pursue on the part of the larger organization to achieve its objectives.

The strategic endeavors that modern organizations pursue are often high in complexity because of the wealth of information that is available and needs to be processed, the requirement to adhere to organizational regulations regarding behavior and interactions, and the simultaneous presence of multiple objectives. Moreover, these endeavors are likely to be dynamic, with situations changing over time, and strategic planning for the endeavor being tentative with the organization's members having to adapt to changing conditions. The resources available, desired objectives, and other parameters are likely to vary from endeavor to endeavor. Consequently, workgroup members have to be very talented, well-trained, and highly adaptive, while remaining responsive to each other and to the situational demands of dynamically unfolding strategic endeavors.

Most endeavors that organizations undertake concern risky situations that can be characterized by two dimensions with downstream psychological consequences. The first characteristic of strategic endeavors is that they generally involve *threats*, or the potential for negative outcomes. There are threats to organization members, to larger units or the organization, and to their respective strategic objectives. These threats influence important evaluations and perceptions with regard to the organization's success and viability. The second characteristic of strategic endeavors is that they reflect opportunities and *rewards*, or the potential for positive outcomes. Strategic endeavors are pursued because the objectives, if attained, are valuable. These rewards could motivate workgroup members to pursue their endeavors, though the rewards may not accrue to the individual members, but for the workgroup or organization. Strategic endeavors involve uncertainty and risks, with the potential for positive and negative outcomes (i.e., rewards and threats). Workgroup members are motivated to avoid threats and to approach rewards. Consequently, organizationally delegated strategic endeavors are risky situations that involve approach and avoidance motivation on the part of workgroup members performing their tasks.

The next section elaborates on the role of cultural dispositions in workgroups, then discusses how approach and avoidance motivation in situations that involve threats and rewards could affect workgroup members' responses to complex task environments and situational contexts.

Cultural Dimension Dispositions

Modern organizations are characterized by members with diverse cultural backgrounds who interact frequently. As an example, consider a nation's military which has forces deployed in multinational units with allies and coalition partners (e.g., Afghanistan, Somalia). Future military actions are predicted to be more multinational (Objective Force 2015, [2002]). If soldiers are frequently deployed in multinational forces, then they need to know how individuals and teams respond in multicultural settings (Sutton & Pierce, 2003). For example, a multinational force may be made up of East Asians and Americans that requires a common understanding of a threatening situation. It is possible that the threats are perceived as less salient to Americans but more salient to East Asians, so the different members would implicitly have divergent views of the situation which would influence the way workgroup members address it. Without greater understanding of these differences and how to overcome them, the multinational force is likely to lack cohesion and be ineffective, leading to dire consequences. Similar circumstances apply to multicultural workgroups that function and operate in nonmilitary organizations.

We argue that culture exhibits its influence on members of multicultural workgroups because individual members possess various cultural dispositions (e.g., uncertainty avoidance, individualism) to different degrees. As we will elaborate later, motivational systems theory contends that cultural dispositions would generally moderate workgroup members' approach and avoidance motivation in response to threats and rewards during their pursuit of strategic endeavors. Based on this conceptualization, it is key to assess the degree to which workgroup members possess different cultural dispositions because they are likely to bring these cultural orientations to their interactions on strategic endeavors.

Cultural Influence at the Individual Level

Early cultural research tended to classify individuals according to their national identity (e.g., Canadians, Japanese, Cubans) or racial ancestry (e.g., Asian, European). These classifications were then used as proxies or markers for the culture involved. This imprecise and rudimentary approach implies that all people from a country will have the same culture, and that they will respond to the same degree to situations in which culture would have an influence (Leung & Cohen, 2011; Matsumoto & Yoo, 2006). Research examining cultural dimensions also focused on the comparison between individuals from different nations, usually two (Matsumoto & Yoo, 2006). In our theoretical framework, we are interested in cultural influences on motivational, affective, cognitive, and behavioral reactions to situations characterized by threats and rewards. The cultural influences arise by means of individuals displaying differing levels of cultural dispositions. By taking into account the effects of group involvement and individual members' interaction dynamics within multicultural workgroups, our approach is more psychologically compelling and ecologically valid.

Our approach to culture focuses on the psychological *processes* underlying the differences among individuals that often arise for people from different nations. Examinations of the foundational cultural dispositions that occur at the level of the individual are more effective for understanding the impacts of culture than assuming that individuals who belong to different national or racial categories differ on the cultural dimensions of interest. Moreover, not all members of the culture will endorse cultural dispositions to the same extent, which will result in individual differences within a culture. In the case of individualism and collectivism, for example, evidence generally supports that Americans are more individualistic and less collectivistic than Chinese (Oyserman, Coon, & Kemmelmeier, 2002). However, such evidence is less conclusive when comparing Americans with other East Asian cultural groups (Americans were not found to be less collectivistic than Japanese and Koreans; Oyserman et al., 2002) and evidence for reliable cross-cultural variations on other cultural dimensions might not exist. Notably, collectivism does not precisely define East Asian culture; individualism does not precisely define European American culture (Kim & Cohen, 2010; Lee, Leung, & Kim, 2014). As Oyserman and her colleagues (2002) remarked, the static cultural variation framework of individualism and collectivism should not be taken for granted (Kitayama, Ishii, Imada, Takemura, & Ramaswamy, 2006).

Rather than focus on comparing cultures and studying static cross-cultural differences, it is more informative to measure the cultural dimensions that are known to differentiate individuals from different cultures and treat individuals' differing cultural dispositions as a moderator of their thoughts and behaviors. In this way, research is generalizable to cultures not explicitly studied. Moreover, such research does not stereotype individuals from a culture as representative members of that culture. This is especially important in many organizational contexts because managers and members self-select to be members of specific organizations and also decide to continue their membership in the organization. Therefore, because of their ability to decide on their membership, organizational personnel will differ from other members of their culture on important cultural dispositions. Moreover, organizational members may share some common dispositions with individuals from other cultures who also self-select for membership in specific organizations (e.g., military). Consequently, research will better meet an organization's needs for understanding individuals from other cultures if the cultural dispositions underlying cultural differences are the focus of attention.

By examining the degree individuals possess different cultural dispositions that reflect general and stable between-culture differences, scholars can study more meaningful individual differences within a given context and apply the findings to other cultures that demonstrate similar patterns of these individual differences. For example, if uncertainty avoidance could predict people's responses in a negotiation context in a particular way, and if boards of directors in Malaysia (hypothetically) are high in uncertainty avoidance, our theorizing will be relevant for understanding their actions during negotiations. If research shows that members of the Saudi boards of directors are also high on this disposition, then similar lines of reasoning could also be applied to them. Importantly, the approach we take is also theoretically advantageous because it fosters an understanding of *why* culture matters. By examining individuals' cultural dispositions, we could gain insights about why individuals from different cultures respond the way they do in complex situations. Such insights could also be extended beyond the cultures studied, providing more flexibility in applying the knowledge gained to individuals from other cultures. Similarly,

because individuals and workgroup members are likely to interact with others from all over the world, the cultural disposition approach offers the most utility, generalizability, and applicability in the study of culture in workgroup contexts. To further advance our understanding of cultural influences on workgroups pursuing strategic endeavors, we offer a conceptual formulation that describes how different dimensions of cultural dispositions are related to workgroup approach and avoidance motivation in reaction to threat and reward situations. In this way, the influence of cultural dispositions on workgroups and their members may be better understood.

Motivational Systems in Reaction to Threats and Challenges

Strategic endeavors are more likely to be completed when members of workgroups can regulate their thoughts, feelings, and actions effectively (Hinsz, Wallace, & Ladbury, 2009). But what people choose to regulate, and how they go about doing so, can depend on the particular type of motivation that has been activated with regard to current goals. This self-regulation involves aspects of the person (e.g., cultural dispositions) and features of the situation (e.g., threats, rewards). It is often presumed that as cues that signify reward or threat are encountered during goal pursuit, the motivation to attain positive outcomes or avoid negative ones arise (e.g., Berkman, Lieberman, & Gable, 2009; Gray & McNaughton, 2000). These motivational orientations help to initiate and sustain a constellation of relevant responses that are congruent with one's goals (e.g., planning based on what to do/what not to do), while tendencies that are potentially counterproductive can also be inhibited. Thus, motivational systems have the potential to help us understand how workgroups and their members pursue strategic endeavors.

Currently, a body of interdisciplinary research suggests that there are independent systems that govern motivation and behavioral regulation (e.g., Carver & Scheier, 1996; Gray, 1987; Sutton & Davidson, 1997). These systems are relevant to the response tendencies that result when people perceive the rewards and threats that accompany strategic endeavors. These systems relate to the concepts of approach motivation, avoidance motivation, and inhibition. Although different theoretical approaches vary in the labels used, the theoretical approaches are fundamentally quite similar in their incorporation of the set of systems (Anderson & Berdahl, 2002; Carver & Scheier, 1998). For the sake of consistency and parsimony, we rely heavily upon Gray and McNaughton's (2000) model of behavioral regulation called the *revised reinforcement sensitivity theory*. This depiction of behavioral regulation includes (a) a behavioral approach system (BAS) that is sensitive to signals of reward and activates appetitive actions; (b) a fight-flight-freeze system (FFFS) that is sensitive to signals of punishment, and responsible for avoidance and active withdrawal behaviors; and (c) a behavioral inhibition system (BIS) that is triggered by goal conflict and inhibits actions until conflict and uncertainty are resolved (Corr, 2010).

Because the sensitivity level of these regulatory systems have a profound impact on a person's attentional and behavioral response patterns, they are considered to be building blocks in the creation of particular traits and dispositions (e.g., Carver, Johnson, & Joormann, 2008). The stable, trait-like features of the motivational systems (e.g., sensitivity levels) are most commonly discussed. Importantly, the usage of a motivational systems framework extends beyond

personality psychology, such that these orientations are now being examined in several psychological domains (e.g., Marrero, Gámez, & Díaz, 2008). These motivational systems are theorized to play a central role in orchestrating the adaptive, ongoing behaviors, and affective responses that arise during goal pursuit. For example, theory and research have increasingly considered how situational variables (e.g., threats, rewards) influence the activity levels of the motivational systems (e.g., approach, avoid) and how the motivational intensity that is experienced then corresponds to a person's reaction to the situation (e.g., Amodio, Master, Yee, & Taylor, 2008; Corr, 2010; Hirsh, Galinsky, & Zhong, 2011). The way that the situation impacts the degree of activation of the motivational systems will provide a means to consider how levels of threats, rewards, and various cultural dispositions can combine to influence workgroup members in those situations.

When situations contain stimuli that relate to desirable or aversive outcomes, these aspects of the context can determine which motivational orientation a person momentarily adopts. This is consistent with research that shows that the activity of motivational systems can be triggered by brief or subtle experimental inductions. For example, brief exposure to images that depict certain welcoming or threatening emotional expressions (Davidson & Fox, 1982), the presentation of gain versus loss task frames (Sobotka, Davidson, & Senulis, 1992), and primes of social power (Boksem, Smolders, & De Cremer, 2012) can induce specific motivational orientations, even if the inductions occur without conscious awareness. Similarly, specific cues associated with a cultural disposition might also simultaneously activate a motivational orientation. Approach and avoidance motivation can also be activated when cues or inductions are seemingly incidental to participants, as when they are asked to perform particular motor actions (e.g., arm motions of pulling objects closer or pushing objects farther away from oneself; Neumann & Strack, 2000), make specific facial expressions (Coan, Allen, & Harmon-Jones, 2001), or perform when presented briefly with stimuli of a specific color (Elliot & Niesta, 2008).

It is important to note that these examples of experimental inductions of motivational states were designed to be weak and short-lived for research purposes, which is not to say that contextual influences such as culture on motivational states will likewise be so transient or negligible. Instead, with the conceptual significance of threats and rewards, a variety of responses that encompass attention, intention, affect, behavior, and cognition should be expected upon exposure to relevant cues. Along these lines, it is essential to consider how the context (e.g., culture) influences those who experience it, so that our understanding of how people respond during goal pursuit can be potentially enhanced. Furthermore, by integrating a motivational systems framework with aspects of the social context, such as those faced by workgroups with multicultural membership, one can consider how response tendencies might be influenced during goal pursuit. Thus, we attempt to weave together various research findings to offer increased coherence from existing literature.

BAS, the Approach System

The BAS is a motivational system that engages those actions that bring one closer toward rewards and incentives (Corr, 2010). As such, the intensity of approach motivation increases to the extent that a goal is perceived to be important, rewards are desirable, and/or the perceived likelihood of success in goal pursuit is high. The BAS activity then relates to sensitivity and

responsiveness to signals of reward, and the feelings of hope, optimism, and anticipatory pleasure, which all contribute to eagerness and persistence in the pursuit of desired outcomes. In essence, BAS activity relates to the various tendencies that comprise the active experience of *doing* and *going* when one has a plan for action, and propels the response to *go* in tasks in which a person needs to determine whether to go or not to go (Amodio, Master, Lee, & Taylor, 2008). Thus, for strategic endeavors in which a choice has to be made whether or not to pursue an objective, BAS activity will be associated with the decision to eagerly implement a plan of action. Yet, attempts to attain positive outcomes are not always met with success. When obstructions prevent one from acquiring anticipated rewards, frustration is experienced, and BAS activity happens to then relate to anger (Harmon-Jones, 2007; Yan & Dillard, 2010). The motivating emotion of anger could be instrumental in fueling aggression, which, when appropriately channeled, could aid attempts to overcome barriers that frustrate goal attainment. Unlike the fight response associated with avoidance motivation (i.e., defensive, aversive, and based on threat and fear), aggression in the pursuit of rewards is more likely to be approach in nature (to procure rather than protect; Harmon-Jones, 2007), and thus can even be accompanied by some degree of anticipatory pleasure. Perhaps it is for this reason that organizations often consider the challenges associated with gaining valuable objectives in hostile or competitive environments to be fights.

FFFS, the Avoidance System

The FFFS is related to active avoidance motivation, repulsion, and risk-aversion, and is responsible for defensive and active withdrawal behaviors (Corr, 2010). As such, the intensity of avoidance motivation increases to the extent that one perceives a goal to be important, punishments are aversive, and/or the likelihood of avoiding negative consequences is thought to be high. The FFFS is associated with sensitivity and responsiveness to aversive cues that signal threat and punishment. The FFFS is strongly linked to feelings of fear. Fear occurs in response to threats of harm and reflects the anticipation of aversive outcomes. According to theory, the role of the FFFS is to produce quick responses to cues of impending punishment or threatening stimuli, with behavioral manifestations being dependent on the situation (Corr, 2008). When active withdrawal is a viable option, signals of threat and punishment prompt the tendency to flee. When escape is not an option, activation of the FFFS initiates the tendency to defensively approach a threat, known as the fight response. When approaching threats is likely to lead to more harm rather than safety, signals of danger and punishment can produce the tendency to freeze. The FFFS is associated with survival concerns, but can also be relevant to many situations in modern life. For example, when encountering workplace threats (e.g., workgroup bullying), the FFFS has been linked to active avoidance as a means of coping (e.g., documenting incidents and filing complaints, seeking transfers or resigning, keeping a low profile, and remaining quiet as not to draw attention, Webster, Brough, & Daly, 2016).

BIS, the Inhibition System

The BIS serves to detect and resolve response conflicts, and to assess and appraise risks (Berkman et al., 2009). In service of these functions, the BIS activates when surprise, uncertainty, or dilemmas are experienced. BIS also promotes safety by inhibiting ongoing actions and behavioral impulses until confusion and conflict are resolved. BIS activation is

relevant to strategic endeavors because they involve risks as well as decisions that can have confusing conditions and often have conflicting circumstances. The BIS is engaged when ambiguity is perceived and one struggles to determine the appropriate response for a situation. Accordingly, a defensive posture is taken, and vigilance and attention are directed toward sources of uncertainty or conflict. Resources are also allocated for deliberation and reflection so that the proper course of action can be identified (e.g., pursue or terminate a goal). As an inclination to favor one choice over others eventually emerges, an approach or an avoidance orientation is adopted. Consequently, once an orientation regarding the situation emerges in terms of a chosen action, the BIS then deactivates and the inhibition of specific activities ceases (Hirsh et al., 2011).

In contrast to the BAS that promotes *doing* and *going*, the BIS suppresses actions and promotes *reflecting* and *stopping* (Amodio et al., 2008). Unlike the FFFS which relates to reactions to threats and decisive tendencies to actively avoid and withdraw from harm, the BIS is linked to anxiety, reluctance, and cautiousness. Thus, BIS activity reflects a state of uncertainty or indecision when one is still open and willing to approach threats and danger (High & Solomon, 2014). Consequently, BIS is relevant to strategic endeavors that involve risk. These situations are likely to initially induce uncertainty, especially when the perceived likelihood of attaining rewards is thought to be relatively equal to the likelihood of experiencing negative outcomes.

This model of behavioral regulation describes how activation of these motivational systems impact how people think, feel, and act (see Figure 1). Because of the influences that approach and avoidance have for the motivational orientations, the framework provides a powerful theoretical foundation for understanding workgroup members' reactions in rewarding and threatening situations. In the following sections, the motivational systems framework is applied to advance our theory of how and why involvement in groups influences motivational tendencies (Park & Hinsz, 2006), which, in turn, provides a basis for understanding the potential influence of workgroups on members' thoughts, feelings, and actions in goal-directed settings. This robust framework is then used to explain how specific cultural dispositions might influence responses from workgroup members as rewards and threats from strategic endeavors are encountered.
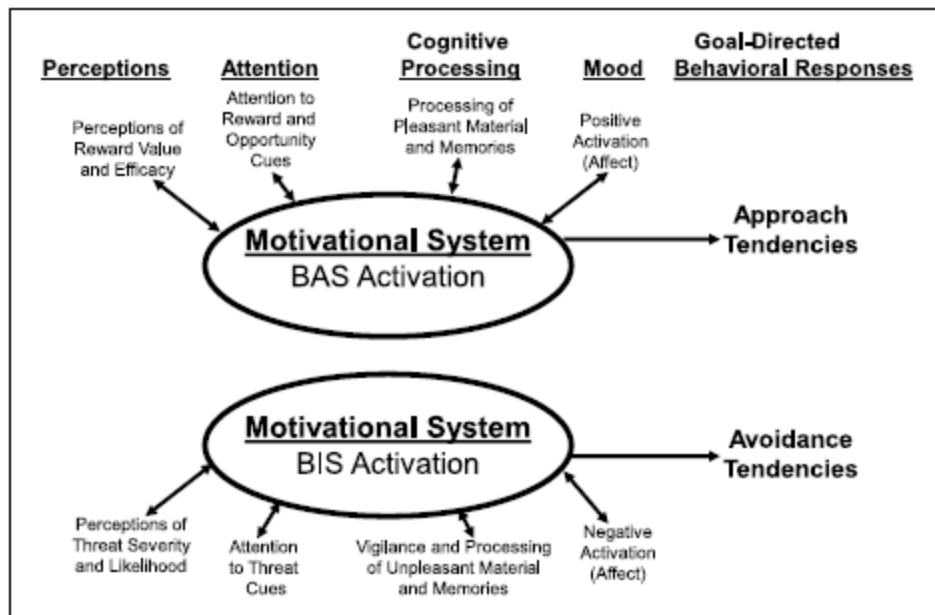
Figure 1. Motivational systems theory influences on approach and avoidance motivation.

Note. Adapted by permission from Springer, *Motivation and Emotion*, Park and Hinsz (2006).

Group Involvement and Approach and Avoidance Motivation

Organizations commonly rely on groups and teams to execute tasks, which reflects their functional value (Forsyth, 1999; Salas, Shuffler, Thayer, Bedwell, & Lazzara, 2015). A deeply rooted connection between groups and thriving and surviving has evolved over time, along with exhibiting the general principle that groups of people working together will hold advantages over lone individuals in securing positive outcomes and avoiding negative outcomes (Mackie & Goethals, 1987; Moreland, 1987; Stroebe & Stroebe, 1996). We refer to these expectations that people have about group involvement as core beliefs about *strength in numbers* and *safety in numbers*, respectively (Park & Hinsz, 2006). We reason that such beliefs should lead group involvement to increase approach and/or decrease avoidance motivation in members (Park & Hinsz, 2006; see Figure 2). As rationale and support for these arguments are presented, it will be increasingly evident that there are variables such as cultural dispositions that moderate these relationships, with the nature of these interactions being relatively straightforward given the descriptions of how the motivational systems operate. That said, to the extent group dynamics and processes are robust, we expect our framework to be descriptive of many workgroups.
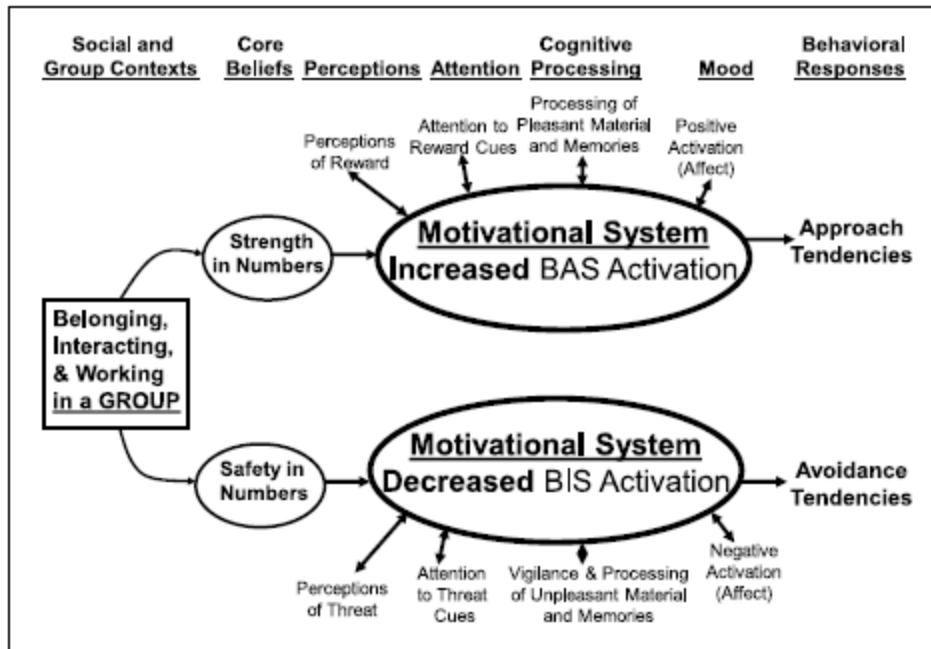
Figure 2. Motivational systems theory for group involvement.

Note. Adapted by permission from Springer, *Motivation and Emotion*, Park and Hinsz (2006).

Group Involvement Should Increase Approach Motivation

Recall that in the presence of potential rewards and positive outcomes, motivational systems like the BAS activate and align response tendencies so one is propelled to pursue goals. The coordination of attentional, cognitive, and behavioral processes are accompanied by eagerness and optimism to initiate and maintain adaptive responding until rewards are attained. Because workgroups are primarily formed for the purposes of *doing something* (Bales & Strodbeck, 1951; Hinsz, Tindale, & Vollrath, 1997; Park, Tindale, & Hinsz, 2013), workgroups should be inherently associated with energized and elevated states that promote activity (Vianello, Galliani, & Haidt, 2010).

As a social context, group involvement should induce approach motivation because groups are associated with goal attainment, and are also a natural source of rewards. Through interpersonal exchanges, groups can be rich and lasting sources of new information and ideas for their members, and settings that stimulate shared, transformative experiences and interpersonal closeness. Groups present numerous opportunities for further success and advancement to members who display motivation, productivity, or status, and can also reward members with social recognition and the potential for pride. As a social context, group settings are somewhat unique in their ability to offer interpersonal interactions that can amplify and sustain the positivity that accompanies achievement (Gable & Reis, 2010; Hinsz, 1991; Turner, 2001), and

should therefore not be too surprising that group membership usually fosters a sense of strength, efficacy, and self-worth (Correll & Park, 2005).

Research has shown that even short-lived, ad hoc workgroups have the propensity to sustain positive feelings in members who are working on a task. In one study (Park & Hinsz, 2015), mood was assessed before and after the completion of a decision-making task. Some participants completed the task alone, while others completed the task as a group. Positive affect ratings after the task declined among individuals, but this was not the case for members of the group. Furthermore, individuals' ratings of negative affect increased after completion of the task, whereas negative affect of group members actually decreased after working together. This research suggests that after working on a task together, group members generally feel less negative and more positive than individuals who worked on the same task alone.

Group Involvement Should Decrease Inhibitions and Avoidance Motivation

When experiencing uncertainty, response conflict, or assessing risk, the BIS halts ongoing behaviors until levels of certainty and clarity are sufficient to determine an appropriate course of action. When the intensity and likelihood of aversive and unwanted outcomes are high enough, the BIS defers to the FFFS and the resulting increases in avoidance motivation help repel one from threats and harm. Conversely, if risk assessments lead one to believe that the pursuit of rewards are justifiable, the BIS defers to the BAS and positive outcomes are approached and pursued. To the extent that group involvement is associated with increases in certainty, safety, and decreases in the likelihood of punishments or negative outcomes, group contexts should reduce inhibitory tendencies and decrease avoidance motivation. In this way, participation in groups would be a circumstance in which specific cultural dispositions related to certainty, safety, and the perception of negative outcomes could be expressed and lead workgroups to vary in their cognitions and actions.

There are a number of reasons for suspecting that groups may indeed influence their members in these ways and to believe there is often certainty and safety in numbers. Across history, groups have been used for hunting and gathering food under conditions of resource scarcity or uncertainty. When humans are threatened by unfavorable circumstances, they tend to band together with familiar others for mutual defense (Boinski & Garber, 2000; Caporael, Sloan Wilson, Hemelrijk, & Sheldon, 2005). Trotter (1916) described the herd instinct in humans as a specific response to safety motives, which involves seeking out others, congregating, and conforming as a means for protection and ambiguity reduction. Also consistent with the notion that group involvement attenuates concerns for survival and safety is research showing that physiological responses to stressors, particularly in females, produce a drive to affiliate and bond in groups (Taylor et al., 2000). It is hard to imagine that such tendencies to affiliate when a person is anxious or uncertain would be so reflexive and common if group involvement did not function to lessen perceptions of threat, and increase feelings of safety, security, or certainty (Reid & Hogg, 2005; Schachter, 1959).

In addition to the previously mentioned work that documented declines in negative affect following group involvement (Park & Hinsz, 2015), research shows that perceptions of threat and the difficulty of challenges also decrease in the presence of familiar or similar others. For

example, compared with when alone, (a) potential foes appear physically smaller and less muscular when male raters are with a group of friends (Fessler & Holbrook, 2013); (b) in the mere presence of a friend or when simply activating mental images of an existing friendship, challenges are perceived to be more manageable (Schnall, Harber, Stefanucci, & Proffitt, 2008); (c) when holding a spouse's hand, neural responses to experimentally induced threat are reduced (Coan, Schaefer, & Davidson, 2006); and (d) when people receive positive social support from others, less experimentally induced pain is felt (Brown, Sheffield, Leary, & Robinson, 2003).

Furthermore, the mere involvement of fellow group members should decrease threat perceptions and concerns of negative evaluation from outgroup members when working on tasks as a group. Following from social impact theory (Latané, 1981), the (perceived) social impact from external sources on group members decreases as the size of one's group increases. Thus, the magnitude of pressures or concerns about being negatively evaluated, punished, harmed, or humiliated by an external source should naturally diminish when one works in a group versus alone. Similarly, when facing potential threats, group members also have the unique luxury of being able to perceptually diffuse responsibility for negative outcomes by spreading the blame across the group (Darley & Latané, 1968). This should be especially true when the group context offers cues that promote perceptions of entitativity (e.g., uniformity in status, similarity in physical appearance). Individuals, on the contrary, have no option other than to feel solely accountable for negative outcomes and to expect to feel the full brunt of any corresponding judgments and punishment. Accordingly, individuals should perceive higher degrees of threat than group members, even when levels of threat are actually equivalent across work conditions.

Importantly, research also demonstrates that group involvement increases self-efficacy and feelings of certainty. For example, when working on a group idea generation task, group members feel more efficacious and satisfied with their personal idea generation performance in comparison with solitary idea generators. These feelings arise even though the average productivity level of group members is no greater, and is often worse, than that of individual idea generators (Paulus, Dzindolet, Poletes, & Camacho, 1993). Research on decision-making groups also shows that through the act of discussing and repeating shared information that is known by all, group members see themselves and each other as more competent, knowledgeable, and credible (Wittenbaum & Park, 2001). This mutual enhancement effect is related to social validation (Wittenbaum & Bowman, 2004), and illustrates a route for enhancing efficacy and confidence that is unique to group contexts. Given the range of processes that favor conformity and convergence in groups (Park et al., 2013), one should expect it to be quite common for group members to feel greater certainty, confidence, and satisfaction at the conclusion of decision-making tasks as compared with individuals (e.g., Heath & Gonzalez, 1995; Hinsz & Nickell, 2004). Based on the motivational systems approaches, and supportive findings from literature on groups, we expect that when compared with individual work conditions, group involvement will lower inhibitory tendencies (BIS) and decrease avoidance motivation (FFFS).

Group Involvement Influences Reactions to Rewards and Threats

The motivational systems theory for group involvement (Park & Hinsz, 2006) proposes that group contexts will at times increase approach motivation or decrease avoidance motivation. Therefore, group involvement has a systematic influence on how group members think, feel, and

behave during goal pursuit. Consequently, group involvement should result in the groups adopting different preferences and tendencies than individuals (some of the implications that follow are illustrated in Figure 2). This theory of group involvement can be applied and potentially offer explanations for a host of findings related to strategic endeavors, with those related to cultural influence described later.

If groups are associated with an action-orientation and induce approach motivation, group involvement should heighten the perceived importance of goal pursuit and increase the motivation to maintain effort and persist during effortful tasks. This impact of group involvement has been demonstrated in a number of studies that show motivation gains among members whose performance is instrumental for group success. For example, in comparison with effort exhibited under individual work conditions, effort from more capable members of groups increases in disjunctive tasks (Karau & Williams, 1997), and effort from less capable members of groups increases in conjunctive tasks (e.g., Kerr, Messé, Park, & Sambolec, 2005; Lount, Park, Kerr, Messé, & Seok, 2008). The latter phenomenon, termed the Köhler effect, is quite robust and gains in task persistence even occur when one is in a group with computer-avatar cyberbuddies (Feltz, Forlenza, Winn, & Kerr, 2014).

A rather necessary force behind these motivation gains in groups is the intensification of perceived indispensability (Hertel, Kerr, & Messé, 2000), the feeling that one's contribution is especially instrumental for determining outcomes. However, given that perceived indispensability should not be any greater in groups compared with when one works alone, group involvement is likely to activate additional forces that increase one's drive to pursue goals. Applying an Instrumentality × Valence model (Vroom, 1964), additional factors are likely to relate to increases in the positive valence of outcomes that coincide with group involvement. Consistent with the perception that groups are a source of opportunities and rewards for their members, this line of work supports beliefs that group involvement increases the drive to pursue goals by offering members valuable information relevant to social comparison (Stroebe, Diehl, & Abakoumkin, 1996), or more generally by accentuating perceptions of task importance (Hinsz & Nickell, 2004).

A motivational systems perspective also leads to the prediction that group involvement will heighten confidence among members and produce optimistic projections pertaining to task success and completion. Findings from a series of studies support this claim (Buehler, Messervey, & Griffin, 2005). In this research, participants were assigned to workgroups to complete either short- or long-term projects (depending on the study), and instructed to estimate the amount of time that would be required for task completion. Whether participants discussed their judgments as a group prior to them each reporting their own estimates, or when time predictions were made as a group, an optimistic bias was found such that the projected amount of time needed for task completion was underestimated to a greater degree compared with when judgments were made as individuals (prior to any group interaction). Further analysis of group interactions found that involvement in group discussions generated an increased focus on factors that facilitate task success and completion, and this heightened attention on goal attainment was responsible for the group effects on optimistic projections.

Research from a separate line of inquiry (Minson & Mueller, 2012) also supports the notion that group involvement induces approach-related optimism, along with increases in response certainty. Participants were asked to make a set of judgments either alone or together as members of a group and a monetary incentive was also offered as a bonus for strong performance. After participants made their initial judgments, they were provided with responses from peers, and then a final set of judgments were completed. Using this paradigm, researchers could examine the extent to which participants were receptive to information from external sources, particularly information that challenged their own judgments. Results showed that group members were less willing than individuals to revise their final judgments by accepting information from external sources. Despite the fact that this led group judgments to be less accurate than those from individuals, group members were more confident and felt more certain that their own views were correct. This pattern of results is consistent with the notion that as group involvement induces approach motivation and efficacy in pursuit of rewards, confidence and response certainty reduce instances of conflict and confusion, which minimizes the onset of inhibition and any corresponding deliberation and reflection.

To the extent group involvement elicits a set of beliefs about strength and safety in numbers, thereby intensifying responsiveness to rewards and reducing the salience of threats and worry, group compared with individual contexts should be more consistently associated with risk-taking. This aspect of group involvement has been shown in many variations. For example, in a series of studies utilizing friendship groups, researchers found that the mere activation of a specific friendship through subliminal priming increased risk-taking responses in a modified longshot paradigm (Chan, Tong, & Moh, 2012). In their follow-up studies, results were replicated using a behavioral measure of risk-taking, with additional analyses showing that activated thoughts of members from friendship groups still increased risk-taking when threat was introduced into the situation. The presence of friends is reported to be one of the most consistent predictors of risk-taking (Jaccard, Blanton, & Dodge, 2005), and the influence of friends on thrill seeking and risk has been documented from archival work showing that speedy and reckless driving by teens is most robustly predicted by the presence of peers (e.g., A. F. Williams, Ferguson, & McCartt, 2007). The presence and influence of peers is likewise a strong predictor of risky, pleasure-seeking behaviors, such as illicit drug use, smoking, and binge drinking (DiClemente, Hansen, & Ponton, 1996). Although this research was conducted on friendship groups, it is relevant given the tendencies for workgroups to be comprised of friends (Chung, Lount, Park, & Park, 2018; Riordan, 2013).

Although some research indicates that group involvement has the capability to increase risk-taking through the enhanced drive for rewards, others have found that the mere physical presence of group members increases risk-taking by inducing feelings of safety (Chou & Nordgren, 2017). In a series of studies and meta-analysis, Chou and Nordgren explored risk-taking betting behaviors when people were in the mere presence of group members versus alone. Variables such as acceptance to financial volatility, attitudes toward risky gambles, and risk tolerance for gambles were also examined. This work and meta-analysis shows that group inductions increased risk-taking, and this was mediated by feelings of psychological safety.

Theory and research describe how motivation and behavior are shaped in response to rewards and threats, and the perceived likelihood of experiencing positive or negative outcomes. The

preceding sections describe how working in groups influences the motivational systems associated with approach and avoidance tendencies. In addition to group involvement, a number of cultural dimension dispositions (e.g., masculinity–femininity) are predicted to moderate the influence of mechanisms associated with the motivational systems. In the context of motivational systems theory, it is expected that individuals having different cultural dispositions will exhibit specific processes to greater or lesser degrees. The understanding of how cultural dispositions predict motivational responses could also be generalizable to members of other cultures as long as these cultural dispositions are differentially exhibited within the culture. An individual-level approach to cultural dimensions provides a conceptual understanding of the role these dimensions play in relevant psychological processes. An important next question becomes "Which cultural dimensions to examine within the motivational systems context?"

Representations of Cultural Dimensions

There are a number of representations of the dimensions upon which cultures are known to differ (Hofstede, 2001; House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004; McCrae, Terracciano, & 79 Members of the Personality Profiles of Cultures Project, 2005; Triandis, 1987). The number of dimensions and their characteristics vary across representations, but examination of these representations suggests that there are five to nine common dimensions (Matsumoto & Yoo, 2006). Interestingly, a similar set of cultural dimensions appear to be important in characterizing situations of group involvement (Jentsch, Hoeft, Fiore, & Bowers, 2004; Salas, Burke, Fowlkes, & Wilson, 2004). From a set of common cultural dimensions, we identify five that are conceptually implicated with the mechanisms associated with approach and avoidance: individualism–collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity–femininity, long- and short-term orientation, and analytic–holistic reasoning. We will discuss each of these cultural dimensions and how they might influence the mechanisms associated with approach and avoidance motivation.

Culture and Approach and Avoidance Motivation in Workgroups

Culture constitutes an important context in which workgroup members are embedded. We argue that the cultural dispositions of workgroup members could moderate the influence of mechanisms associated with the motivational systems. For example, Lee, Aaker, and Gardner (2000) demonstrated that people from East Asian countries are more likely to be avoidant-oriented than people from Western countries, who are characterized as more approach-oriented. There is reason to believe that these differences arise due to cultural variations in the socialization practices of children. For example, when children perform a task, East Asian parents are less likely than their Western counterpart to praise achievements. Instead, if children do well, their achievement is accompanied by the absence of criticism or punishment, which creates a situational dynamic that makes avoidance motivation more salient. Essentially, situations that involve loss or nonloss (i.e., threat) are perpetuated and reinforced, and consequently the inhibition and avoidance systems can become more responsive and chronically active among those in East Asian cultures. In contrast, in Western societies, themes of achievement and opportunity are commonly depicted in children's books, and these recurring

themes are believed to be associated with children's relative approach motivation and achievement in the future (Decharms & Moeller, 1962). McClelland (1961) argued that these achievement outcomes were a consequence of parental practices that rewarded the accomplishment of mastery and achievement that would enhance the BAS system's salience and activation. Consequently, culture plays a key role in influencing the activity of the motivational systems, and the resultant approach and avoidance motivation responses (Hamamura, Meijer, Heine, Kamaya, & Hori, 2009).

Culture also influences how people's motivations take shape when they act alone or in the midst of groups. Importantly, motivational systems theory for group involvement makes clear predictions of how acting alone or as a member of a group produces differences in levels of approach and avoidance motivation. Research suggests that many Asian countries tend to be more collectivist in orientation while Western nations tend to be more individualistic (Triandis, 2001). As such, group harmony is prioritized and social norms are more clearly defined and pervasive in East Asian cultures (e.g., China, Japan) than in Western cultures (e.g., the United States; Triandis, 1994). In this cultural context, there is a higher expectation for Asians to act according to social norms, and as such, are not rewarded for doing so. Fulfilling this expectation does not necessarily result in receiving rewards for following norms; rather, *failing* to follow such normative expectations is likely to bring about sanctions or punishments. As a consequence, a higher salience of the functioning of avoidance motivation to remain vigilant on threat cues will exist among members of an Asian culture relative to those of a Western culture (Frager, 1970).

With the value placed on interpersonal harmony and interdependence, there is a tendency for East Asians to be responsive to concerns that relate to cohesion and the welfare of one's group. Thus, it is reasonable to expect that group involvement will have a stronger impact on people from collectivist societies compared with individualistic ones. For example, the impact of reducing the avoidance motivation that arises with group involvement may be stronger among collectivist members than individualistic members. These predictions suggest that culture also influences how people will respond to situations in which they have to act alone or as a member of a group. Although theorists have uncovered broad cross-cultural differences at the individual level, we seek to add to this area by recognizing the dynamic aspects that emerge in multicultural workgroups. We turn now to the consideration of the processes that underlie how culture influences the mechanisms of the motivation systems theory of group involvement by focusing on the five cultural dimensions highlighted earlier. The proposed relationships are illustrated in Figure 3.
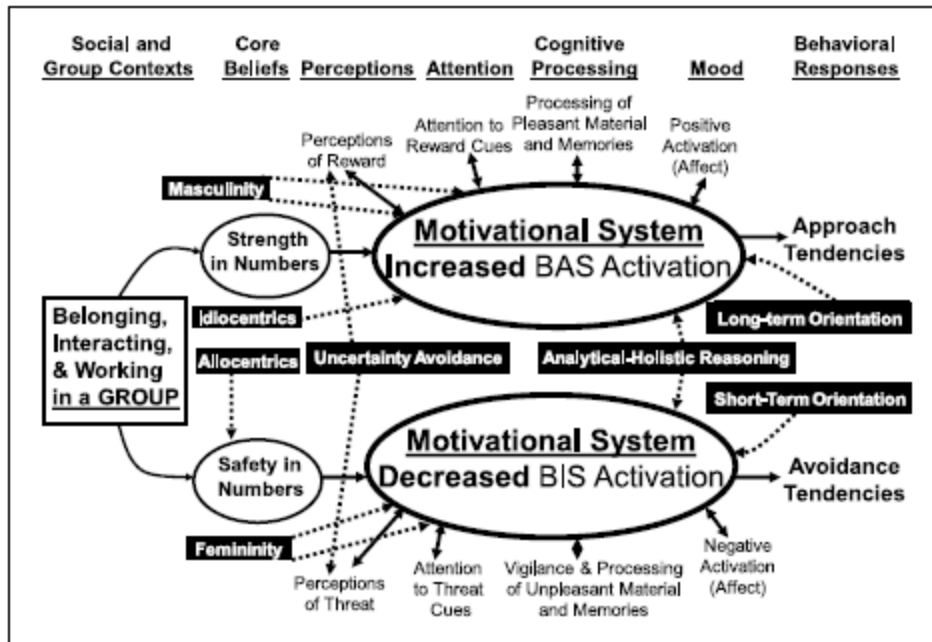
Figure 3. Cultural dispositions' influences in variables of the motivational systems theory for group involvement.

Note. Adapted by permission from Springer, *Motivation and Emotion*, Park and Hinsz (2006).

Individualism and collectivism

The cultural dimension receiving the most attention is individualism–collectivism (Matsumoto & Yoo, 2006) which reflects how the person fits into group contexts. Individualism–collectivism is clearly relevant for the dynamics of multicultural workgroups pursuing strategic endeavors. Individualism reflects the perception that an individual is independent from social groups, that personal attitudes influence behavior, and that one's own personal goals take precedence over the collective goals (Triandis, 2001). In individualistic cultures, socialization practices often place an emphasis on exploration, creativity, and self-reliance. In contrast, collectivism sees the individual as part of, and interdependent on, social groups, emphasizing group goals, seeing group norms as the basis of behavior, and focusing on communal social interaction (Triandis, 2001). In these cultures, conformity, obedience, security, and dependability are often stressed.

Triandis (1994) argued that individualism–collectivism is a multidimensional set of constructs about perceptions and behaviors. At the level of the individual, the corresponding terms of idiocentrism and allocentrism are often used to refer to individuals exhibiting the individualistic and collectivistic cultural dispositions, respectively. Allocentric individuals tend to pay attention to others in comparison with idiocentric individuals who focus on their own internal attributes. It is believed that there are predominantly more idiocentrics than allocentrics in individualistic cultures, and more allocentrics than idiocentrics in collectivistic cultures. Furthermore, this conceptualization allows one to consider how experiences of idiocentrics in an individualistic culture might differ from those of idiocentrics in a collectivistic culture.

Allocentric individuals place value on harmony and social relationships and tend to be responsive to their social environments. For example, allocentric individuals are cooperative in social settings that emphasize unity and collaboration. With their focus on relationships and group membership, allocentric individuals are more motivated to join groups, work harder to promote group success, and find the rewarding aspects of group involvement especially rewarding. Idiocentric individuals tend to find group involvement stifling and constraining, which threatens their autonomy and sense of independence (Heine, 2016). Because allocentric individuals place great importance on the welfare of their group and view group membership in a positive light, compared with idiocentric individuals, they should experience stronger approach motivation when they are involved in workgroups.

Due to the importance that is placed on one's group, allocentrics (vs. idiocentrics) should also display a stronger motivation to protect and maintain the survival of their group. Therefore, allocentric individuals should also show greater increases in avoidance motivation when they are involved in workgroups, particularly when facing threats and potential losses (partially shown in Figure 3). So, when facing the potential for negative consequences, allocentrics should have heighten concerns for safety and security and be cautious and careful. To avoid errors and missteps, allocentric workgroup members might engage in extensive planning and preparation, and be motivated to develop contingencies in the event that plans are derailed. Allocentric workgroup members are expected to be risk-averse, and advocate for options that lead to the avoidance of harm and negative outcomes. When it is not possible to actively withdraw from threatening situations, allocentrics should tend to defensively approach sources of threat as a preemptive tactic to mitigate harm (e.g., a coalition who engages in a smear campaign in attempts to remove a CEO whose actions are harming the organization). In this respect, involvement in a group should result in greater activation of approach or avoidance motivation depending on the cultural dispositions of workgroup members and that these members may have different orientations toward different aspects of the task and group situation.

Allocentrics prioritize group goals, relationships, and social harmony. They tend to be cooperative and readily provide support to fellow workgroup members when assistance is needed. By having this social support network available, groups are more likely to succeed. Although allocentrics have very positive attitudes about their ingroup, they also report less favorable attitudes toward their outgroups and are relatively ethnocentric (Lee & Ward, 1998). Therefore, when workgroups are multicultural, allocentrism might moderate the influence of group involvement as it is conceived of in the motivational systems perspective. A belief in strength in numbers and an increased potential for rewards are typically expected to promote approach tendencies when people work in groups compared with when working alone. The perceived safety that group involvement affords is expected to lead to declines in avoidance motivation when one is in a workgroup compared with when working alone. However, when workgroups are multicultural, the notions of strength and safety that are usually associated with groups may be altered when people are allocentric. This is because allocentrics may question the willingness of culturally diverse members to effectively collaborate with one another. Not only will the efficacy of the workgroup be in question, the relationships that could be formed may not have much appeal to an allocentric if the workgroup members originate from cultures that are considered as outgroups. Furthermore, an allocentric may not place as much trust in fellow workgroup members, and suspicions about competence and dependability may induce a sense of

threat rather than safety. If multicultural workgroups can function well enough to offer a foundation of collective efficacy, and if trust can be established over time, then an allocentric individual may associate such groups with both strength and safety.

Uncertainty avoidance

Although not the most frequently examined cultural dimension, uncertainty avoidance appears to account for more variance in culture-based responses than individualism–collectivism (Hofstede, 1980). Uncertainty avoidance reflects the way people respond to ambiguous situations and uncertainty. People who are low in uncertainty avoidance are more tolerant of ambiguity and novelty, and can deal with uncertain and unstructured situations more easily. Individuals high in uncertainty avoidance, on the contrary, are uncomfortable with uncertainty and develop strategies to deal with ambiguity. Because of their difficulties in handling uncertainty, people high in uncertainty avoidance are motivated to avoid circumstances with high uncertainty (50-50 chances) and desire to pursue goals that are more likely to be attained. Considering the impact of uncertainty avoidance on inhibition, approach, and avoidance motivation, the question is as follows: How does uncertainty avoidance influence the ways people deal with the likelihood of rewards and threats when they engage in strategic endeavors?

Individuals high in uncertainty avoidance should be less likely to pursue approach situations which have a limited likelihood of attaining desirable outcomes. That is, if a reward is uncertain to occur, high uncertainty avoidance individuals are less likely to approach that task than are individuals low in uncertainty avoidance. Consequently, uncertainty avoidance will weaken the effect of unpredictable reward cues on goal-directed behavior in an approach situation. Similarly, in uncertain situations in which the likelihood that threat cues are present is unpredictable, individuals high in uncertainty avoidance are more likely to avoid such situations (50-50 chances) than are individuals low in uncertainty avoidance. Therefore, individuals' disposition of uncertainty avoidance would moderate the effects of reward and threat cues on activating approach and avoidance responses (see Figure 3).

Motivational systems theory of group involvement proposes that individuals often desire group membership because of the greater likelihood of receiving outcomes from strength in numbers. However, if group members are high in uncertainty avoidance, they are less likely to pursue challenging task goals because their attainment of greater rewards is unpredictable (cf. Atkinson & Feather, 1966). Rather, individuals high in uncertainty avoidance will encourage their groups to pursue less challenging goals for which there is a greater perceived chance of success. Hinsz (1991, 1992) demonstrated that ad hoc groups chose task performance goals that were less challenging than those selected by similar individuals, but perceived greater likelihood of achieving those less challenging goals. However, member dispositions could change this goal choice pattern (Zander, 1971). If a workgroup is composed of members having different levels of uncertainty avoidance because of their cultural origins, then it is imaginable that the workgroup's deliberation for goal choice will be contentious because members have different views on whether to commit to difficult goals with uncertain chances of success. Moreover, because members high in uncertainty avoidance may have better developed strategies for dealing with the ambiguity of goal decision making, they may be more likely to dominate the workgroup's deliberation, resulting in the choice of a less challenging goal than that advocated by the low

uncertainty avoidance members. Consistent with this expectation, Hinsz (1999) found that group goals were predicted by the group members having preferences for the least challenging goals. Consequently, multicultural workgroups may defy the expectations of some scholars to pursue challenging goals (Likert, 1967), yet conform to expectations that conflicting opinions will often emerge in the workgroup interactions.

Uncertainty avoidance relates to the preference for familiarity and predictability. On these bases, one might intuitively expect that uncertainty avoidance would result in minimal involvement in groups because it would be rather aversive to participate in the somewhat chaotic nature of complex, dynamical systems (Arrow, McGrath, & Berdahl, 2000). This is clearly inconsistent with data though, as group involvement tends to be integral to East Asian cultures that are generally high on uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede, 2001). It is reasonable to argue that uncertainty avoidance does not deter group involvement because being part of a group can reduce perceived threats based on a belief in safety in numbers. It is also reasonable to argue that cultures high in uncertainty avoidance tend to form tightly knit social ties (see Heine, 2016), suggesting the building of less mobile relationships with ingroup families or friends (Schug, Yuki, Horikawa, & Takemura, 2009; Yuki & Schug, 2012). These prescribed group memberships are relatively stable due to the strong bonds of loyalty needed for long-term exchange of provisions of social support.

Nevertheless, when workgroups are multicultural, uncertainty avoidance may undermine the certainty and safety that group involvement is thought to provide. In these workgroups, uncertainty abounds due to working with unfamiliar group members that originate from different cultural or national backgrounds. Therefore, what is considered normative may be less certain and unambiguous. This suggests that uncertainty avoidance will make involvement in multicultural workgroups confusing, and increase activation of the BIS to the extent that one does not know how to respond appropriately. The resultant heightening of vigilance and deliberation is likely to temporarily consume and deplete mental capacities (Muraven, 2012). Even when attempts to resolve response conflicts are effective, uncertainty avoidance is likely to induce avoidance motivation because of the relative unfamiliarity of fellow members, and the lack of consensus and agreement that can coincide with diversity. Thus, rather than offering certainty and safety as group involvement typically does, participation in multicultural workgroups is likely to increase uncertainty and present unique threats that people do not usually face when alone.

Because of its key role in judgment and decision making, uncertainty avoidance is likely to play important roles in multicultural workgroup decision-making processes. Uncertainty avoidance will factor importantly in aspects of the framing of gains and losses (Ladbury & Hinsz, 2009), and in the subjective assessments of the probabilities of events. Depending on the relative distribution of members' dispositions of high versus low levels of uncertainty avoidance, as well as the predictability of reward and threat occurrence, there could be different levels of tension with regard to the workgroup's decision making in approach or avoidance situations. If the workgroup is heterogeneous with regard to uncertainty avoidance, decision-making processes, such as in the hostage taking example mentioned earlier, are likely to be marked by conflict and ambiguity that may be more unbearable among those high in uncertainty avoidance. Notably, multicultural workgroup contexts are likely to involve members who vary on more than just one

cultural disposition such as uncertainty avoidance, but on an array of these cultural dimensions. Consequently, it must be recognized that our predictions are based on conjecture assuming all other factors and cultural dispositions are held constant.

Long- and short-term orientation

How time is considered and valued has appeared in some representations of cultural dimensions (Matsumoto & Yoo, 2006), such as long- versus short-term orientation and present versus future orientation. This dimension reflects the degree of value placed on the future and planning versus the present and the acceptance of things as they are (e.g., traditionalism). In avoidance-oriented situations, threat cues serve the function of informing the person to act in a way to avoid punishment. In this threatening environment, the strategy is to focus on the present and be prepared to avoid the threats. Alternatively, the rewards associated with approach-oriented situations motivate people to adopt a longer term view for devising strategies to acquire the rewards. As a consequence, individuals with short-term orientation should be more reactive to avoidance motivation situations and individuals with long-term orientation should be more responsive to approach motivation situations. These predictions are displayed in Figure 3.

Research on the construal-level theory has alluded to the link between future construal and creativity. In particular, Förster, Friedman, and Liberman (2004) found that participants who adopted a future orientation through imagining their future selves to complete creativity tasks a year later (i.e., a long-term frame) outperformed those who adopted a present orientation through imagining themselves to complete the tasks a day later (i.e., a short-term frame). According to the construal-level theory, mental representations of distal entities such as the long-term objectives of strategic endeavors would induce people to think abstractly (for reviews, see Liberman, Trope, & Stephan, 2007; Trope & Liberman, 2010). Abstract thinking has previously been shown to facilitate creativity through supporting more loose and novel connections between concepts (Ward, Patterson, & Sifonis, 2004). Whereas a fixation on concrete details often leads to an impasse in creative tasks, abstraction facilitates restructuring to gain insights into the correct solutions (Ash & Wiley, 2006). Consistent with this logic, Förster and colleagues (2004) found that future construal benefits divergent thinking when tasks are framed abstractly rather than concretely, and benefits creative rather than analytical or detail-oriented problem solving (Förster et al., 2004). Linking creativity with motivational systems, research suggests that creativity is positively associated with approach motivation but negatively associated with avoidance motivation (Lichtenfeld, Elliot, Maier, & Pekrun, 2012; Mehta & Zhu, 2009).

Bridging these two lines of research, it is reasonable that a longer term, future orientation is conducive to creative thinking that is to a larger extent supported by approach motivation as opposed to avoidance motivation. Therefore, a multicultural workgroup with a future-focused outlook is likely to perform better in creative tasks that activate the approach motivation, whereas a multicultural workgroup with a present-focused outlook is likely to perform better in detail-oriented tasks that activate the avoidance motivation. For example, one could see how multicultural pharmaceutical development teams might face potential challenges as a function of short- and long-term orientation. The members of the workgroup that have a long-term orientation would be attracted to the developmental aspects of inventing a new drug that helps people and generates revenue for the organization (approaching rewards). Alternatively, the

short-term orientation members might be concerned with doing no harm and protecting the organizations' investments. These short-term oriented members might be more content to perform the detailed testing and research to insure that the drug is efficacious (avoiding threats). The manager of such a workgroup might have trials and tribulations because the members will implicitly hold different perspectives about the workgroup's purpose due to their different temporal orientations.

Short- and long-term orientations would also have implications for the types of tasks members of workgroup might choose to pursue. Workgroups with members having a short-term orientation would be more likely to attend to threat cues and then to react accordingly. These workgroup members are more likely to pursue execution tasks (McGrath, 1984), particularly ones that reduce potential harm or loss (e.g., firefighting crews). Alternatively, workgroups made up of members with long-term orientations are more likely to pursue planning tasks (McGrath, 1984), particularly ones that involve the acquisition of rewards, such as the long-range strategic planning by a corporate management team. Note that if workgroups are assigned tasks misaligned with their temporal orientations, undesirable consequences could result (e.g., long-term orientation confronting an impending disaster; short-term orientation preparing for an interplanetary voyage). Likewise, imagine the conflicting approaches of two bargaining teams that differ in short-term orientation (i.e., achieve an agreement soon to avoid potential costs) and long-term orientation (i.e., achieve the most rewarding agreement regardless of the time it will take).

A long-term orientation is consistent with a focus on long-term goals which would result from planning and investing in the future (Venaik, Zhu, & Brewer, 2013). Because attention is focused on the long-term, actions are not performed to produce immediate results, but are viewed as steps in longer termed sequence. Consequently, workgroup members who have long-term orientation may be more amenable to receiving training for a new software that is not yet implemented, but is expected to be ubiquitous in the future. In addition, a long-term orientation may place a focus on future benefits that accrue when a relationship is maintained, compared to a short-term orientation which draws attention to what relationships currently provide (Lopez-Navarro, Callarisa-Fiol, & Moliner-Tena, 2013). These differences in orientation have implications for how members invest in and commit to their workgroups (Naylor & Ilgen, 1984). A long-term orientation would be more likely to promote commitment to the workgroups and its social relationships with an accompanying willingness to endure hardships and to persist when facing adversity (Salancik, 1977). Because long-term orientation pushes planning and instigates commitment for workgroup members, it is likely to sustain any elevated levels of approach motivation that result from group involvement.

The influence of short-term and long-term orientations would have differential impact on workgroup development. Workgroup members often have to initially invest time to develop strategies to coordinate and collaborate (Park, Hinsz, & Ladbury, 2006) to successfully attain rewards that would later become available. However, these members may be required to make sacrifices or incur costs before many opportunities for rewards arrive. Thus, mutual trust often needs to be established with members with long-term orientation before they are willing to make personal commitments and investments. Workgroup members with short-term orientations are likely to see initial interactions as related to task execution and would want to protect their time

as an important resource. Consequently, multicultural workgroups made up of members with short-term and long-term orientations may have difficulty developing the trust that may be critical for lasting success and effectiveness. Members with short-term orientations may not see the benefit in building trust, nor appreciate the immediate value of commitment to the workgroup. Short-term oriented members may perceive loyalty to the workgroup as rather fleeting or superficial. As a result of the short-term oriented members' lack of commitment, members of multicultural workgroups with a long-term orientation may come to believe that the workgroup will not develop as a well-functioning unit, trust will not be established, and any commitment or personal investment will not be reciprocated. In these circumstances, the approach motivation that the workgroup might inspire among long-term oriented members will be thwarted. Such a result would be less likely to be observed if the workgroup would be homogeneous with regard to short- or long-term orientation.

Masculinity–femininity

Masculinity and femininity reflect beliefs and values about the activities, outcomes, and behaviors that individuals prefer. Masculinity indicates that assertiveness and the acquisition and control of resources are valued. Masculinity could also be labeled as materialism or instrumentality in that it favors acquisition. On the contrary, femininity reflects a greater value placed on caring for others, the quality of life, and interpersonal relationships. Femininity is also associated with social and expressive values. For motivational concerns, masculinity relates to achievement and individual decision making, while femininity relates to affiliation and group decision making (Best & Williams, 2001).

We argue that masculinity and femininity reflect more or less sensitivity to particular cues of threat or reward rather than directly relate to levels of approach and avoidance activity. Individuals higher in femininity would be more responsive to specific threat cues that relate to interpersonal relationships or quality of life compared to individuals lower in femininity. Similarly, masculinity would be more responsive to threats of losing the means of acquiring or gaining resources. Masculinity should also relate to sensitivity to reward cues that are indicative of access to or control of material resources or reward cues that satisfy their achievement motivation (Atkinson & Feather, 1966), whereas femininity would relate to sensitivity to reward cues indicative of stable interpersonal relationships. Consequently, if the intensity of particular threat and reward cues vary as it does in many strategic endeavors, masculinity and femininity will moderate how individuals will respond to those endeavors in specific ways. These predictions are illustrated in Figure 3.

Masculinity and femininity could be associated to greater or lesser degree with rewards and threats. Because rewards are generally found in resources, there should be greater sensitivity to reward cues by those higher in masculinity. In contrast, because threats are often associated with losses to or in relationships, there should be greater sensitivity to threat cues by those higher in femininity. Consequently, the avoidance motivation system may be more easily activated among those high in femininity while the approach system may be more easily activated among those high in masculinity. In other words, masculinity and femininity would moderate the influence of reward and threat cue intensity on the mechanisms associated with approach and avoidance motivation.

The differential relationship between masculinity and femininity and approach and avoidance motivation could be observed in how multicultural workgroups perform their tasks. It is expected that when undertaking tasks that require the acquisition of resources (e.g., finding oil or mining for energy sources), there is a greater alignment with groups having a more masculine orientation, and therefore group members' experience increases in approach motivation (e.g., drill, explore, invest; see Fulmer et al., 2010; Higgins, 1987, 2000). On the contrary, if the tasks workgroups undertake could benefit relationship building or maintenance, the greater fit experienced by groups having a feminine orientation could increase their approach motivation. For example, tasks with the aims of providing financial stability and increasing quality of life, or task contexts where multicultural group members build sustainable work relationships for pursuing a common goal, should be more likely to promote the approach motivation of high femininity workgroups. If task performance does not provide much opportunity for these types of femininity gains, then approach motivation would be more likely to be activated in those high in masculinity than for those high in femininity.

Multicultural workgroups might also perform tasks that involve protecting resources or defending a community from threat (e.g., international disaster aid organizations). For such task situations, those higher in masculinity should experience increases in avoidance motivation that would enhance the fight response to protect resources. Similarly, if the task was perceived as that of defending a community from devastation (e.g., Hurricane Katrina in New Orleans), then those high in femininity might also experience increases in avoidance motivation so that a sense of community is maintained and that its members can have a higher quality life. However, if the protection of resources has no real social value (e.g., United Nations team protecting a cache of diamonds), then greater activation of avoidance motivation (FFFS) could be found in those high in masculinity, and less so for those high in femininity. Alternatively, if the task for the multicultural workgroup is more about instilling good will (e.g., safeguarding a relationship between countries such as the International Olympic Committee), those high in femininity would perhaps experience the greatest gains in approach motivation, while those low in femininity would be less eager and committed to the task.

In the examples described in this section, we have been focusing on the threats and rewards that are embedded in the situation and how masculinity and femininity relate to these situations. Alternatively, we could focus on features of the multicultural workgroup itself. For example, if the multicultural workgroup is predominantly task-focused, self-disclosure is minimal, competition is high, assertiveness is the norm, and dominating members have the most influence, then those high in masculinity would be more likely to find the group rewarding and experience larger increases in approach motivation relative to those low in masculinity or high in femininity. In contrast, if the workgroup is one that allows members to express their views openly and that respect for others is prioritized, then those high in femininity (vs. low in femininity or high in masculinity) would find the group especially rewarding and exhibit stronger approach motivation. Relatedly, multicultural workgroups in many organizations are formed strictly for task completion and workgroup members are not expected to invest much time and effort to cultivate strong relationships. Such workgroups that are task-specific, with limited communication and socioemotional exchange, might be less rewarding for members high in femininity but especially rewarding for those high in masculinity.

In summary, workgroup members who have relatively strong masculinity and femininity dispositions are likely to respond with differential levels of approach and avoidance motivation, particularly if those dispositions intersect with particularly threatening or rewarding aspects of the situation they face. We argue that a nuanced analysis of multicultural workgroup interaction and performance will be informed by understanding the cultural dispositions of the members, the task situations they face, and the way that threat and reward cues would activate avoidance and approach motivation.

Analytic–holistic reasoning

The analytic–holistic distinction reflects how people reason about objects and how events occur in the world (Choi, Koo, & Choi, 2007). Prior research provides consistent evidence that analytic reasoning is more prevalent in Western cultures while holistic reasoning is more prevalent in Eastern cultures (Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Varnum, Grossmann, Kitayama, & Nisbett, 2010). Analytic reasoning emphasizes independent objects that are separate and differentiated from their backgrounds. Holistic reasoning emphasizes interconnections and relationships among objects while paying attention to contextual influences (Ji, Peng, & Nisbett, 2000). With a global attentional focus, individuals who think holistically tend to see objects within their background and attribute causality to situational factors. Conversely, individuals who think analytically tend to attribute causality to the target's intentionality or dispositional attributes (cf. fundamental attribution error).

Individuals who vary in terms of analytic and holistic reasoning should also vary in how they respond to situational cues. As approach and avoidance motivation systems are activated by cues within a situational context, individuals higher in holistic reasoning are more likely to attend to both the cues and the situational contexts in which the cues are embedded. However, individuals higher in analytic reasoning are more likely to focus attention on the threat and reward cues produced in the situation. With more focused attention on the threat and reward cues, individuals higher in analytical reasoning will be more reactive to the cues and display more extreme responses driven by the approach and avoidance motivation systems than individuals who are higher in holistic reasoning (see Figure 3).

Cultural psychologists have also demonstrated that thinking in a linear and noncontradictory manner is more congruent with people from Western cultures, who tend to endorse an analytic reasoning style. On the contrary, the holistic thinking style that acknowledges change, contradiction, and nonlinear development of events is more aligned with people from Eastern cultures (Ji, Nisbett, & Su, 2001; Ji et al., 2000). Therefore, it is plausible that a multicultural workgroup that follows a predominantly holistic reasoning style might be simultaneously motivated by goals to approach rewards and avoid threats, whereas a workgroup that abides by a predominantly analytical reasoning style might be motivated by either an approach goal or an avoidance goal at a particular point in time. Multicultural workgroups that consist of members holding divergent orientations to analytical–holistic reasoning will need to resolve these motivational differences that arise from their reasoning styles.

These differences between analytic and holistic reasoning will influence the strategies for how informational cues and contexts become the focus of attention in workgroup problem solving

(Laughlin, 2013). Workgroup members who reason analytically are likely to focus more on the solution to the problem whereas those who reason holistically will also consider the problem context. Both reasoning styles will consider the givens for the problem, but members with a holistic reasoning style are more likely to attend to the contradictions in the problem situation. Analytic reasoning members might work through the problem in a methodical fashion. In contrast, holistic reasoning workgroup members might ask more questions about the problem and be able to perceive hidden constraints and implied assumptions that would limit creative problem solving (e.g., thinking outside the box). From this line of reasoning, there are interesting reasons to believe that workgroups made up of members who reason analytically or holistically might differ in their capabilities to solve hidden profile problems (Reimer, Reimer, & Hinsz, 2010; Stasser & Titus, 1987, 2003).

For organizations that have multicultural workgroups confronting challenging problems (e.g., multinational corporations with multicultural research and development teams), differences in analytic and holistic thinking styles could pose some challenges as well as possibilities. Because workgroups members who exhibit both analytic and holistic styles will follow different strategies for solving challenging problems, the interactions and problem solving processes will be awkward, but with the members being unaware of the differences that contribute to the unease (cf. Tindale, Sheffey, & Scott, 1993). Their discussions may also be argumentative because the multicultural members do not share the same mental model regarding how to go about solving the problem at hand (Hinsz, 1995). Nevertheless, if workgroup members are able to consider the problem from perspectives different from the ones they would normally apply, the multicultural workgroup may uncover unique approaches and creative solutions that would otherwise be hidden to them given the limitation of using one style of reasoning.

These differences of workgroup members having holistic and analytic reasoning styles toward challenging problems become more complicated as one considers the inherent threats or rewards that might be associated with different solutions. Whereas members who reason analytically will attend to the threat and reward cues in the environment, holistic reasoning members are likely to appreciate these threat and reward cues as well as the processes that contribute to how the threats and rewards emerge. So, analytic reasoners are likely to focus on identifying the cues relevant to the problem, while holistic reasoners are likely to also pursue explanations of how the cues are presented. This difference can be important for multicultural workgroups that suffer from a lack of cohesion and internal strife and discord. The analytically reasoning members may see one feature as the reason for the workgroups troubles (e.g., attributing cause to weaknesses of the group leader) whereas the holistically reasoning members may see the problem as arising due to not just one feature (e.g., group leader) but other situational variables as well (e.g., untenable economic climate). In this way, multicultural workgroups having members that differ in their holistic and analytical reasoning styles might approach their internal workgroup dynamics with different perspectives and strategies as well as contribute to the workgroup's problem solving in different ways.

Differences in holistic and analytic reasoning might also influence how members engage with their workgroups. Because members who reason holistically are more contextual and see the interconnections and relationships among factors, they may be more drawn into the workgroup. Because of their attention to context, holistic reasoning members may be more likely to be

influenced to adopt tendencies of the group (e.g., group polarization; Myers & Lamm, 1976; group accentuation, Hinsz, Tindale, & Nagao, 2008; conformity, Allen, 1965; groupthink, Janis, 1982). As holistic reasoners engage with the information being encountered, they are likely to suspend judgment until they see what their workgroup decides, and draw upon the social reality of the workgroup for interpreting the information (Echterhoff, Higgins, & Levine, 2009). Consequently, relative to members having a more analytical reasoning style, workgroup members who reason holistically should be more susceptible to the informational and social influences of the workgroup. Holistic reasoners would anchor their thoughts and decisions on the perspectives of the workgroup and then adjust their beliefs and preferences based on the unique information that they may individually possess. If analytically reasoning members reverse this anchoring and adjustment process, then they are likely to initiate workgroup deliberation by introducing their own opinions, which will dominate early discussion and result in the holistic reasoning members being swayed more toward the opinions of the analytical reasoning members (more conforming and susceptible to influence), rather than the reverse. Consequently, multicultural workgroups made up of analytic and holistic reasoning style members may follow a pattern of initial domination of the discussion by the analytically reasoning members who may establish a social reality that the holistically reasoning members then accommodate.

Summary

Cultural dispositions are predicted to influence a number of the mechanisms associated with the approach and avoidance motivation systems activation. For workgroup members pursuing strategic endeavors, specific cultural dispositions are identified that relate to the operations of the approach and avoidance motivation systems (i.e., cognitive, affective, motivational, core beliefs). We posit that the impact of cultural dispositions is unlikely to be limited to one specific mechanism (e.g., masculinity influencing not only the cognitive aspects, but also affective aspects of reward perception). The underlying conceptualization demonstrates how motivational systems attest to the complex relationships among a variety of operations (see Figure 2), such that changes in one operation (e.g., analytical reasoning with attention to cues) may also influence other aspects of a system (e.g., holistic reasoning and efficacy beliefs). This is depicted by the bi-directional arrows linking different mechanisms of the motivational systems in the figure. Our descriptions of cultural disposition influences cluster into a general prediction of moderation, in that individuals having one cultural disposition will be more responsive in one motivational situation (e.g., approach) than the other motivational situation (e.g., avoidance).

Notably, as indicated above, the cultural dimensions considered do not uniformly have moderating effects on the mechanisms and processes of the motivational systems theory for group involvement. Masculinity and femininity were generally described as impacting the sensitivity workgroup members might have toward specific types of reward and threat cues. Moreover, the discussion of individualism and collectivism suggested that dispositions might have a more complicated impact on mechanisms and processes than could be imagined with moderation alone. Nevertheless, the general conceptualization strives to understand the impact of cultural dispositions on the processes and mechanisms of motivational systems theory via moderation.

Cultural Dispositions and Reactions to Threat and Reward Intensity

The motivational systems theory for group involvement introduced earlier stresses that many strategic endeavors organizational personnel execute can be characterized by threats and rewards. The theory proposes how people are motivated to respond to these situations, and how group involvement leads to a different pattern of responses compared with individuals. However, strategic endeavors can vary in terms of how threatening or rewarding they may be. We earlier described how cultural dispositions will impact the influence of threatening and rewarding situations on cognitive, affective, motivational, and behavioral responses. We have yet to explicitly consider how the influence of cultural dispositions on the motivational responses may vary with the intensity of the rewarding or threatening nature of the situation. This issue is conceptually important because different cultural dispositions may have stronger or weaker influences depending on how intense the situation is in terms of the threatening and rewarding cues. Consideration of this issue adds another level of complexity to our examination of the influence of cultural dispositions on the thoughts and actions associated with workgroups.

One conventional view of how dispositions influence responses to situations is that situations constrain the influence of dispositions. That is, the more intense the situation, the less opportunity for cultural dispositions to influence people's responses. This reflects a general view that strong situations have such a dominating influence on behavior that the effects of individual differences in dispositions have little chance to emerge (Snyder & Ickes, 1985). Strong and weak situations could be seen as ones in which the rewards and threats in the situation have greater or lesser intensity. Clearly, cultural dispositions influence reactions to situations having greater and lesser intensity of rewards and threats. However, some cultural dispositions will have more influence on reactions when the threatening or rewarding situations are more intense.

Cultural dispositions, derived from immersive experiences in a culture, are characteristics people bring with them to a situation. Thus, cultural dispositions will have more predictive power in strong situations characterized by more intense threat or reward cues because these cues activate the cultural meaning system and normative expectations embedded within the situation (Atran, Medin, & Ross, 2005; Leung & Cohen, 2007). That is, strong situations may evoke stronger reactions from individuals who are higher on the disposition. This question can be examined with reference to whether the greater responsiveness associated with a given cultural disposition is a consequence of receiving greater threat or reward cues in a strong situation.

Church (2000) offered a theory of the interaction between culture and individual differences that is applied for explaining behaviors in strong and weak situations. The theory states that cultural dispositions influence individuals' cognitions and behaviors by providing psychological meaning to the situational contexts associated with the cultural dispositions. Having well-defined and pervasive contextual factors such as norms, roles, and values occurring in the situation make the situation stronger. These theoretical notions are similar to societal tightness-looseness (Gelfand, Nishii, & Raver, 2006; Gelfand et al., 2011). In tight societies, adherence to norms is stringent and sanctions against those who violate norms can be severe. In contrast, loose societies have norms that are seen more as guidelines and people who violate norms are tolerated to a greater

extent. Gelfand and colleagues reason that societal tightness results in different psychological adaptations at the individual level that evolve into a set of knowledge structures and stronger regulatory strength to motivate norm-abiding behavior. Conformity, risk avoidance, and preference for stability are greater among individuals in tight societies. A unique perspective arises by integrating societal tightness with the notion of situational strength to predict how closely norms are followed (Church, 2000). The resulting hypothesis is that strong situations, such as when more threat and reward cues are present, are more likely to induce *greater* compliance with societal norms or cultural values in tight societies relative to loose societies.

Based on this hypothesis, the predicted pattern for the effects of cultural dispositions in conditions of low and high intensity of reward and threat cues can be outlined. For example, individuals high in uncertainty avoidance are expected to exhibit a greater tendency to avoid and reduce uncertainty under conditions of high levels of threat or reward compared with when low levels are present. An intensely threatening situation may cause uncertainty avoidant individuals to vigilantly examine the environment for all possible threats and act to reduce those threats. A highly rewarding situation may also lead uncertainty avoidant individuals to examine the environment thoroughly to acquire more information about receiving rewards. In contrast, low uncertainty avoidant individuals may not become more vigilant of potential threats and simply choose to accept the rewards as they become available to them. As this example illustrates, the prediction is that individuals are more responsive to strong situations with intense threat and reward cues. This greater responsiveness will occur in ways consistent with the cultural orientation represented by the underlying disposition.

Summary

We describe a theoretical framework for understanding how approach and avoidance motivational systems influence mechanisms associated with cognitive, motivational, affective, and behavioral responses. The earlier sections describe how the approach, avoidance, and inhibition motivational systems influence individual responses. The motivational systems theory for group involvement extended these initial notions to describe how group involvement would influence the nature of the responses. The combined individual and group aspects of motivational systems theory provide a comprehensive framework for illuminating how groups and individuals respond in situations characterized by rewards and threats. We expand upon motivational systems theory to consider the role of individuals' cultural dispositions in threatening and rewarding situations. Given the reality of increased involvement of workgroup members in multicultural strategic endeavors, the conceptual guidelines regarding how individuals' cultural dispositions are linked to responses to endeavors typified by reward and threat cues are deemed highly relevant and timely.

We describe motivational systems theory as an innovative approach for how group contexts interact with motivational systems to influence thoughts, feelings, and actions (Park & Hinsz, 2006). Motivational systems theory suggests that the rewarding or threatening cues people confront in a situation activate approach or avoidance motivational systems. These are the types of situations that organizations pursue as part of their strategic endeavors. Threatening cues in a

situation activate the BIS of avoidance motivation. In general, BIS activation results in negative affect and leads individuals to vigilantly process for threatening information in the situation. Rewarding cues, on the contrary, activate the approach motivation system. Approach activation results in positive affect and provides opportunities for people to explore the environment for additional rewards and to conduct a quick appraisal of the rewarding features of the situation.

Although motivational systems theory provides a strong foundation for considering the thoughts, feelings, and actions of individuals, we also focus on understanding group responses to threatening and rewarding situations. We propose that group members come to situations with specific beliefs about group functioning. These beliefs then lead group members to respond differentially in threatening and rewarding situations. Group involvement is predicted to lead to perceptions of safety in numbers, which dampens BIS/avoidance activity. Therefore, relative to individuals, group members are expected to have less attention to threat cues, less vigilant processing of unpleasant materials from the situation, lower negative affect ratings, and less avoidance motivation. In addition, perceptions of strength in numbers will lead group members to have greater BAS/approach system activity, resulting in greater attention to reward cues, more elaborate processing of the pleasant materials from the situation, more positive affect, and greater motivation to pursue goals related to the strategic endeavor. Because groups have differential responses to situations that give rise to BAS/approach motivation (enhanced) and BIS/avoidance motivation (diminished), the theory helps explain the complexities of the differences in the ways groups and individuals respond to rewarding and threatening situations.

The theoretical approach described herein goes beyond existing theory and literature on motivational systems to consider the ways that cultural dimensions influence group members' reactions in rewarding and threatening situations. We focused on how five different cultural dimensions might influence team members' reactions in a situation. In particular, we predict that uncertainty avoidance and masculinity–femininity should influence perceptions of rewards and threats, while analytic–holistic reasoning and long- and short-term orientation should influence the processing of information in threatening and rewarding situations. In addition, individualism and collectivism are predicted to influence the core beliefs about strength and safety in numbers that unit members hold in approach and avoidance situations. Cultural dispositions often relate to specific viewpoints and preferences, as well as psychological needs that people are motivated to fulfill. Consequently, there are a variety of ways in which cultural dimensions influence how workgroup members might react to situations related to a strategic endeavor.

By examining individuals' cultural dispositions in the context of motivational systems theory, we seek to gain a better understanding of how workgroups and individuals with specific levels of the cultural dispositions (e.g., high uncertainty avoidance) would respond to rewarding and threatening situations. Furthermore, we can extend the arguments to predict whether workgroups would react similarly or differently depending on the degree they possess certain cultural dispositions (e.g., low holistic reasoning). Although speculative at this point, we feel it is important to offer examples of theoretically based predictions that describe cultural influences on the experience of workgroups. In doing so, we hope to illustrate how knowledge can be applied to make informed decisions about whether homogeneous or types of heterogeneous workgroups would be more suitable for a given task. Due to the proliferation of multicultural workgroups facilitated by ever increasing global connectedness, it will become key for managers and

members of organizations to understand how and why their teammates respond to and pursue strategic endeavors having significant reward or threat ramifications. Another benefit of this approach is that it can inform the training approach of leaders and managers. Motivational systems theory highlights the advantage for leaders and managers to understand the basic thinking, feeling, and acting of their subordinates as well as to expand their knowledge of how to tailor their motivational strategies to align with the subordinates' specific cultural dispositions. Importantly, by also drawing attention to the importance of contextual factors (e.g., task type, composition of the workgroup), we hope to stimulate ideas for how the situation can be effectively tailored to fit the tendencies and preferences of a given workgroup.

Many complex and challenging situations have aspects of both approach (opportunity and reward) and avoidance (safety and security) motives. Therefore, the implications offered are relevant for a variety of organizational contexts (e.g., government, industry, educational). For example, implications of this analysis are relevant to individuals and workgroups who must detect, decide, and respond to threatening situations (e.g., U.S.S. Vincennes; Collyer & Malecki, 1998). Similarly, it is highly relevant to stock and bond mutual fund managers with differing cultural dispositions who constantly make decisions reflecting risk of rewards and threats of loss.

There are numerous practical implications of our cultural disposition influences in workgroups formulation. A thorough discussion of these implications is beyond the scope of the current article, but we encourage researchers to contribute a review article to address the extensive applications of this formulation for multicultural workgroups. For example, multicultural workgroups are actively involved in many international aid organizations (Hinsz & Ladbury, 2012b). The many examples used in this article illustrate that multicultural workgroups appear in many domains, so the application of our conceptual formulation could be applied in those situations as they arise. Relatedly, researchers can further develop theoretical frameworks to study how the match and mismatch between workgroup member's dominant cultural dispositions and the organizational domains (e.g., health care, service, military) would affect members' motivation and performance.

A topic that we have not directly addressed in this article is the composition of workgroups in terms of member dispositions. Although we noted that members may be homogeneous with regard to some dispositions or cultural backgrounds, it is much more likely that members will differ to some degree on the cultural dispositions. Any differences in member characteristics are often labeled as heterogeneity. However, there can be many different kinds and degrees of heterogeneity. Consequently, it is important to recognize the different kinds of composition of member dispositions in workgroups because each composition type would reflect a different context which could result in different workgroup responses. Like many other dispositions (e.g., moods, personality), the composition of cultural dispositions in workgroups requires much more conceptual and empirical effort to determine the nature of the processes and outcomes. We look forward to seeing such efforts and can recommend that a social decision schemes approach might be quite illuminating (Hinsz, 1999).

Our formulation of the ways that cultural dispositions can influence the thoughts, feelings, and actions of workgroups and their members draws upon research and theory in a number of domains: small groups, group performance, cultural psychology, mood and affect, differential

psychology, decision making under uncertainty and risk, information processing in groups, mood influences in task-performing groups, and approach and avoidance motivation. The approach also draws heavily upon motivational systems theory to develop models of (a) individual and group reactions to threatening and rewarding situations, (b) how cultural dispositions influence these reactions to situations commonly occurring in organizational settings, and (c) how cultural dispositions influence the nature of reactions to the intensity of rewarding and threatening situations. The emphases on cultural dispositions and their influence on human thoughts, feelings, and actions address how to identify and quantify cultural variability in ways that contribute to understanding group members' motivational differences. Furthermore, this article provides an evidence-based approach for considering how organizations might select, place, and train members more effectively; plan strategic endeavors with greater chances of success; and effectively participate in situations involving multicultural workgroups. It is our hope that the proposed formulation can foster research efforts to gain a nuanced understanding of harnessing multicultural workgroups for effective navigation of reward or threat intensive situations in collaborations that involve culturally similar or dissimilar workgroup members.

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