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경영학박사학위논문

AFFECTIVE DISSIMILARITY
AND INDIVIDUAL PERFORMANCE
IN WORK GROUPS

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AFFECTIVE DISSIMILARITY AND INDIVIDUAL PERFORMANCE IN WORK GROUPS

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Dedicated

To my daughter, Jenna

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ABSTRACT

AFFECTIVE DISSIMILARITY AND INDIVIDUAL PERFORMANCE IN WORK GROUPS

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This dissertation examines how an individual's dispositional affect may interact with those of group members to generate important individual outcomes, such as helping behavior and change-oriented behavior. Drawing upon research in relational demography and affect, this study focuses specifically on the effects of dissimilarity between a person's affect and that of others in the same work group in terms of the individual outcomes of that person. Whereas prior studies have overemphasized the collective character of the group based on the similarity-attraction paradigm and have largely predicted negative consequences of individual dissimilarity, this study explores the possibility that being affectively different may lead to positive outcomes. Social psychological research, such as uniqueness theory and optimal distinctiveness theory, suggests that differentiation in itself is the basic human drive behind how an individual selects a social identity even when working dependently within groups. The present study identifies an intervening mechanism that opens the possibility for both positive

and negative effects of affective dissimilarity on individual outcomes through examining various mediating variables—such as identity-related, interpersonal, and task-related variables—and integrating different types of outcomes, including both relationship and change-oriented behaviors. Moreover, this dissertation provides a multilevel conceptualization of affective dynamics in groups and examines whether the individual outcomes of affective dissimilarity may vary depending on the group affective context of the individual. This study also examines the moderating role of leaders' emotion management behavior (LEMB) on the relationship between members' affective dissimilarity and their identity-related cognition. Multilevel analyses of data collected from 293 employees from 66 work teams reveal that affective dissimilarity serves as a basis for individual distinctiveness or differentiation, which in turn leads to a risk-taking orientation and change-oriented behavior of the individual. In addition, the results of this study show that positive affect (PA) diversity neutralizes the negative effects of PA dissimilarity on group identification, whereas it has facilitating effects on individual differentiation, confirming the context-dependency of the affective processes. LEMB is found to intensify the positive influence of PA dissimilarity on individual differentiation. In conclusion, affective processes in groups should be conceptualized as context-dependent, multilevel phenomena that require further elaboration of their boundary contingencies.

Keywords:

Affective dissimilarity, Affective diversity, Helping, Positive deviance, Social identity

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

With the rise of team-based organizations, individuals are likely to work with people from different backgrounds, who have different perspectives, and distinct emotions in collaborative and interdependent relationships (Williams, Parker, & Turner, 2007). As dealing with differences becomes increasingly important, a topic that warrants attention is the effects of a person's dissimilarity to others in the work group on the psychological and behavioral outcomes of the dissimilar person (Chattopadhyay, 2003). A recent development in this research has been termed "relational demography approach" (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989), which proposes that an individual's experience of demographic dissimilarity (i.e., age, gender, and race) from other team members influences his or her attitudes and behaviors regarding the team. Thus, whereas surface-level, demographic differences have been the main focus of the literature, the deep-level, psychological features of work teams are now garnering more attention (Harrison, Price, Gavin & Florey, 2002).

Beyond simple demographic characteristics, personality traits are valid and defining features of an individual member's personal characteristics by which people identify differences and define psychological groups (Barsade & Gibson, 1998; Huang, 2009). In team contexts, demographics can be a first screening filter, but personality traits are more likely to predict long-term relationships among teammates. Within a work team, individual members are interdependent, and they interact face-to-face with

one another, developing such team dynamics as the development of shared vocabularies, trust, and strong norms (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). An individual member's personality traits may interact with those of teammates to affect these team processes significantly and, ultimately, long-term team effectiveness and sustainability (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005).

Although much less frequently explored in the literature, dispositional affect—a stable and enduring personality trait expressed by the tendency to respond to situations in positive or negative way (Kaplan et al., 2009)—has been shown to have a strong influence on individual-level behaviors in groups (Isen & Baron, 1991; Staw, Sutton, & Pelled, 1994) as well as on group-level processes and outcomes (George, 1996; Kelly & Barsade, 2001). As a positive or negative frame of mind, dispositional affect is found to play a significant role with regard to interpersonal dynamics as well as the individual's work attitudes and behaviors (Barsade & Gibson, 1998; Ng & Sorensen, 2012). By causing people to communicate and act a certain way (positively or negatively), dispositional affect may have significant consequences on such interactions in the workplace as relationships between colleagues, between bosses and subordinates, and among team members. Despite its importance, the implications of affective difference or dissimilarity in members of the same team have rarely been studied in the relational demography literature (Barsade et al., 2000).

As such, the present study aims to figure out how an individual's dispositional affect may interact with those of group members to generate important individual outcomes, such as helping behavior and change-oriented behavior, focusing on the

effects related to a person's affective dissimilarity to others in his or her workgroup. Previous research on group dynamics has overemphasized the collective character of the group; however, individual dissimilarity needs to be considered, given that differentiation in itself is the drive behind how an individual selects a social identity even when working dependently within groups (Kearney, Gebert, & Voelpel, 2009). For example, social psychological research, such as uniqueness theory (Snyder & Fromkin, 1980) and optimal distinctiveness theory (Brewer, 1991), suggests the value of adopting a dispersion model in research on needs in teams, arguing that individuals seek to establish a moderate sense of belongingness and distinctiveness in relation to other team members (Park, Spitzmuller, & DeShon, 2013). Thus, I will examine the relative standing of the individual within the team in terms of dispositional affect. Furthermore, by exploring multilevel dynamics, I will examine whether the individual outcomes of affective dissimilarity may vary, depending on the individual's affective group context.

Dispositional Affect and Performance

Regarding the relationships between dispositional affect and performance, there have been two opposing positions: the *happier-and-smarter* versus the *sadder-but-wiser* hypotheses (Staw & Barsade, 1993). The prevailing hypothesis has been the happier-and-smarter hypothesis, but recent research suggests that both PA and NA are functional and adaptive, and that they should be considered from a dual-tuning perspective (George, 2011; George & Zhou, 2007).

The happier-and-smarter hypothesis supports the beneficial effects of PA.

According to this position, PA has beneficial effects on both cognitive and interpersonal performance. Regarding cognitive performance, PA is found to be associated with enhanced cognitive flexibility (Isen, 1999), a broad repertoire of cognitions and actions (Fredrickson, 1998, 2001), problem-focused coping, and better adaptation under stress, whereas NA is associated with a narrow perceptual field of input, disengagement from goals, focus on stressful feelings, denial, and distancing (Scheier, Weintraub, & Carver, 1986; Staw & Barsade, 1993). In terms of interpersonal behavior, people with high PA are found to be more cooperative and interpersonally competent (Staw & Barsade, 1993). Because it leads to sociable and benevolent acts (Isen & Simmonds, 1978), PA is found to increase helping behavior (Cunningham et al., 1990; Organ, 1988). PA is also beneficial in interpersonal conflict situations because it leads to integrative solutions in negotiating contexts (Carnevale & Isen, 1986). Finally, through enhancing interpersonal skills and social influence, PA is found to be effective in situations in which interpersonal persuasion and negotiation are necessary (Cacioppo, 1986; Cialdini, 1984).

The sadder-but-wiser hypothesis supports the beneficial effects of NA. In terms of cognitive performance, the sadder-but-wiser hypothesis proposes that individuals with negative affectivity are sadder but wiser because they are relatively immune to an optimism bias, an illusion of control, and a broad range of self-protective biases, thus being more accurate in their judgments than those with positive affectivity (Alloy & Abramson, 1979; Staw & Barsade, 1993; Taylor & Brown, 1988). Regarding interpersonal behavior, recent reports have identified beneficial effects from NA on interpersonal behavior, contrary to prior research on altruism (Forgas, 2011). According

to Forgas, NA is found to produce greater fairness, whereas PA is shown to increase assertiveness and selfishness in interpersonal situations. When managing the conflicting demands of self-interest and the norm of fairness (Haselhuhn & Mellers, 2005; Pillutla & Murningham, 1995), PA promotes a more internally oriented, selfish processing style, whereas NA promotes a more externally focused, accommodative processing style, with greater attention to the external norms of fairness (Bless & Fiedler, 2006).

Dispositional Affect in Group Research

Although previous studies have addressed mainly the intrapersonal effects of dispositional affect, more studies have begun to investigate the interpersonal effects of dispositional affect (Barsade et al., 2000). For example, George's (1990) study of department store sales teams operationalizes group affective tone by measuring the sales team's aggregate dispositional positive and negative affectivity. Studies that address the interpersonal effects of dispositional affect, however, emphasized the mean level of affect in favor of affective similarity or homogeneity (Barsade et al., 2000). Affective homogeneity has been identified as a contributing factor to group performance in terms of cooperation, coordination, and collective efficacy (George, 1990, 1995).

Nevertheless, a mean-level approach may not properly inform our understanding of a curvilinear relationship between two variables. For example, extraversion is found to have a unique curvilinear relationship with team outcomes (Barry & Stewart, 1997). According to the research, teams with moderate proportions of extroverts had higher levels of task focus and performance than did all other teams.

Barrick et al.'s (1998) study similarly demonstrates that variability on extraversion is found to be positively related to supervisor ratings of the team's long-term capacity to work together. Thus, affective dissimilarity may further expand our understanding of affect at work by shedding new light on the interpersonal influence of dispositional affect.

The Effects of Affective Dissimilarity: “Birds of a Feather Flock Together” versus “Opposites Attract”

Previous research on organizational demography literature has offered two possible perspectives on the results from affective dissimilarity (Barsade & Gibson, 1998). The first is a variant of the *Birds of a Feather Flock Together* hypothesis, which suggests that similarity between individuals generate attraction (Byrne, 1971). This similarity-attraction paradigm accords with supplementary fit theory, which suggests that when people's characteristics are similar to those of others in their social environment, positive outcomes are generated (Kristof, 1996). Although the definition of what is considered similar in this line of research has not explicitly addressed affect but has been based on a variety of dimensions, mainly demographic variables, affect can be a significant dimension, given that the very construct of attraction is thought of as “feeling” for one another, and that affect has a direct psychological link to the processes that cause similarity-attraction (Berscheid, 1985).

The second perspective is based on the “Opposites Being Beneficial” hypothesis, which advocates for the beneficial effects of dissimilarity. Although most

work in organizational demography has found support for the similarity-attraction hypothesis (Williams & O'Reilly, 1998), there has been some support for the "Opposites Being Beneficial" hypothesis, particularly in terms of creativity (e.g., Jackson, 1992; McLeod, Lobel, & Cox, 1996; Watson, Kumar, & Michaelsen, 1993). Diversity has been reported to promote creativity, innovation, problem solving, and ultimately group performance when groups can capitalize on cognitive diversity, the degree to which group members differ in terms of expertise, experiences, and perspectives (Cox & Blake, 1991; Hambrick, Cho, & Chen, 1996; Miller et al., 1998). Whereas past studies on diversity have focus on benefits that can be derived from cognitive diversity, there may also be benefits to having affectively different members in groups beyond the cognitive focus.

Affective dissimilarity may lead to more emotional checks and balances and consequently to better outcomes. Group members with different affectivity may enact differing affective roles that are adaptive for their group, and these complementary affective tendencies may lead to greater group adaptation and outcomes (Barsade & Gibson, 1998). For example, a group comprised of homogeneously positive people may be led to unrealistic euphoria, optimism, and groupthink, whereas injecting these affectively homogeneous groups with some negative people, who tend to be more critical and cautious, may lead to greater emotional balance and thus better group processes and outcomes (Barsade & Gibson, 1998).

In focusing on the outcomes of state affect that represents transient fluctuations in mood (Diener & Emmons, 1984), Tiedens et al.' (2004) conceptual study suggests

that affective dissimilarity may facilitate creativity, decision making, and the ability to persuade outsiders through facilitating both intuitive (divergent) and systematic (convergent) types of thinking, and through providing variation in perspective. George and King's (2007) conceptual paper on the effects of state affect also supports the potential benefits of affective dissimilarity in groups, proposing the dual tuning effects of both the positive and negative moods experienced by different team members. On the same line of reasoning, George and King raise some concern over the potential dysfunctions of affective homogeneity in groups. Given that our feelings inform us about ourselves and our surroundings, affective homogeneity may lead to the development of a single-shared reality that provides members with a false sense of confidence and certainty, and may result in invalid closure and poorer decision-making (George & King, 2007).

In addition to being beneficial for task-related outcomes, affective dissimilarity may have positive effects on interpersonal relationships ("Opposites Attract"). The "Opposites Attract" hypothesis is supported by the need complementarity literature (Schutz, 1958). According to Schutz's (1958) need complementarity theory, in some instances people feel attraction for dissimilar others who have complementary tendencies. For example, a high PA person who has high needs for social dominance and leadership roles might feel attraction for a low PA person who is reserved and is a follower because the complementary tendencies of the latter satisfy the need for the social dominance of the former.

Research on interpersonal relationships also suggests that dissimilarity, rather

than similarity (the reverse-score variable for dissimilarity, the opposite side of dissimilarity), in certain characteristics leads to rewarding interactions (Dryer & Horowitz, 1997; Glomb & Welsh, 2005). According to interpersonal relationship theories, interpersonal behaviors can be described in terms of two dimensions: *affiliation* and *control* (Dryer & Horowitz, 1997). The affiliation dimension ranges from friendliness to hostility, and interpersonal behaviors along the affiliation dimension invite similar responses (e.g., friendliness invites friendliness). In contrast, the control dimension ranges from dominance to submission, and interpersonal behaviors along the control dimension invite complementary responses (e.g., dominance invites submission). Thus, dissimilarity in certain characteristics on the control dimension would have positive effects on interpersonal relationships.

As manifestations of a behavioral approach system, PA is stimulated more by reward than by punishment, such that a PA person would be willing to risk social rejection when being socially dominant and attempting to form friendships. By contrast, NA, as a behavioral inhibition system, is more directed by punishment than by reward, such that the possible punishment of social rejection would be enough to deter an NA person from attempting to form new relationships (Kaplan et al, 2009; Ng & Sorensen, 2012; Watson, Wiese, Vaidya, & Tellegen, 1999). In terms of the control dimension, therefore, affective dissimilarity may have positive consequences on interactions in social settings according to the principle of complementarity.

Empirical evidence supporting the interpersonal complementarity hypothesis can be also identified in Neuman et al.' (1999) study in which diversity in group-level

extraversion and neuroticism (traits often compared to PA and NA, respectively) is found to be positively related to group performance. Drawing upon Muchinsky and Monahan's (1987) supplementary and complementary models of person-environment fit, which suggest the compatibility of group members as a function of similar and diverse traits, respectively, Neuman et al.'s study proposed that for the traits of extraversion and neuroticism, the complementary model best describes the more effective work teams. A heterogeneous team in terms of extraversion, for instance, may perform effectively because some members enact the role of leading and being outgoing, whereas other members fill the role of following and being reserved. Conversely, if all team members are very outgoing or very reserved, the team will perform ineffectively because of either power struggles or a void in leadership (Neuman et al., 1999). While Neuman et al.'s study focuses on the Big Five personality traits rather than on dispositional affect, it has implications for the complementary contributions of affective traits.

Although some conceptual studies, including Tiedens et al. (2004) and George and King (2007), point to a theoretical possibility that being affectively different may lead to positive consequences, empirical evidence for the beneficial effects of affective dissimilarity/diversity is lacking. For example, Barsade et al.'s (2000) empirical examination of affective dissimilarity/diversity confirmed only its negative influences on individual attitudes, group processes, and performance, drawing mainly upon similarity-attraction theory (Byrne, 1971). Sy and Choi (2013) have suggested that affective diversity (in extroversion and neuroticism) between a leader and his or her group members and among group members themselves, be negatively related to group

mood convergence, which in turn forms the group's affective tone (George, 1990). The present study focuses on the questions of whether the effect of being affectively different would have only negative implications for individual outcomes, and what, if any, are the beneficial effects of an individual's degree of affective difference from others. In order to solve these research problems, I integrate different types of outcomes that capture other than social aspects of group processes. Furthermore, this study investigates potential mediating processes that explain how affective dissimilarity may translate into both positive and negative outcomes. To develop the mediating hypotheses, I attempt to integrate different types of mediating variables (i.e., identity-related cognition, interpersonal relationship, and task-related orientation) into affective diversity research that has heretofore focused only on social motives.

The present study proposes a model for the multilevel effects of affective diversity on individual behavior in work groups. Most research on diversity in organizations has examined the effects of diversity at the group- and organizational-levels of analysis, largely ignoring its role in shaping individual behavior even though diversity is a multi-level phenomenon that involves various levels, including individuals, dyadic relationships, teams/departments, and the entire organization (Choi, 2007; Harrison & Klein, 2007; Jackson, Joshi, & Erhardt, 2003). Responding to the call for more micro- and multi-level approaches to the issue of diversity, this study examines the individual- and cross-level processes involving affective group composition in predicting employees' individual behavior.

Specifically, at the individual level, differences in dispositional affect between

a focal group member and his or her peers are referred to as “affective dissimilarity” and are conceptualized by means of a relational demography approach (Riordan, 2000; Tsui & Gutek, 1999). Barsade et al. (2000) also examined affective dissimilarity but they named it “affective diversity at the individual level” without distinguishing between dissimilarity and diversity. In a recent review, however, Harrison and Klein (2007, p. 1200) defined diversity as a “unit-level, compositional construct,” stressing that it should be distinguished from a “focal member’s differences from other members.”

This study also investigates the cross-level processes between individual affective dissimilarity and group affective diversity. At the group level, affective diversity refers to compositional affective differences in position among group members, operationalized at the group level by cumulating the absolute or squared distances between pairs of individuals—that is, within-group standard deviation (SD) (Harrison & Klein, 2007). I suggest that affective group diversity moderates the relationship between individual affective dissimilarity and individual behaviors. Assuming that affective group diversity may render individual affective dissimilarity less salient (Van Knippenberg & Shippers, 2007), this study proposes that behavioral differentials between affectively similar and affectively dissimilar members should therefore be less pronounced in groups with high affective diversity than in those where it is low.

Another point missing from Barsade et al.’s (2000) study is a search for variables that minimize the expected negative outcomes associated with affective dissimilarity. In an effort to find potential moderators that may serve as a buffer of the negative effects of affective dissimilarity, I will investigate leaders’ emotion

management behaviors (LEMB). Such behavior is important because leaders are critical to the emergence, management, and consequences of organizational affective experiences (Cote, van Kleef, & Sy, 2013). Defined as the processes and behaviors involved in assisting employees in regulating their emotional experiences so as to facilitate the attainment of organizational attainment (Kaplan et al., 2012), leader emotion management is proposed to moderate the relationship between affective dissimilarity and performance, such that the negative impact of affective dissimilarity on performance would be reduced when leaders are proficient in emotion management.

Through examining two cross-level moderators, group affective diversity, and LEMB, the present study provides practical implications for team formation and the role of group leaders. Affective diversity and LEMB can influence individual behavior by serving as managerial interventions, as “bottom-up” and “top-down” approaches, respectively. First, leaders can effectively manage emotions in groups by adding or removing members with particular trait affectivity for better emotional balance in groups (Barsade & Gibson, 1998; George, 2000). Aside from the bottom-up approach, which focuses on affective group composition, LEMB, the “top-down” approach, is also suggested as an effective guide for group affective tone and group processes (George, 2000; Sy et al., 2005). For example, leaders’ success in managing emotions in groups by promoting and improving team members’ PA has been found to have significant effects on individual and group performance (Jordan & Troth, 2004; Kaplan et al., 2012).

The present study expands upon previous research by examining the mediating psychological processes underlying the relations between dispositional affect and

individual outcomes. Despite decades of research on the relationship between affect and individual performance, the results have produced inconsistent findings (Kaplan et al., 2009). In an effort to find a significant, mediating mechanism that may link affect and performance, I will focus on identity-related cognition that shapes the behavior of individuals in a group setting. Furthermore, moving beyond this, I will consider *affect in context* through examining individual affect in comparison with peer affect. Past research on affect has paid far too little attention to the context within which the focal person performs roles and conveys aspects of his or her identity (Hackman, 1992). However, with little conscious effort, individuals assess the context in which they are presenting themselves and adjust aspects of their presentation according to contextual cues, by which they determine whether they are similar to their reference groups and whether their sense of self is acceptable (Boyd, 2001). In examining the effects of affective dissimilarity on the work-related outcomes of individual members, the present study aims to identify possible mediating and moderating mechanisms underlying affective dissimilarity-performance relationship. In order to open the possibility for both positive and negative effects of affective dissimilarity/diversity on individual behavior, I integrate relational demography literature and affect literature. Specifically, this study attempts to provide a compelling case for the beneficial effects of affective dissimilarity on individual behaviors through examining identity-related, interpersonal, and task-related variables as mediating mechanisms and also integrating different types of outcomes that capture group processes other than social aspects. Furthermore, the present study extends previous research by incorporating multilevel perspectives

(Kozlowski & Klein, 2000). Through the examination of individual-level dissimilarity and group-level affective diversity effects simultaneously, this study explores how they interact with each other (Choi, 2007; Gonzalez & Denis, 2009; Guillaumet et al., 2012). Through identifying and examining group affective diversity as a contextual moderator, this study highlights the context-dependent nature of an affective dissimilarity-individual behavior relationship.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

A Review of Relational Demography

Relational demography (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989) is a stream of diversity research that studies the effects of individuals' dissimilarity to their work group with respect to demographic variables such as gender and race as predictors of individual outcomes (Tonidandel et al., 2008). This approach focuses on the benefits of similarity, heavily relying on social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986) and self-categorization theory (Turner, 1987). Research within these two perspectives builds on theories of similarity-attraction (Byrne, 1971) and suggest that people tend to be attracted to and identify with similar others (Oetzel, McDermott, Torres, & Sanchez, 2012). Although previous research in the theory of relational demography within groups has not produced a clear and consistent pattern of results (Riordan, 2000), relational demography approach largely predicts the negative effects of demographic dissimilarity on group member attitudes and behaviors (Guillaume et al., 2012).

Definition of Relational Demography within Groups

Relational demography is based on the construct of demographic similarity that characterizes the degree to which an individual's demographic attributes are shared by other members of a social unit (Riordan, 2000). Since an individual is evaluated within the context of a defined group, relational demography is one form of cross-level theory

conceptualized at the individual-within-the-group level (Guillaume, Brodbeck, & Riketta, 2012; Klein, Dansereau & Hall, 1994; Lawrence, 1997; Riordan, 2000).

Focusing on an individual's relative standing within his or her group on demographic attributes, this approach emphasizes the context dependency of the construct of demographic similarity and the comparison of an individual to a group (Klein et al., 1994).

Context dependency. Groups provide a stimulus-rich immediate context for individual thought and action (Hackman, 1992). Acting as an ambient stimulus for the individual group member, the group demographic composition shapes the social world of the individual and defines his or her position within the world (Hackman, 1992). The relational self within the group to which the individual belongs, therefore, significantly affects the self-concept of the individual and his or her work-related outcomes.

Comparative process. Based on Festinger's social comparison theory (1954), the construct of demographic similarity emphasizes the active comparison of an individual to others in a group (Riordan, 2000). Social comparison theory suggests that individuals shape their sense of self through comparing themselves with their reference groups (Kelly, 1952). In terms of relational demography, individuals within a workgroup compare their own demographic characteristics against the demographic composition of the group, and they judge whether there is a good fit or similarity between their demographic characteristics and the demographic composition of the workgroup.

Theoretical Foundations of Relational Demography

The theory of relational demography within groups is premised on multiple theories such as similarity-attraction paradigm, social identity theory, and self-categorization theory (Riordan, 2000). Previous relational demography research has used the similarity-attraction paradigm (Byrne, 1971) the most often as a theoretical foundation. Since the theoretical basis for social identity and self-categorization theories (Tajfel & Turner, 1979, 1985; Turner, 1987) is the similarity-attraction paradigm (Byrne, 1971), their theoretical tenets are similar, suggesting that people tend to be attracted to and identify with similar others (Oetzel, McDermott, Torres, & Sanchez, 2012).

Similarity-Attraction Paradigm. The similarity-attraction paradigm (Byrne, 1971; Newcomb, 1956) posits that people like and are attracted to others who are similar, rather than dissimilar, to themselves. In addition to interpersonal attraction, similarity between individuals is found to facilitate social integration, resulting in frequent communication, low conflict, and high social interaction (Lincoln & Miller, 1979; Riordan, 2000).

Social Identity and Self-Categorization Theories. Self-categorization theory (Turner, 1987) is a variation of social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979, 1985), focusing on the cognitive aspect of social identity (Jackson et al., 1992). Often used mixed together, these two theories emphasize the “relational and comparative” social identity of individuals (Riordan, 2000; Tajfel & Turner, 1985). An individual’s identity consists of two components, a personal and a social component. Personal identity is derived from idiosyncratic characteristics, such as psychological traits and abilities,

whereas social identity is derived from salient group memberships or social categories, such as gender and race (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). According to these perspectives, individuals classify themselves into social categories (the process of self-categorization) to define themselves and also classify others based on social categories (in- and out-group classification) to systematically define others.

The basic premise underlying these social identity theories is that individuals are motivated to achieve and maintain a favorable social identity through these categorization processes (Hogg & Turner, 1985; Tajfel & Turner, 1985). Identifying with social categories that increase the self-esteem of individuals and drawing comparisons that favor their own social categories over other social categories, individuals seek to sustain or enhance their positive self-identity (Tajfel & Turner, 1985). In addition to self-enhancement motivation, individuals also have self-continuity motivation in pursuit of social identity (Steele, 1988; Tsui et al., 1992). Individuals generally want to maintain the continuity of their social identities over time and across situations (Steele, 1988), they strive for social categories that are consistent with their existing social identities. This self-continuity motivation partly explains why people prefer homogenous groups of similar others over groups of dissimilar others (Schneier, 1987; Messick & Mackie, 1989).

Focusing on the social identity hypothesis that individuals identify more with the social categories that they perceive as enhancing their self-esteem and adding to the continuity of their self-identity, relational demography researchers have used these theories as a basis for explaining relational demography (Riordan, 2000; Tsui et al.,

1992). For instance, Tsui et al. (1992) suggested that individuals would be attracted to a workgroup that was composed of members whose demographical profiles were consistent with the categories that the individuals had chosen to categorize themselves in. Riordan and Weatherly's (1999) study examined whether individuals' identification with their workgroups mediated the relationship between demographic similarity within groups and work-related outcomes, finding a weak mediating effect. Chattopadhyay (1999) tested and confirmed the mediating effects of an individual's self-esteem between demographic similarity to his or her workgroup and citizenship behaviors of the individual.

Diversity Dimensions

The effects of dissimilarity on work-related outcomes of individual members, however, are yet to be constructed. Except for studies that examine information-related dimensions such as functional background (Jehn, Northcraft, & Neal, 1999; Pelled, Eisenhardt, & Xin, 1999; Wanous & Youtz, 1986), relational demography approach largely suggests that the more similar an individual is to his or her group in demographic characteristics, the more positive will be his or her work-related attitudes and behaviors (Guillaume et al., 2012; Riordan, 2000).

Despite the popular belief in the benefits of functional dissimilarity based on the information/decision-making perspective (van Knippenberg & Schippers, 2007), there is no reliable and robust evidence to support it (van Knippenberg et al., 2004). The information/decision-making perspective suggests that groups benefit when work group members are from different functional backgrounds by bringing forth multiple

perspectives and innovative ideas (Knouse & Dansby, 1999). However, all dimensions of dissimilarity, including affective dissimilarity, provide a basis for assimilation and differentiation and thus may elicit both social categorization processes and information/decision making processes (van Knippenberg & Haslam, 2003). Rather than associating dissimilarity dimensions and the effects of dissimilarity, current research efforts are directed towards identifying the processes that may be engendered by dissimilarity and the contingencies of these processes (van Knippenberg & Haslam, 2003).

Effects of Relational Demography on Individual Outcomes

The empirical research on relational demography has examined on a variety of individual-level outcomes such as organizational commitment, turnover intentions, attendance behavior (Tsui et al., 1992), turnover (Jackson et al., 1991; O'Reilly, Caldwell & Barnett, 1989), job satisfaction (Wharton & Baron, 1987), group cohesiveness (Goldberg et al., 2010; Harrison et al., 1998), group identification (Goldberg et al., 2010; Polzer et al., 2002), frequency of communication (Zenger & Lawrence, 1989), liking, self-esteem, trust in coworkers, attraction toward coworkers (Chattopadhyay, 1999, 2003), and cooperative behavior (Chatman & Spataro, 2005). This line of research, however, has produced mixed results on the idea that demographic similarity positively affects individuals' attitudes and behaviors (Riordan, 2000).

These inconsistent findings in relational demography literature call for more evidence on the possible mediation mechanisms underlying the relations between individual dissimilarity and individual outcomes. For example, Chattopadhyay (2003)

pointed out that little conceptual or empirical work had examined demographic diversity-related effects, addressing Lawrence's (1997) use of the metaphor of a black box. Through the integration of different types of mediating variables and different types of outcomes that move beyond social aspects of group processes, therefore, the present study aims to identify possible mediating mechanisms underlying the individual dissimilarity-performance relationship.

Furthermore, recent studies have proposed to examine moderating influences to deepen our understanding of the relationship between individual dissimilarity to other group members and work outcomes (Goldberg et al., 2010). For example, Harrison et al. (1998) examined the contextual moderators that make a particular identity more or less salient. Flynn et al. (2001) investigated individual differences that modulated the relationship between similarity and work outcomes. Goldberg et al. (2010) examined the moderating effects of uncertainty reduction and status enhancement motives on the relationship between demographic similarity and individuals' affective reactions toward their work group. The present study adds to the efforts involved in finding moderating effects through examining group-level affective diversity that might make the affective dissimilarity effects more or less salient as well as leader emotion management behavior that might buffer the possible negative effects of affective dissimilarity on subordinates' performance.

A Review of Affect Research

Definition of Dispositional Affect

Affect is often used as an umbrella term for a variety of phenomenological experience of feeling, encompassing momentary, state-like affect, acute emotions, and more stable, trait affectivity (Watson, 2000). Typically distinguished from transient, state-like affect, trait affect, a person's stable and enduring affective personality, refers to a generalized tendency toward having a particular level of positive and negative moods (Lazarus, 1991). Trait affect exists along two separate unipolar dimensions: positive affect (PA) and negative affect (NA). Higher PA is associated with experiencing a preponderance of positive feeling states such as enthusiasm, alertness, and joviality, whereas lower PA is related to feelings of lethargy and sluggishness. Higher levels of NA are associated with negative feelings such as guilt, fear, anxiety, and nervousness, whereas lower NA is instead related to feelings such as serenity and calmness (Watson et al., 1988).

Dispositional Affect in Relation to Big 5 Personality Traits

PA and NA are often compared to extraversion and neuroticism, respectively (Kaplan et al., 2012). Given the conceptual and empirical overlap among these pairs of characteristics, researchers have accumulated considerable evidence regarding the role of NA in neuroticism and PA in extraversion (e.g., Watson & Clark, 1984). Although some researchers have advocated regarding NA and neuroticism as synonymous or interchangeable and regarding PA and extraversion in the same manner (Tellegen, 1985;

Fortunato, 2004), others have questioned the equivalence of these characteristics. Instead of being identical to one another, these traits are found to be hierarchically structured, with extraversion and neuroticism representing more general characteristics under which the affective traits (PA and NA, respectively) are subsumed (Nemanick & Munz, 1997). Findings indicating that affective traits more strongly predict job outcomes, such as job attitudes (Thoresen et al., 2003), support for the distinctiveness of these characteristics. Kaplan et al.'s (2009) meta-analysis also indicates that PA and NA uniquely predicted task performance but that extraversion and neuroticism did not, when the four were considered simultaneously in regression analyses.

Dispositional Affect and Voluntary Work Behavior

In recent years, scholars have turned attention to the importance of voluntary work behavior that goes beyond task performance. Two independent streams of research have been developing: One concerns the positive aspects of voluntary work behavior that has the potential to enhance organizations. More than 30 conceptualizations of and labels for this kind of behavior have been used (Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000), including organizational citizenship behavior (Organ, 1988), altruism (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983), prosocial organizational behavior (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986), contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993), and interpersonal helping (Moorman & Blakely, 1995). The other independent stream of research concerns the negative and potentially destructive behavior that is dysfunctional and harmful to organizations. The negative work behavior has been labeled workplace deviance (Robinson & Bennett, 1995), counterproductive work behavior (CWB; Sackett, 2002),

and destructive/hazardous behavior (Murphy, 1989, 1990). Since these forms of voluntary behavior leave far more room for the action of personal intentions than more constrained and routinized task-related job performance, they are expected to have stronger relationships with individual characteristics such as dispositional affect (Podsakoff et al., 2000; Spector & Fox, 2002; Staw & Barsade, 1993). For this reason, researchers have presented evidence regarding dispositional affect and two types of voluntary behavior.

As a manifestation of a behavioral approach system, PA is considered to foster the vigor, energy, and excitement that accompany reward-seeking behavior. Negative affectivity (NA), on the contrary, is considered as a behavioral inhibition system which directs individuals' behaviors away from threats and stressors (Kaplan et al., 2009; Ng & Sorensen 2012; Watson, Wiese, Vaidya, & Tellegen, 1999). Therefore, previous researchers have suggested that PA and NA are differentially related to performance dimensions: PA is found to be most strongly related to positive work behaviors such as OCBs, whereas NA is found to be most strongly connected to deviant behaviors (Kaplan et al., 2009).

Research on both OCBs and deviant behaviors, however, has neglected change-oriented type of voluntary work behavior, which is related to creativity and innovation. Often referenced as pro-social and anti-social behavior, respectively (Sackett et al., 2006), OCB and deviance have represented social aspects of voluntary work behavior. In OCB literature, for example, dominant research has focused on affiliative form of OCB, helping and compliance. In deviance literature, the majority of studies have

regarded deviant workplace behavior as reflecting employees' negative and anti-social tendencies with the intent to harm the organization or its members (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Spector & Fox, 2002).

Defining and putting forth the change-oriented discretionary behaviors as part of the existing dimension of performance, however, researchers have recently posited them as work behaviors worthy of investigation and study (Carpenter & Arthur Jr., 2013). For example, change-oriented discretionary work behaviors are considered as aspects of employee enactment of OCB (e.g., Choi, 2007; LePine & Van Dyne, 2001), labeled change-oriented OCB. Change-oriented OCB is defined as constructive efforts to identify and implement changes in work procedures and policies to improve one's task or the organization's performance (Bettencourt, 2004; Choi, 2007). This type of behavior includes communication directed towards improving the work situation (i.e., LePine & Van Dyne, 2001) and constructive efforts to bring about change in the work and task environment (Morrison & Phelps, 1999).

In deviance literature, change-oriented discretionary work behaviors are considered as aspects of employee enactment of deviant behaviors (Appelbaum et al., 2007; Spreitzer & Sonenshein, 2003; Vadera et al., 2013; Warren, 2003), labeling positive or constructive deviance. Positive deviance refers to 'intentional behaviors that depart from the norms of a referent group in honorable ways' (Spreitzer & Sonenshein, 2003, p. 209). Including principled organizational dissent (Graham, 1986), noncompliance with dysfunctional directives, and criticizing incompetent superiors, positive deviance is characterized by volitional rule breaking and deviation from the

norms of a referent group in the interest of the organization. Given that creativity, by its very nature, involves thinking-outside-the-box, and a departure from the status quo, (Zhou & George, 2001), positive deviance is suggested to encourage creativity and innovation whereas sticking to organizational norms is found to impede them.

Although wide-ranging research has been done, grounded in different theoretical frameworks and criterion domains, it has been done in isolation of each other (Vadera et al., 2013). Several scholars (e.g., Carpenter & Arthur Jr., 2013; Grant & Ashford, 2008; Petty, Wheeler, & Bizer, 1999), therefore, have expressed concern regarding the “construct muddiness” in the criterion domain, which signals the existence of redundancy or overlap and ultimately great inefficiencies in the extant theoretical frameworks. As suggested by Vadera et al.’s (2013) study, the present study will investigate change-oriented as well as relationship-oriented voluntary work behavior through ‘lumping’ rather than ‘splitting’ across literatures to gain a comprehensive understanding of the concept (Fiske, 2006).

Affect and Relationship-oriented Discretionary Behavior. Although prior research on relationship-oriented discretionary behavior has typically adopted a social exchange theory view, a lot of recent research has been conducted in an effort to find new motivational and affective frameworks that could reinvigorate the field (Spence et al., 2011). In this line of research, the role of affect on OCB has been considerably studied, mainly focusing on helping behavior (Berkowitz, 1998; George & Brief, 1992; Isen & Baron, 1991; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). According to Lee and Allen’s (2002) study, affect predicts OCBs directed to individuals (OCBI) rather than those directed to

the organization (OCBO). Unlike OCBO, a deliberate attempt to maintain the balance in a social exchange between employee and the organization, OCBI primarily involves helping individuals at work in a less deliberate, affect-driven manner (Isen, 1970; Isen & Levin, 1972; McNeely & Meglino, 1994). For example, Isen and Baron's (1991) study suggests that people in positive moods are more likely to help others than are those in negative or neutral moods. George (1991) also found that positive mood predicted altruism and customer service, supporting that helping behavior is more affect-driven than cognition-driven.

Unlike social exchange theory that emphasizes cognitive, rational calculation of reciprocity in social transactions (Blau, 1964; Emerson, 1976; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005), affect-centered theoretical perspectives provide a powerful theoretical explanation for voluntary helping behavior in situations where reciprocity norms are violated (Lyons & Scott, 2012). The concept of control precedence, for example, suggests that affect may take control precedence over norms of reciprocity (Frijda, 2007). In other words, affect takes "center stage," overriding other concerns such as cognitive calculations of debits and credits by a coworker (Frijda, 2007), thereby influencing the likelihood of OCB (Lyons & Scott, 2012). From this view, positive affect is associated with OCB, while negative affect is associated counterproductive work behavior (CWB).

In the same vein, Spector and Fox's (2002) emotion-centered model of voluntary work behavior predicts that positive affect would increase the likelihood of OCB whereas negative affect would prompt engagement in CWB. According to Spector

and Fox's (2002) study, affect accompanies action tendencies that immediately and automatically prompt behavior. Therefore, positive affect such as joy and happiness accompanies prosocial action tendencies, motivating individuals to engage in OCB. In contrast, negative affect such as anger and hostility accompanies antisocial action tendencies, motivating individuals to engage in CWB.

Supporting Spector and Fox's (2002) study, empirical research has demonstrated that individuals who experience positive affect over a period of time are more likely to engage in prosocial behaviors and OCB during that time (George, 1991; Ilies, Scott, & Judge, 2006). Dalal, Lam, Weiss, Welch, and Hulin (2009) also found that individuals engaged in more OCB during experiences of positive affective states and more CWB during experiences of negative affective states, moving beyond social exchange frameworks and suggesting affect as key drivers of discretionary behaviors.

Affect and Change-oriented Discretionary Behavior. In today's highly competitive work environments organizations are pressured to be innovative, have decentralized work structures, and be organized around self-managed work teams (Campbell, 2000; Schraub, 2011). To accommodate to the dynamic work environments, employees are expected to go beyond their core task requirements and initiate proactive and change-oriented behaviors (Frese, 2008). Change-oriented discretionary behavior or proactive behavior is defined as "taking initiative in improving current circumstances or creating new ones, involving challenging the status quo rather than passively adapting to present conditions" (Crant, 2000, p. 436). Despite its relevance in today's work context, change-oriented discretionary behavior is still under-researched in relation to affect at

work (Schraub, 2011). Some recent studies have begun to examine whether positive affect induces proactive behavior (Fritz & Sonnentag, 2009; Parker, 2007).

Research on change-oriented discretionary behavior in terms of its affect-related antecedents is directly related to and may extend past research on the affect-creativity relationship. The earlier prevailing hypothesis was that positive affect facilitates creativity by enhancing cognitive flexibility (Isen, 1999), modifying information-processing style (Schwarz, 1990), and broadening our scope of attention and encouraging novel thoughts and actions (Fredrickson, 2001). However, recent studies have focused more on the conditions under which affect can promote creativity rather than on the default effects of preexisting affect on creativity (e.g., George & Zhou, 2002, 2007). For example, scholars have found that negative affect can be conducive for creative behavior, initiative, and innovation under certain circumstances. Negative affect may indicate a deficient status quo (Martin et al., 1993; Rank & Frese, 2008) or yield more favorable results when analytical thinking, thorough information seeking, or critical evaluation are demanded (Isen & Baron, 1991; Staw et al., 1994). Although research has not provided a definitive answer to this issue, it has revealed the current trends away from a simple, unidirectional thesis in the form of positive affect facilitating creativity and toward a more nuanced contingency model, where there is room for both positive and negative moods as facilitators of creativity (Baas, De Dreu, & Nijstad, 2008).

A theoretical foundation for current trends that favor a more nuanced model, where both positive and negative affect can lead to creativity, is offered by the mood-as-

input perspective (Martin, Ward, Achee, & Wyer, 1993). The mood-as-input perspective challenges the common theme in the existing literature that affect predisposes individuals toward particular styles of information processing and postulates that affect interacts with the context to shape cognitive strategy and subsequent performance (Hirt et al., 1996; Martine et al., 1993). Therefore, the question is how an individual interprets the meaning of his or her affective states and what influences these affective interpretations. Based on the mood-as-input model, recent research efforts are directed toward identifying the conditions under which affective influences on creativity could be different.

Although few studies have assessed trait affect in the context of employee creativity, some pertinent studies have investigated the relationships among personality traits such as the five-factor model of personality and creativity. Feist's (1998) meta-analysis shows that high levels of neuroticism, proxy indicators for negative affectivity, are common among creative artists, whereas introversion, an inverse proxy for positive affectivity, is related to both artistic and scientific creativity. On the contrary, Byron and Khazanchi's meta-analysis (in press) suggests that trait anxiety, a proxy for negative affectivity, is significantly negatively related to creative performance. Sung and Choi's (2009) empirical study shows that extraversion, a proxy for positive affectivity, has significant positive effects on creative performance. Similar to the literature examining the effects of state affect on creativity, that on personality traits and creativity also suggests equivocal effects of affect on creativity, thus requiring an interactionist approach to affect.

Emotion Management

Emotion management (EM) refers to the attempts to influence the types of emotions people experience and how these emotions are experienced and expressed (Gross, 1998). Emotion management efforts are made by either up-regulating or down-regulating aspects of both positive and negative emotional episodes (Parrot, 1993; Tugade & Fredrickson, 2007). In other words, emotion management behaviors establish a 2-dimensional structure of affective space. These dimensions reflect the valence (hedonic tone, pleasantness) and the regulation (expressive promotion versus expressive suppression). Despite the theoretical possibility to suppress positive emotions or elevate negative emotions, emotion management at work often involves enhancing positive emotions as well as suppressing negative emotions. In order to deal with negative events at work, people frequently engage in the management of negative emotions. Despite having been reported less frequently as compared with negative emotions, positive emotions often become the regulatory target to be maintained or promoted (Wegener & Petty, 1994).

While most research on emotion management examines intrapersonal regulation (e.g., Gross's process model of emotion management, 1998), people influence other people's feelings as well as their own feelings and expressions. Interpersonal mechanisms of emotion management are particularly relevant for leadership (e.g., Bass's transformational leadership, 1990; Luthans and Avolio's authentic leadership, 2003) because organizational leaders are critical to the emergence, management, and consequences of organizational affective experiences (Cote, van Kleef,

& Sy, 2013). Leaders can influence affective experiences of employees through assisting employees in regulating their emotional experiences so as to facilitate the attainment of organizational objectives (Cote, van Kleef, & Sy, 2013). For example, leaders may promote positive emotion while suppressing the negative emotion of employees to enhance a positive mood in the team.

Leader's emotion management behaviors include managing affective interactions and relationships among coworkers in group contexts. Leaders can manage affective relations among coworkers and the resultant emotions through two classes of behaviors (Kaplan et al., 2012). First, leaders can forecast group affective climate and balance group emotion through selecting members based on their affective traits and potential (George, 2000) and planning interventions based on members' unique traits (Jehn, 1995; Tjosvold, 1997). Second, leaders can intervene in coworker relations through accurately recognizing emotions displayed by members and facilitating peer emotional exchanges (Cote, van Kleef, & Sy, 2013; Kaplan et al., 2012).

CHAPTER III

THEORY DEVELOPMENT AND HYPOTHESES

An Overview of the Model

Based on the review of the literature presented in the previous chapter, I propose a conceptual model of affective dynamics in groups, mainly focusing on the relationship between affective dissimilarity and individual behavior. First, I examine the role of individuals' dispositional affect on their identity-related cognition in an effort to find a significant mediating process underlying the relations between dispositional affect and individual outcomes. I focus on social identity because it substantially shapes the behavior of individuals in a group setting. Second, I suggest that an individual's affect in comparison with peer affect serve as a significant context within which the individual performs roles and conveys aspects of his or her identity (Boyd, 2001). Grounded in research on relational demography (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989) and affect (Barsade et al., 2000), the present study suggests an integrative framework for explaining how affective dissimilarity may translate into both positive and negative outcomes via identity-related cognition, interpersonal relationship, and task-related orientation. Departing from previous research that draws heavily on similarity-attraction theory and captures only social aspects of group processes, this study opens the possibility for both positive and negative effects of affective dissimilarity through integrating different types of mediating processes and outcomes. Lastly, the present model extends previous research by incorporating multilevel perspectives (Kozlowski & Klein, 2000). Through

examining both individual- and cross-level processes involving affective group composition, this study proposes a model of the multilevel effects of affective diversity on individual behavior in work groups.

Specifically, I examine the influence of individuals' dispositional affect on their identity-related cognition, based on the "affect colors cognition" hypothesis (Forgas, 2011; Isen, 2001). As positive and negative frames of mind, PA and NA are expected to influence on individuals' perception of their relation with the group to which they belong. A high PA individual tends to focus on pleasurable stimuli and be more likely to approach rewarding activities, especially social ones, thus leading to affiliation, the inclination to relate to other people (DeNeve & Cooper, 1998; Lyubomirsky et al., 2005). Furthermore, a high PA person tends to have a global focus and an inclusive mind-set, leading him or her to have a high degree of group identity (Huntsinger et al., 2010). By contrast, a high NA person tends to focus on and avoid negative stimuli, such as fear of rejection and disapproval, thereby disengaging from group (Kaplan et al., 2009). In addition, an NA person is likely to have a local focus and a less degree of group identification (Huntsinger et al., 2010). In terms of individual differentiation, individuals with positive affectivity are characterized by self-confidence and self-assertion (Lyubomirsky et al., 2005), thus having a tendency to individuate themselves from others. On the contrary, individuals with negative affectivity are less likely to take risks and to be themselves to avoid social embarrassment and punishment for acting against the crowd (Manner et al., 2007).

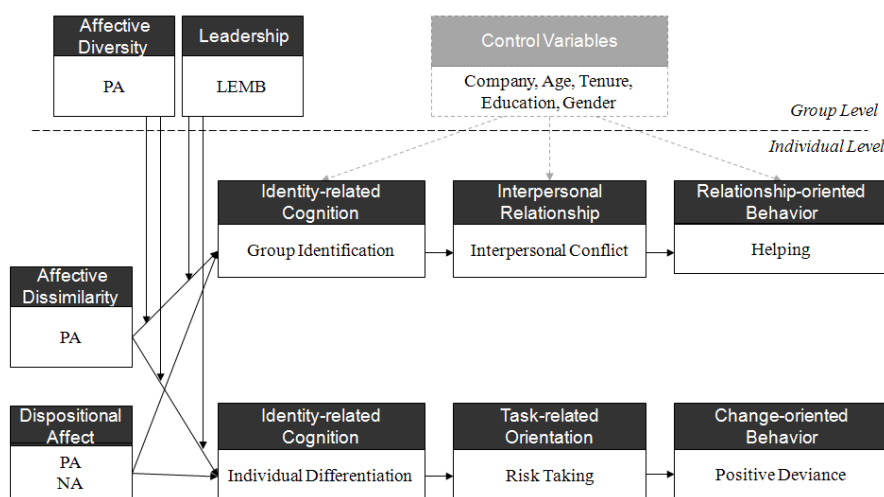
Regarding the relationship between affective dissimilarity and individual outcomes, I propose that an individual's affective dissimilarity within the workgroup may have negative effects on relationship-oriented behaviors of the individual while it may have positive effects on change-oriented behaviors of the individual. The focal person's affective dissimilarity from other group members can serve as the basis for self-definition in terms of the degree to which the individual defines him or herself as a group member. The cognitive process of self-categorization in turn may lead to interpersonal relationship and task-related orientation of the individual, ultimately influencing his or her relationship and change-oriented behaviors.

In addition, I will examine group affective diversity as a key contextual factor that may normalize or neutralize the effects of affective dissimilarity on cognitive processes of self-categorization through reducing diversity salience (Homan et al., 2008). Specifically, I propose a contingency model whereby the negative effects of affective dissimilarity on relationship-oriented behaviors via lower levels of group identification and higher levels of interpersonal conflict will be buffered under a high level of group affective heterogeneity. On the contrary, the positive effects of affective dissimilarity on change-oriented behaviors via higher levels of individual differentiation and higher levels of risk taking will be less pronounced under a high but not low level of group affective heterogeneity.

Lastly, I propose that leader's emotion management behaviors (LEMB) moderate the relationship between individual affective dissimilarity and cognitive processes of self-categorization such that the negative effects of affective dissimilarity

on group identification would be reduced when leaders are proficient in emotion management behaviors. On the other hand, the positive effects of affective dissimilarity on individual differentiation would be strengthened when leaders display proficiency in emotion management behaviors. Although there are more instances that increased motives for differentiation indicate decreased motives for group identification (and vice versa), leaders can satisfy both of these seemingly conflicting motives through managing the quality of intra-team relationships and positive affect in the team. In other words, leaders may mitigate the potential trade-off between satisfying the needs for group identification and the needs for individual differentiation (Kaplan et al., 2012). By investigating the role of leader emotion management in guiding group processes toward a favorable direction (Sy et al., 2005), this study provides practical implications for the role of group leaders. Figure 1, below, presents the research model of affective dissimilarity and individual behavior.

Figure 1: Research Model



Hypotheses

The Effects of Dispositional Affect on Identity-Related Cognition

Although a lot of research has been done on the relationship between dispositional affect and individual outcomes, producing inconsistent findings (Kaplan et al., 2009; Ng & Sorensen, 2012), comparatively little attention has been given to the mediating, psychological processes underlying the relations between the two variables. Given that social identity can operate as a significant, mediating mechanism that shapes the behavior of individuals in a group setting, I will examine the role of identity-related cognition of individuals, which may be the link between individuals' dispositional affect and individual outcomes.

Watson, Wiese, Vaidya, and Tellegen (1999) suggests that PA and NA represent the subjective, emotional components of two basic biobehavioral systems that have evolved to promote survival. As a manifestation of an "approach" system, termed the *behavioral activation system* (BAS; Carver & White, 1994), PA is considered to foster the vigor, energy, and excitement that accompany reward-seeking behavior. On the contrary, NA represents the *behavioral inhibition system* (BIS), which is thought to promote survival by fostering avoidance-type behaviors when the organism encounters potentially threatening or aversive conditions (Kaplan et al., 2009).

PA and NA as an approach and an avoidance system, respectively, influence identity-related cognitions of individuals. Previous research suggests that the self be represented as belonging to larger units, and hence be more interdependent under the

approach system, because the approach system leads to the use of a more global perceptual focus, a focus on the larger unit (Forster & Higgins, 2005; Nussinson et al., 2012). Conversely, the self is conceptualized in isolation under the avoidance system because the avoidance system instigates the use of a more local perceptual focus on the constituent parts, associated with a narrower conceptual scope (Friedman & Foster, 2000; Nussinson et al., 2012). As an approach system, PA is expected to increase group identification, individuals' self-perceptions that they are one with a group (Dutton, Dkerich, & Harquail, 1994; Ashforth & Mael, 1989). High PA individuals consider themselves to a greater extent as belonging to larger units than those with high NA, thus identifying more with their groups. By contrast, high NA individuals are likely to act under the avoidance system, thus having local focus and a less degree of group identification. In addition, research on the concept of communion, that is, individuals' striving to integrate themselves in a larger social unit, also suggests that PA increases the concept of communion (Saragovi et al., 2002). Communion is represented by the tendency toward caring for and cooperating with others, and it is found to be significantly related to greater levels of positive affect, but unrelated to negative affect (Saragovi et al., 2002). This logic leads to my first hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1a: Individual member's positive affect will be positively related to group identification of the individual.

Hypothesis 1b: Individual member's negative affect will be negatively related to group identification of the individual.

As an approach system, positive affect is suggested to increase individual differentiation whereas negative affect, an avoidance system, is hypothesized to decrease it. Individual differentiation, the degree to which individual group members see themselves as different from the other group members in their thoughts, feelings, and behaviors (Janssen & Huang, 2008), can be achieved through forming separation and often acting against the crowd and social norms laid out by the collective, which involves risks of social embarrassment and punishment. As a behavioral approach system, PA is more stimulated by reward than punishment such that a PA person would be willing to take the risk of social rejection when pursuing individuality. By contrast, NA, as a behavioral inhibition system, is more influenced by punishment than reward such that fear of retribution and disapproval may deter an NA person from distinguishing him or herself from others. Furthermore, affect is found to be related with the concept of agency, which refers to individuals' strivings to individuate. Reflected in the tendency toward self-assertion and self-expansion, agency is found to be significantly positively related to positive affect (Saragovi et al, 2002). On the contrary, agency is found to be negatively associated with negative affect probably because high NA individuals are less likely to assert their individuality deterred by social pressure and fear of disapproval (Saragovi et al, 2002). This leads to the next hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1c: Individual member's positive affect will be positively related to individual differentiation of the individual.

Hypothesis 1d: Individual member's negative affect will be negatively related to individual differentiation of the individual.

The Effects of Affective Dissimilarity on Individual Performance

Conceptualization of Affective Dissimilarity

In this study, affective dissimilarity is defined as differences in dispositional affect between a focal member and his or her workgroup members. Regarding affect valence, positive affect is my primary focus since negative affect has been shown to be substantially less influential than positive affect in the group context (Damen et al., 2008; McIntyre et al., 1991; Watson et al., 1992). For example, Watson et al. (1992) found no consistent relationship between negative affect and various social processes, while finding consistent relationships involving positive affect. Damen et al. (2008) also demonstrated that positive affect is more important than its counterpart negative affect when focusing on social interaction and affect congruency effects. Although, semantically, negative affect may suggest the theoretical possibility of the opposite situation of positive affect, negative affect may be more related to internal states, such as stress and psychopathology, but not to diverse indicators of social activity and interpersonal satisfaction in the group context (Barsade et al., 2000).

Drawing upon relational demography research (Chatman & Flynn, 2001; Chattopadhyay & George, 2001; van Knippenberg & Shippers, 2007), the present study examines the effects of individuals' dissimilarity to their workgroup on trait affectivity. Affective dissimilarity is thereby conceptualized as an individual's relative standing within his or her group on trait affect (Guillaume et al., 2012). Focusing on an individual's relative standing within his or her group on dispositional affect, this

approach emphasizes context dependency of affectivity and the comparison of an individual to a group (Klein et al., 1994).

First, acting as an ambient stimulus for the focal individual, the affective group composition shapes the social world of the individual (i.e., group affective tone) and defines his or her position within the world (Hackman, 1992). The relational self within the group to which the individual belongs, thus, becomes as a significant predictor of individual outcomes such as voluntary behavior of the individual.

Second, affective dissimilarity emphasizes the active comparison processes of an individual to other group members' affect based on Festinger's social comparison theory (1954), and the social comparison acts upon the individual's evaluation of affective fit or similarity between his or her trait affect and that of the workgroup. Therefore, I examine individual affective dissimilarity in the context of person-group fit research, proposing that affective match or fit between individual affect and affective group context have a significant impact on individual outcomes.

The Effects of Affective Dissimilarity on Individual Behavior

The Importance of Affective Dissimilarity in Individual behavior

Although affect has been viewed as a critical predictor of individual behavior at work (Davis, 2009), little attention has been paid to the effects of affective dynamics within groups on individual behavior (Drnovsek et al., 2009). In group or social contexts, individuals' affective similarity or dissimilarity from their group is suggested to influence various dimensions of performance of the focal members because affective similarity or dissimilarity can be used as a basis for their appraisal of affective fit within

work groups. Through investigating the effects of affective dissimilarity in work groups in relation to person-group fit theory, the present study attempts to open the possibility for both positive and negative effects of affective dissimilarity on individual behavior. Specifically, affective dissimilarity is suggested to give rise to supplementary misfit (Lauver & Kristof-Brown, 2001; Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987) in terms of similarity-attraction theory, thus having negative effects on interpersonal behaviors and relationship-oriented discretionary behaviors of the focal members, whereas it causes complementary affective fit (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987) from an interpersonal complementarity perspective, thus having positive effects on task-related behaviors and change-oriented behaviors of individuals.

Person-Group Fit Theory as a Theoretical Background

The effects of affective dissimilarity in work groups is closely related to the concept of person-group fit that focuses on the compatibility between individuals and their work groups (Guillaumet et al., 2012; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). In the fit research domain, scholars have identified two types of fit between people and their environment (Kristof, 1996). The first type is supplementary fit; it is present when a person and his or her environment possess fundamentally similar characteristics in terms of values or goals (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987). The second type is complementary fit; it occurs when a person provides resources required by his or her environment or the work environment satisfies people's needs (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987).

Although P-G fit is mostly seen as a supplementary fit from the similarity-

attraction perspective (Lauver & Kristof-Brown, 2001; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005), it can be also conceptualized as complementary fit based on the interpersonal complementarity thesis. Therefore, this study will include both the supplementary and complementary affective fit between an individual group member and his or her work group through integrating both similarity-attraction perspective and interpersonal complementarity approach. By addressing both aspects of fit, the present study may offer a balanced perspective on affective dissimilarity.

Similarity-attraction perspective as an explanation for supplementary affective fit. Similarity-attraction perspective focuses on the interpersonal similarity as a determinant of interpersonal attraction, assuming that individuals prefer to interact with similar others (Barsade et al., 2000; Berscheid & Reis, 1998; Byrne, 1971). Although similarity-attraction has primarily been studied with regard to cognition, Barsade et al. (2000) modifies them into affective version, suggesting that individuals consciously and unconsciously prefer others who are affectively similar to them. There are two theoretical bases for the similarity-attraction effect: the reinforcing value of similarity (McGuire, 1985) and consensual validation model (Davis, 1981). Based on the concept of reinforcement, affective similarity confirms the appropriateness of emotions, and this reinforcement leads to attraction. In terms of the consensual validation model, affective similarity validates individuals' own feelings and satisfies individuals' desire for affective consonance or coherence (Barsade et al., 2000; Niedenthal and Halberstadt, 1995). Findings from Barsade et al.'s (2000) study demonstrate that affective dissimilarity significantly influences individual level attitudes and self-perception such

that affective dissimilarity reduces an individual's satisfaction with the group and lowers self-perception of one's influence in the group (Barsade et al., 2000).

According to similarity-attraction perspective, affective dissimilarity is expected to give rise to supplementary misfit and thus have negative effects on relationship-oriented behaviors of the focal member. Relationship-oriented behavior in the positive form includes interpersonal helping, courtesy, and compliance. This affiliative form of discretionary behavior is found to be driven by cooperative and pro-social intentions. From similarity-attraction view, therefore, affective dissimilarity is likely to have detrimental effects on relationship-oriented behaviors of individuals, because it is suggested to be associated with lesser feelings of attraction/liking and comfort, resulting in less cooperative or pro-social attitudes and more negative social relations (i.e., interpersonal conflict or weak social bonding (Barsade et al., 2000)). Thus, affective dissimilarity is hypothesized to have negative effects on relationship-oriented behaviors such that it will reduce affiliative type of OCBs. Based on this logic, I propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2a: Individual member's affective dissimilarity from other group members will be negatively related to relationship-oriented behavior of the individual.

Interpersonal complementarity hypothesis as an explanation for complementary affective fit. On the contrary, the interpersonal complementarity hypothesis (Dryer & Horowitz, 1997; Glomb & Welsh, 2005) emphasizes the positive

effects of individual dissimilarity (van Knippenberg & Schippers, 2007). The rationale of this perspective is that people may feel attraction for dissimilar others who have complementary affective tendencies (Schutz, 1958). For example, an individual member who enacts the role of being outgoing and leading might prefer a partner who is reserved and following (Neuman et al., 1999). Furthermore, affective dissimilarity is meaningful in that it may lead to more emotional checks and balances and consequently to better performance (Barsade & Gibson, 1998), particularly in terms of creativity (McLeod et al., 1996).

From the interpersonal complementarity perspective, this study proposes that affective dissimilarity cause complementary affective fit, thus enhancing change-oriented behaviors of individuals. The reportedly negative effects of individual dissimilarity on contextual performance in previous studies can be partly explained by the fact that the preponderance of scholarship on contextual performance has mainly focused on the affiliative form of discretionary behavior (Bettencourt, 2004; Choi, 2007). However, there is growing awareness of the importance of change-oriented discretionary behaviors (Dewett & Denisi, 2007). By integrating change-oriented discretionary behaviors, the neglected type of discretionary behavior (Coleman & Borman, 2000; Dewett & Denisi, 2007; Graham, 2000; LePine & van Dyne, 2001), this study attempts to address the possibility of performance-enhancing effects of affective dissimilarity.

Change-oriented discretionary behaviors are more idea-focused, improvement-related actions (Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Van Dyne et al., 1995). Since change-oriented discretionary behaviors emphasize constructive challenge to the status quo in support of

improved future performance, they involve risk for individuals including disapproval and damage of relationships (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). One example is voice, defined as “expression of constructive challenge with an intent to improve rather than merely criticize” (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998, p. 109).

Although affective dissimilarity has been suggested to reduce affiliative type of discretionary behavior, it may enhance change-oriented discretionary behavior through helping members differentiate themselves from the rest of the group, encouraging them to be themselves, and preventing them from being constrained by pressures for uniformity and conformity (Mannix & Neale, 2005; Ormiston & Wong, 2008). Affectively different individuals from their team are likely to be less relationship-oriented and more task-oriented than affectively similar members so that the former may voice different opinions than others. Conformity in groups often occurs from a desire to be liked and unwillingness to conform carries the risk of social rejection. Unlike individuals who try not to stand out in a group but to bring their behavior in line with the group’s expectations and beliefs, dissimilar members may be less susceptible to conformity pressures and groupthink, and instead bring forth positive conflict, a healthy discourse that may exist in the disagreement among group members regarding personality traits, styles, or ideas.

Furthermore, being affectively different from others may become a source of new ideas, novel ways of thinking and proactive work behavior of individual group members, considering the informative function of affect (Chatman, Polzer, Barsade, & Neale, 1998). Since our feelings serve informative functions about ourselves and our

surroundings, affective similarity may lead to the development of a single-shared reality that provides members with a false sense of confidence and certainty, and result in invalid closure and poorer decision making. Conversely, affective dissimilarity might mitigate against the development of group-centricism and instead allow multiple-shared realities, benefitting from the dual tuning effects of both mood states (George & King, 2007). This logic leads to the next hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2b: Individual member's affective dissimilarity from other group members will be positively related to change-oriented behavior of the individual.

The Effects of Affective Dissimilarity on Identity-Related Cognition

Two Types of Identity-Related Cognition: Group Identification versus Individual Differentiation

Although dissimilarity in work groups has been traditionally seen in the light of social identity theory, thus predicting negative effects of individual dissimilarity on individual outcomes (Guillaume et al., 2012), the present study aims to investigate both the positive and negative effects of individual dissimilarity on individual behavior through employing optimal distinctiveness theory (Brewer, 1991). According to social identity theory, a social identity is defined as the portion of an individual's self-concept derived from perceived membership in a relevant social group (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). A key assumption in social identity theory is that individuals are intrinsically motivated to achieve or maintain positive social identity, and that their strategy to achieve positive distinctiveness is mainly directed at intergroup relations, such as in-group favoritism and

out-group discrimination. In other words, individuals achieve positive social identity through psychologically identifying with their in-group and attaching positive attributes to it and simultaneously through differentiating from inferior out-group members.

Unlike social identity theory where the need for belonging is satisfied within in-groups and the need for differentiation is met through intergroup comparisons, optimal distinctiveness theory assumes that individuals meet these needs by maintaining some intermediate degree of similarity between the self and relevant others within in-groups. Optimal distinctiveness theory proposes that social identity derives from a fundamental tension between the human needs for validation and similarity to other and a countervailing need for uniqueness and individuation (Brewer, 1991). According to the optimal distinctiveness model, dissimilarity or uniqueness satisfies the needs for differentiation while intensifying the needs for assimilation. On the contrary, similarity or deindividuation satisfies the needs for assimilation, concurrently activating the needs for differentiation (Brewer, 1993). Based on optimal distinctiveness theory, an individual's affective dissimilarity to the rest of the group is expected to frustrate the need for belonging while satisfying the need for distinctiveness.

Another identity theory that may explain the relationship between affective dissimilarity and identity motives of individuals is the self-verification theory. According to the self-verification theory (Swann, 1983), people actively work to preserve their self-views, even if these self-views are negative (North & Swann, 2009). The benefits of receiving self-verification include psychological coherence, reduced anxiety, and improved health. Interpersonally, the benefits include greater intimacy and

trust in relationships and more harmonious social interactions. Thus, people tend to gravitate toward relationship partners who confirm their self-view. Affective disposition could be accepted as a core of personal identity in that affective disposition colors people's self-view and influences their affection for themselves, leading to their conclusions about themselves (Brown, 1993; MacLeod, 1998). For example, people with negative affectivity are thought to have a less favorable self-view and worldview, striving for negative feedback. Given that people tend to obtain self-verifying information and verify their feelings by comparing themselves to their reference group, individual affective dissimilarity within a work group is hypothesized to frustrate individual members' self-verification desires based on the self-verification theory. Therefore, affective dissimilarity may lead individuals to psychological separation from each other, consequently reducing a sense of belongingness with others and increasing a sense of distinctiveness (Anderson & Keltner, 2004). This logic leads to my next hypotheses:

Hypothesis 3a: Individual member's affective dissimilarity will be negatively related to group identification.

Hypothesis 3b: Individual member's affective dissimilarity will be positively related to individual differentiation.

The Effects of Identity-Related Cognition on Interpersonal Relationship

Group Identification and Interpersonal Relationship

Group identification refers to individuals' self-perceptions that they are one with a group (Dutton, Dukerich & Harquail, 1994; Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Cognitively categorizing oneself as a group member (Ashmore Deaux, & McLaughlin-Volpe, 2004), individual group members perceive themselves in terms of the values, goals, attitudes, and behaviors they share with other group members (Janssen & Huang, 2008; Swaab et al., 2004). According to Social Identity Theory (SIT; Tajfel & Turner, 1979) and Self Categorization Theory (SCT; Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, & Wetherell, 1987), group identification strongly influences social motives such that a person with a higher sense of identification with the group is more likely to seek cooperative and pro-social alternatives (De Cremer, 2001; Desivilya & Eizen, 2005).

Since the level of individuals' identification with the group indicates the psychological prominence of group membership, it determines whether or not an individual group member acts in accordance with the group's interests and goals (Tyler & Blader, 2003). When experiencing the contradiction between the individual and the collective, individuals with a higher sense of group identification would be willingly put the good of the group ahead of their own self-interest. In addition, individuals with a high sense of group identification would accept the group value, be compliant to normative pressure, and tend to change their perceptions, cognitions or behavior in order to abide by social norms (Cialdini & Goldstein, 2004). Therefore, group identification will enhance pro-social tendencies of individuals and reduce interpersonal conflicts

within groups (Rusbult, 1993). Individuals with a higher sense of group identification tend to avoid negative interactions and instead take constructive reactions to interpersonal conflicts (Rusbult, 1993). Drawing upon SIT and SCT, the present study proposes that group identification be negatively associated with interpersonal conflict.

Hypothesis 4a: Group identification will be negatively associated with interpersonal conflict.

The Effects of Identity-Related Cognition on Task-Related Orientation

Individual Differentiation and Task-Related Orientation

Individual differentiation is defined as the extent to which individual group members see themselves as different from the other group members in their thoughts, feelings, and behaviors (Janssen & Huang, 2008). Induced by their divergence and idiosyncratic perspectives, individuals with a high sense of individual differentiation are likely to deviate from established paradigms, question the status quo of their organization, and consider alternatives, which are the key qualities required in the creative process (Amabile, 1996; Shalley, Zhou, & Oldham, 2004). In other words, individual differentiation may become a critical driver for group members to engage in change-oriented, risk-taking behaviors. Individuals with high degrees of individual differentiation tend to question the assumptions behind the established framework of thoughts and routines in the group rather than taking it for granted and they are more likely to take risks associated with novel solutions (Janssen & Huang, 2008).

Furthermore, individuals with high degrees of individual differentiation may take more social risks than individuals with high degrees of group identification. Unlike the latter who puts the views, needs, goals, social norms, and beliefs of the group ahead of those of individuals, the former pursues realizing themselves or cultivating their own judgment despite social pressure for conformity (Damaraju, Barney, & Dess, 2010). Since risk taking involves deviation from the status-quo, it could be contrary to group expectations and beliefs and it may be related to the stigma of failure (Fu, Tsui, & Dess, 2006). Individuals with a high sense of individual differentiation, however, might accept their stigmas to a lesser degree than those with a high sense of group identification, because they place a higher importance on their own judgment and beliefs. Therefore, individuals with a high level of individual differentiation tend to have risk-taking orientations and undertake proactive, risk-taking strategies rather than resorting to defensive, risk-averse strategies. Thus, I propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4b: Individual differentiation will be positively associated with risk-taking behavior.

The Effects of Interpersonal Relationship on Relationship-Oriented Behaviors

Social motives are suggested to be a key driver in relationship-oriented discretionary behavior (Andreoni & Bernheim, 2007; Ariely et al., 2009; Benabou & Tirole, 2006). Relationship-oriented discretionary behavior is performed to benefit others, rather than to benefit the self, which often accompanies risk or cost to the self (Twenge et al., 2007). Despite the risk or cost to the self, individuals perform

relationship-oriented discretionary behavior when faced with the decision to help others at the expense of oneself mainly due to social motives (Twenge et al., 2007). If a group member believes that one is part of a group in which group members mutually seek to aid, to support, and to satisfy their belonging needs, he or she will be motivated to act pro-socially, conform to group norms, and act in team typical ways. In contrast, if one feels excluded, having negative social relationships, he or she will be less motivated to act pro-socially, and thus reduce their pro-social acts.

Therefore, individuals' interpersonal behaviors prompted by their social motives are likely to predict their relationship-oriented discretionary behaviors. Individuals in negative social relations such as interpersonal conflict may engage in less relationship-oriented discretionary behaviors because the risk to the self, entailed by pro-social behaviors outweighs the benefits they expect from the group they belong to. This logic leads to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 5a: Interpersonal conflict will be negatively associated with relationship-oriented behavior.

The Effects of Risk-taking Behaviors on Change-Oriented Behaviors

A willingness to confront risk, indicated by actual risk-taking behaviors, is suggested to provide individuals with the backbone to engage in change-oriented discretionary behaviors (Spreitzer & Sonenshein, 2003). Change-oriented discretionary behavior often involves significant risk in that it is not necessarily rewarded by and often punished by traditional organizational systems for going against the established

social order (Heckett, 1998; Jones, 1998). Therefore, individuals need to move outside of their comfort zone, beyond the boundaries of their psychological safety net when they engage in change-oriented discretionary behaviors (Morrison, 2006). Given that change-oriented discretionary behaviors require individuals to voluntarily confront this kind of risk, risk-taking behaviors are expected to enhance change-oriented discretionary behaviors. Thus, I propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 5b: Risk-taking behaviors will be positively associated with change-oriented behavior.

Mediating Role of Identity-Related Cognition, Interpersonal Relationship, and Task-Related Orientation

Despite the inconsistent main effects for dissimilarity in the literature, research that explores the underlying mediating mechanism has been lacking (Lawrence, 1997; Prim et al., 1999). The underlying mechanisms producing dissimilarity effects such as identity, social, and task motives have been assumed as mediating processes but not directly assessed in previous research. In an effort to identify the mediating processes that translate affective dissimilarity into individual outcomes, I will investigate identity-related cognition, interpersonal relationship, and task-related orientation as mediating processes.

While researchers have suggested various theoretical approaches to understand the process effects of dissimilarity, emphasizing each of the theoretical approaches (e.g., similarity-attraction approach versus interpersonal complementarity approach), we need

to integrate these approaches and take a balanced perspective to understand the dissimilarity-process-performance link (Mannix & Neale, 2005). On the one hand, we need to consider why individuals gravitate to similarity and the comfort of belonging. On the other hand, we need to explain how dissimilarity can enhance performance through offering interpersonal complementarity. By examining both supplementarity and complementarity approaches regarding affective disposition, I propose that individual affective dissimilarity be negatively related to relationship-oriented behavior of individual members and positively related to their change-oriented behavior via identity-related cognition, interpersonal relationship, and task-related orientation.

First, I suggest that affective dissimilarity lead to identity-related cognition. Affective dissimilarity between an individual member and his or her peer members makes it more difficult for the focal member to feel like he or she belongs (Byrne, Clore, & Worchel, 1966; Ormiston & Wong, 2008) whereas it should help members differentiate themselves from the rest of the group and achieve feelings of distinctiveness more easily (Mannix & Neale, 2005; Ormiston & Wong, 2008). Then, identity-related cognition influences interpersonal relationship and task-related orientation of the individual. The frustration of the belongingness motive may have a negative impact on the interpersonal behaviors of an individual member. By contrast, the satisfaction of the distinctiveness motive may function as psychological conditions that help individuals to have a sense of self-determination and to stand up for what they believe is right in the face of risk. In turn, problematic interpersonal behaviors and their consequences for relationships with others in a group can lead individuals to be less

likely to engage in relationship-oriented discretionary behaviors directed at helping and cooperating with other group members (Janssen & Huang, 2008). In contrast, risk-taking behaviors may encourage individuals to engage in innovative change without being bounded by established paradigms (Amabile, 1996). Thus, I hypothesize that identity-related cognition, interpersonal and task-related behaviors mediate the relationship between affective dissimilarity and discretionary behavior of individual members:

Hypothesis 6a: The relationship between affective dissimilarity and relationship-oriented behavior will be mediated by identity-related cognition and interpersonal relationship.

Hypothesis 6b: The relationship between affective dissimilarity and change-oriented behavior will be mediated by identity-related cognition and task-related orientation.

Cross-Level Interaction between Group Affective Diversity and Affective Dissimilarity

To explain the inconsistent effects of diversity, the current theoretical trends favor a more nuanced contingency model, where moderators are taken into account beyond the “main effects” approach (Homan et al., 2008). Through identifying moderators, I can clarify the underlying mechanisms of diversity that may vary depending on situational factors such as the structural aspects of a situation (van Knippenberg et al., 2004). Hornsey and Jetten (2004), for example, demonstrates that individualistic group norm can be a contextual moderator that enables individuals who

are different from their coworkers to maintain group identification. According to Hornsey and Jetten (2004), individualistic group climate that appreciates distinct individuals and their dissimilarities may help dissimilar members simultaneously feel included and feel personally distinctive within the group.

Answering to the call for contingency model, this study examines affective diversity as a key contextual factor that may normalize or neutralize the effects of individual affective dissimilarity on individual behavior. Although previous studies have focused on the single-level effects of group composition on group processes and outcomes (Choi, 2007), this study investigates the role of affective diversity as a cross-level moderator on the relationship between affective dissimilarity and individual behavior.

Salience of Affective Dissimilarity: Moderating Role of Affective Diversity

I suggest that affective diversity may function as a context that shapes the meaning underlying affective dissimilarity in a group setting (Johns, 2006). For example, the so-called ‘frog pond effects’ (Firebaugh, 1980) represents the phenomenon observed when a frog living in a pond with small relatives is perceived as being larger than the same frog living in a pond with large relatives. In other words, the size of the frog appears to be dependent on the frog’s social context. In the same vein, being affectively dissimilar from the rest of the group may become more or less apparent to the group members, depending on the heterogeneity or homogeneity of the group in which they belong.

In this study, I propose that affective dissimilarity of group members become a

“normal” condition of work group in the affectively diverse group context because group affective diversity may render individual affective dissimilarity less salient (van Knippenberg & Shippers, 2007). An affectively dissimilar individual may not stand out from other group members if the group is composed of affectively heterogeneous members. By nullifying the effects of affective dissimilarity on identity-related cognition, group affective diversity becomes a basis for individuation in groups in terms of affectivity (Swann et al., 2003). In other words, I expect group-level affective diversity to interact with individual affective dissimilarity in that the differences between affectively similar individuals and affectively dissimilar individuals should be less pronounced in affectively diverse groups. Thus, I propose a contingency model whereby the negative effects of affective dissimilarity on group identification will be buffered under a high level of group affective heterogeneity. The positive effects of affective dissimilarity, on the contrary, on individual differentiation will be attenuated under a high level of group affective heterogeneity. Therefore, I can generate the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 7a: Group affective diversity will moderate the negative relationship between affective dissimilarity and group identification such that the negative relationship between affective dissimilarity and group identification will be reduced under a high level of group affective diversity.

Hypothesis 7b: Group Affective diversity will moderate the positive relationship between affective dissimilarity and individual differentiation such that the positive relationship between affective dissimilarity and individual differentiation will be

attenuated under a high level of group affective diversity.

Cross-Level Moderation of Leader Emotion Management Behavior

In this study, I propose that leader's emotion management behavior (LEMB) moderate the relationship between affective dissimilarity and identity-related cognition such that the negative effects of affective dissimilarity on group identification will be reduced whereas the positive effects of affective dissimilarity on individual differentiation will be strengthened when leaders display proficiency in emotion management behaviors. Although there is a potential trade-off between satisfying the need for group identification and the need for individual differentiation, leaders may mitigate the trade-off between these conflicting motives through managing the quality of intra-team relationships and positive affect in the team (Kaplan et al., 2012).

Regarding the negative effects of affective dissimilarity on group identification, leaders can prevent affective dissimilarity from hampering the formation of a social identity and instead reinforce the collective identity through creating norms of appreciation of individuality and diversity (Bettencourt & Sheldon, 2001; Jetten et al., 2002; Swann, Kwan, Polzer, & Milton, 2003) If individuals are regarded as effective as a team member, their individuality is reconcilable with group identification (Jetten, Postmes, & McAuliffe, 2002; Postmes, Spears, Lee, & Novak, 2005; Rink & Ellemers, 2007). Leaders' emotion management behaviors can assist in establishing emotional rules in the group that may help group members to adjust more easily irrespective of their affective dissimilarity from the rest of the members.

Through creating positive affective norms and offering psychological safety

and trust that group members feel during interpersonal interactions (West & Richter, 2008), leaders can amplify the positive effects of affective dissimilarity on individual differentiation. A group leader who displays proficiency in emotion management behavior may reduce the innate fear of appraisal and the social risk of losing face among group members and instead encourage their followers to express their individuality and be brave to be different (Janssen & Huang, 2008; Rink & Ellemers, 2007). Therefore, leaders can amplify the positive effects of affective dissimilarity on individual differentiation when their emotion management is better. This leads to the last hypotheses:

Hypothesis 8a: Leader's emotion management behavior will moderate the negative relationship between affective dissimilarity and group identification such that the negative relationship between affective dissimilarity and group identification will be reduced when leader emotion management is better.

Hypothesis 8b: Leader's emotion management behavior will moderate the positive relationship between affective dissimilarity and individual differentiation such that the positive relationship between affective dissimilarity and individual differentiation will be amplified when leader emotion management is better.

CHAPTER IV

MODEL TESTING

Research Setting, Participants, and Procedures

The sample of the present study was drawn from three manufacturing companies and an insurance company in Korea during a two-week period of May 2013. In order to reduce the problem related to the same source bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003), I collected data from two sources. Employees completed a self-report questionnaire that included measures of trait affectivity, group identification, individual differentiation, interpersonal conflict, risk-taking, and demographic information; and they rated the emotion management behavior of their supervisors. Supervisors completed a separate survey that rated the affiliative OCB and positive deviance of their subordinates and reported their own emotion management behaviors.

Of 68 supervisor surveys and 459 employee surveys distributed, 66 supervisor questionnaire (97% response rate) and 359 (78% response rate) were returned. After excluding incomplete forms and those failing to match supervisor ratings, the final analysis sample was composed of 293 employees from 66 work teams (64% response rate). For the employee sample, participants' education levels were: high school (10.9%), two years at college (41%), bachelor's degree (41.3%), and graduate degree (5.1%). Their job positions were: staff (21.8%), senior staff (21.2%), assistant manager (28.3%), department manager (24.6%), and deputy general manager or higher (4.1%). Average organizational tenure of the subordinates was 4.63 years ($SD = 3.70$). The average age

was 33.03 years ($SD = 5.13$) and 12.6% of the employees were women. The average organizational tenure of the supervisor group was 10.22 years ($SD = 5.84$) and the average age was 41.19 years ($SD = 4.18$). Supervisor education levels were: high school (13.4%), two years at college (28.4%), bachelor's degree (44.8%), and graduate degree (11.9%). Their job positions were department manager (26.2%) and deputy general manager or higher (72.3%), and 3% of the supervisors were women.

Measures

Study variables were assessed using multi-item scales with acceptable reliability. All items were measured on Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 6 (*strongly agree*).

Positive and negative trait affect. To assess trait affectivity of employees, I used 20 items taken from Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS; Watson, Clark, & Tellegan, 1988). Ten items were used to measure positive affectivity ($\alpha = .91$): “In general, I feel (1) interested, (2) excited, (3) strong, (4) enthusiastic, (5) proud, (6) inspired, (7) determined, (8) attentive, (9) active, and (10) alert.” Negative affectivity was also measured using ten items ($\alpha = .92$): “In general, I feel (1) distressed, (2) upset, (3) guilty, (4) scared, (5) hostile, (6) irritable, (7) ashamed, (8) nervous, (9) jittery, and (10) afraid.”

Affective dissimilarity. Following Tsui and O'Reilly's (1989) method, I measured affective dissimilarity by using the formula for Euclidean distance:

$$\left[\frac{\sum_{j=1}^n (S_i - S_j)^2}{n} \right]^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

Where S_i = the respondent's own score on the dimension being examined, S_j = each of the other team members' score on the dimension being examined, and n = the number of team members.

Group identification. Using a three-item measure ($\alpha = .91$) developed by Sheldon and Bettencourt (2002), I assessed group identification of team members. The scale included the following items: "I feel included in this group," "I feel well-integrated into this group," and "I feel a sense of belongingness within the group."

Individual differentiation. I used a three-item measure ($\alpha = .88$) developed by Sheldon and Bettencourt (2002) to assess individual differentiation. Individual differentiation items are: "I feel like I stand out within this group," "I feel unique as I participate in this group," and "I feel distinct and separate within this group."

Interpersonal conflict. Four items ($\alpha = .87$) derived from the relationship conflict scale of Jehn (1995) was modified to measure interpersonal conflict. Interpersonal conflict items are: "I often experience frictions with other team members," "I often experience personality conflicts with other team members," "I often experience tension with other team members," and "I often experience emotional conflicts with other team members." These items reflect conflicts that the focal employee experiences over relationship issues in the team he/she belongs to.

Risk-taking. I used a three-item measure ($\alpha = .81$) adopted from prior studies (Andrews & Smith, 1996; Weber, Blais, & Betz, 2002). Items are: "In my work, I like to play it safe when I'm developing ideas (reverse)," "I am a risk-taker when it comes to proposing ideas," and "I prefer to think conservatively when I develop ideas (reverse)."

Helping. Helping was measured adapting four items ($\alpha = .87$) developed by L. J. Williams and Anderson (1991). The immediate supervisors of the participants were asked to indicate the extent to which each of the helping behaviors described in the four items were characteristic of the focal participant. Items are: “This employee helps others who have been absent,” “This employee takes a personal interest in the well-being of others,” “This employee helps others who have heavy workloads,” and “This employee goes out of the way to help new employees.”

Positive deviance. To assess positive deviance, I used the following four items ($\alpha = .85$) from Galperin (2012)’s measure of Interpersonal Deviance. The four items are: “This employee did not follow my orders in order to improve work procedures,” “This employee disagreed with others in the work group in order to improve the current work procedures,” “This employee disobeyed my instructions to perform more efficiently,” and “This employee reported a wrong-doing to another person in the company to bring about a positive organizational change.”

Affective diversity was measured through heterogeneity in trait affect at the group level. To measure group-level affective diversity, I used the standard deviation of members’ trait affect.

Leader emotion management behavior. Adopting Twelve-items from Sy (2007), I measured leader emotion management behavior (LEMB). Three items were used to measure leader’s positive affect promotion behavior ($\alpha = .81$): “I create pleasant feelings in our group because I believe a happy person is a productive person,” “I try to

create a fun environment for everyone,” and “I praise others positively when they deserve it.” Leader’s positive affect suppression behaviors were measured using three items ($\alpha = .28$): “I try to keep people’s pleasant emotions under control because it can be distracting to others,” “I encourage others to keep a “level head” when they are too positive,” and “I try to suppress overly pleasant emotions because it makes people lazy.” Three items were also used to measure leader’s negative affect promotion behavior ($\alpha = .59$): “I push others to meet their goals even if they do not like it,” “I let people know when I am disappointed with them,” and “I point out things that people are doing wrong even if it hurts their feelings.” Leader’s negative affect suppression behaviors were measured using three items ($\alpha = .69$): “I try to minimize unpleasant feelings between members of our group,” “I try to prevent people’s unpleasant outbursts from affecting others,” and “I try to eliminate tensions between people.” Owing to the low reliability, I did not use two sub-dimensions of LEMB, leader’s positive affect suppression behaviors and leader’s negative affect promotion behavior. Besides, these two sub-dimensions of LEMB are not typically observed in real-world settings.

Control variables. In addition to the study variables described above, I included several control variables in the statistical analyses. Following other researchers, I controlled for company, gender, age, education level, and tenure that might have significant influence on interpersonal and task-related processes (Amabile, 1996; Mumford & Gustafson, 1988).

CHAPTER V

RESULTS

Preliminary Analyses

Confirmatory factor analysis

To examine the empirical distinctness of the study variables (i.e., PA, NA, group identification, individual differentiation, interpersonal conflict, risk-taking, helping behavior, positive deviance), a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted with maximum likelihood estimation. The results confirm the eight-factor structure ($\chi^2 (df = 832) = 1900.62, p < .001, \chi^2 / df = 2.28, CFI = .86, TLI = .84, RMSEA = .06$), which fits the data better than do conceptually feasible alternative models. For example, the results show that a seven-factor model in which helping behavior and positive deviance load onto a single factor produces a worse fit ($\chi^2 (df = 839) = 2485.74, p < .001, \chi^2 / df = 2.96, CFI = .79, TLI = .76, RMSEA = .08$). Tables 1 and 2 present the descriptive statistics and intercorrelations among all study variables and control variables.

Comparison of the Hypothesized Model and Alternative Models

The theoretical propositions of the present study were tested using multilevel structural equation modeling (MSEM) with Mplus 6.1 (Muthen & Muthen, 1998-2007) because it allowed an omnibus test of multistep mediation effects in two-level data (Preacher et al., 2011). A multilevel structural model with all the hypothesized relations among the study variables exhibited a reasonable fit to the data, $\chi^2 (df = 15) = 38.258, p$

< .001, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .073, CFI = .932. To verify the possibility that a theoretically plausible alternative model can better explain the present data, I compared several alternative models against the hypothesized model, as reported in Table 3.

The first three alternative models (i.e., Models 1, 2 and 3) examined the possibility that the mediating roles of identity-related cognition and interpersonal / task-related behaviors are only partial rather than complete. Thus, I tested the possibility of partial mediation by adding direct effect paths: (a) direct effect of affective dissimilarity on interpersonal conflict and risk-taking behavior (Model 1); (b) direct effects of affective dissimilarity on individual performance (Model 2); and (c) direct effects of cognitive processes of self-categorization on individual performance (Model 3). Among the three cases, the partial mediation model with additional direct effect paths from identity-related cognition to individual performance (Model 3) improved the model fit significantly ($\Delta\chi^2 (\Delta df = 2) = 15.11, p < .05$). The Akaike information criterion (AIC) of Model 3 is lower than the hypothesized model.

The next three alternative models (e.g., Models 4, 5, and 6) tested the possibility of reverse causality: (d) reverse causality between interpersonal / task-related behaviors and identity-related cognitions (Model 4); (e) reverse causality between individual performance and interpersonal/ task-related behaviors (Model 5); and (f) reverse causality between individual performance and identity-related cognition (Model 6). The results of the Model 4, 5, and 6 are presented in Table 3. None of the model with reverse causality improved the model fit significantly.

Table 1

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations: Individual Level (N=293)

Variables	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. CO1	.63	.48	--						
2. CO2	.09	.29	-.41**	--					
3. CO3	.21	.41	-.68**	-.16**	--				
4. Gender	.13	.33	-.01	-.08	.00	--			
5. Age	33.03	5.08	-.22**	.24**	.07	-.28**	--		
6. Education	3.38	.80	.20**	.05	-.41**	.14*	-.10	--	
7. Tenure	4.64	3.70	-.20**	.48**	-.21**	-.05	.47**	-.03	--
8. PTA	3.86	.80	.05	-.02	-.02	-.01	.09	.04	-.08
9. NTA	2.57	.87	.05	-.04	-.03	.11	-.02	-.05	.04
10. PADiss	.89	.41	.14	-.19***	.01	-.14	-.01	-.05	-.20**
11. NADiss	.97	.41	.04	.00	.01	.01	.01	-.03	.01
12. GI	4.53	.97	-.07	-.00	.08	-.11	.04	.05	-.02
13. ID	3.45	1.09	.05	-.14*	.10	-.02	-.02	-.09	-.17**
14. RC	2.56	.82	-.02	-.02	.08	.11	.04	-.14*	.01
15. Risk	3.52	.70	-.01	.04	.02	-.26**	.15**	-.06	-.03
16. Helpng	4.22	.80	.17**	-.06	-.14*	-.03	.07	-.01	.05
17. PD	2.77	.92	.02	-.11	.04	-.10	.25**	-.06	.09

Note. PTA = Positive Trait Affect; NTA = Negative Trait Affect; PADiss = Positive Affect Dissimilarity; NADiss = Negative Affect Dissimilarity; GI = Group Identification; ID = Individual Differentiation; RC = Relationship Conflict; Risk = Risk-taking; Helping = Helping Behavior; PD = Positive Deviance;

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

Table 1

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations: Individual Level (N=293)

Variables	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. CO1						
2. CO2						
3. CO3						
4. Gender						
5. Age						
6. Education						
7. Tenure						
8. PTA	--					
9. NTA	-.36**	--				
10. PADiss	-.10	.01	--			
11. NADiss	.06	.06	.05	--		
12. GI	.40**	-.50**	-.05	-.02	--	
13. ID	.33**	-.02	.11	-.03	.19**	--
14. RC	-.08	.41**	-.04	.04	-.28**	.21**
15. Risk	.26*	-.18**	.12*	-.06	.18**	.30**
16. Helpng	.10	.02	-.03	.02	.13*	.06
17. PD	.12*	-.04	-.05	.01	.15*	.24**

Note. PTA = Positive Trait Affect; NTA = Negative Trait Affect; PADiss = Positive Affect Dissimilarity; NADiss = Negative Affect Dissimilarity; GI = Group Identification; ID = Individual Differentiation; RC = Relationship Conflict; Risk = Risk-taking; Helping = Helping Behavior; PD = Positive Deviance;

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

Table 1

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations: Individual Level (N=293)

Variables	14	15	16	17
1. CO1				
2. CO2				
3. CO3				
4. Gender				
5. Age				
6. Education				
7. Tenure				
8. PTA				
9. NTA				
10. PADiss				
11. NADiss				
12. GI				
13. ID				
14. RC	--			
15. Risk	.02	--		
16. Helpng	-.10	.01	--	
17. PD	.05	.23**	.26**	--

Note. PTA = Positive Trait Affect; NTA = Negative Trait Affect; PADiss = Positive Affect Dissimilarity; NADiss = Negative Affect Dissimilarity; GI = Group Identification; ID = Individual Differentiation; RC = Relationship Conflict; Risk = Risk-taking; Helping = Helping Behavior; PD = Positive Deviance;
 * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 2

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations: Group Level (N=66)

Variables	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>7</i>
1. PADiv	.70	.30	--						
2. NADiv	.78	.32	-.01	--					
3. LEMB_PP	4.74	.75	.11	.00	--				
4. LEMB_NS	4.44	.64	.13	.15	.55**	--			
5. AggGI	4.54	.57	-.13	-.00	-.16	-.20	--		
6. AggID	3.46	.56	.16	.08	.02	.18	.11	--	
7. AggRC	2.57	.46	-.09	-.01	.09	.06	-.18	.27*	--
8. AggRisk	3.47	.41	.14	-.19	.05	.18	.10	.34**	-.01
9. AggHelping	4.21	.55	-.11	.25*	-.19	.01	.10	.14	-.07
10. AggPD	2.76	.67	-.09	-.22	-.11	.03	.18	.25*	.03

Note. PADiv = Positive Affect Diversity; NADiv = Negative Affect Diversity; LEMB_PP = Leader Emotion Management Behavior (Positive Affect Promotion Behavior); LEMB_NS = Leader Emotion Management Behavior (Negative Affect Suppression Behavior); AggGI = Aggregated Group Identification; AggID = Aggregated Individual Differentiation; AggRC = Aggregated Relationship Conflict; AggRisk = Aggregated Risk-taking; AggHelping = Aggregated Helping Behavior; AggPD = Aggregated Positive Deviance;

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Table 2

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations: Group Level (N=66)

Variables	8	9	10
1. PADiv			
2. NADiv			
3. LEMB_PP			
4. LEMB_NS			
5. AggGI			
6. AggID			
7. AggRC			
8. AggRisk	--		
9. AggHelping	-.03	--	
10. AggPD	.37**	.37**	--

Note. PADiv = Positive Affect Diversity; NADiv = Negative Affect Diversity; LEMB_PP = Leader Emotion Management Behavior (Positive Affect Promotion Behavior); LEMB_NS = Leader Emotion Management Behavior (Negative Affect Suppression Behavior); AggGI = Aggregated Group Identification; AggID = Aggregated Individual Differentiation; AggRC = Aggregated Relationship Conflict; AggRisk = Aggregated Task-related Risk-taking; AggHelping = Aggregated Helping Behavior; AggPD = Aggregated Positive Deviance;

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Table 3

Comparison of Alternative Structural Models

Structural Models	χ^2	<i>df</i>	CFI	RMSEA	AIC
Model 0: Hypothesized structural model	38.258	15	.932	.073	4226.019
Model 1: Direct effects of affective dissimilarity on RC and Risk	32.356	11	.938	.081	4228.524
Model 2: Direct effects of affective dissimilarity on Helping and PD	36.536	11	.926	.089	4230.299
Model 3: Direct effects of GI on Helping and ID on PD	23.147	13	.970	.052	4213.687
Model 4: Reverse causality (RC predicting GI and Risk predicting ID)	50.744	17	.902	.082	4274.851
Model 5: Reverse causality (Helping predicting RC and PD predicting Risk)	56.727	17	.884	.089	4243.318
Model 6: Reverse causality (Helping predicting GI and PD predicting ID)	58.502	19	.885	.084	4240.732

Note. GI = Group Identification; ID = Individual Differentiation; RC = Relationship Conflict; Risk = Risk-taking; Helping = Helping Behavior; PD = Positive Deviance;

Tests of Hypotheses

Results of the best-fitting model, which added direct effects of group identification on helping behavior and of individual differentiation on positive deviance to the hypothesized model, are presented in Figure 2. Among the control variables, gender had a weak, significant relationship with interpersonal conflict ($\beta = .09, p < .10$). Company dummy 1, age and tenure were positively associated with risk-taking behavior ($\beta = .10, p < .10, \beta = .23, p < .01$ and $\beta = .21, p < .05$, respectively) whereas company dummy 2 was negatively associated with risk-taking behavior ($\beta = -.26, p < .05$).

Hypotheses 1a and 1b suggest that individual members' affect be related to sense of identification with their group. My results show that trait positive and negative affect were significant predictors of group identification ($\beta = .27, p < .001$ and $\beta = -.39, p < .001$, respectively), supporting those hypotheses. Hypotheses 1c and 1d propose that individuals' affect be associated with their sense of differentiation from other members. The results supported hypothesis 1c ($\beta = .38, p < .001$), but not hypothesis 1d ($\beta = .12, p < .05$). Contrary to my expectation, individual members' negative affect was found to be positively related to individual differentiation.

Hypotheses 2a, and 2b propose direct relationships between affective dissimilarity and individual behavior, excluding mediating variables from the model. None of the paths from affective dissimilarity to individual behavior was significant. Therefore, Hypothesis 2 was not supported. Hypotheses 3a and 3b postulate the

relationships between affective dissimilarity and cognitive processes of self-categorization. As expected, positive affect dissimilarity was positively related to individual differentiation ($\beta = .12, p < .05$), supporting Hypothesis 3b. However, the path from positive affect dissimilarity to group identification was insignificant ($\beta = -.02, ns$).

Hypotheses 4a posits a negative relationship between group identification and interpersonal conflict. The results show that group identification had a significant, negative association with interpersonal conflict ($\beta = -.16, p < .05$), providing support for Hypothesis 4a. Hypothesis 4b proposes that individual differentiation be positively associated with risk-taking. As expected, individual differentiation was positively related to risk-taking ($\beta = .25, p < .001$). Therefore, Hypothesis 4 was supported. Hypothesis 5a postulates a negative association between interpersonal conflict and relationship-oriented behavior. The results show that interpersonal conflict had a weak, negative association with affiliative OCB ($\beta = -.14, p < .10$). Hypothesis 5b posits a positive relationship between risk-taking and change-oriented behavior. As expected, risk taking was positively associated with positive deviance ($\beta = .14, p < .05$).

Hypotheses 6a and 6b propose that identity-related cognition, interpersonal conflict, and risk-taking mediate the relationship between affective dissimilarity and discretionary behavior of individual members. Despite the lack of the direct effects of affective dissimilarity on discretionary behaviors of individuals, the MSEM results depicted in Figure 2 provided support for Hypotheses 3, 4, and 5, which comprise the

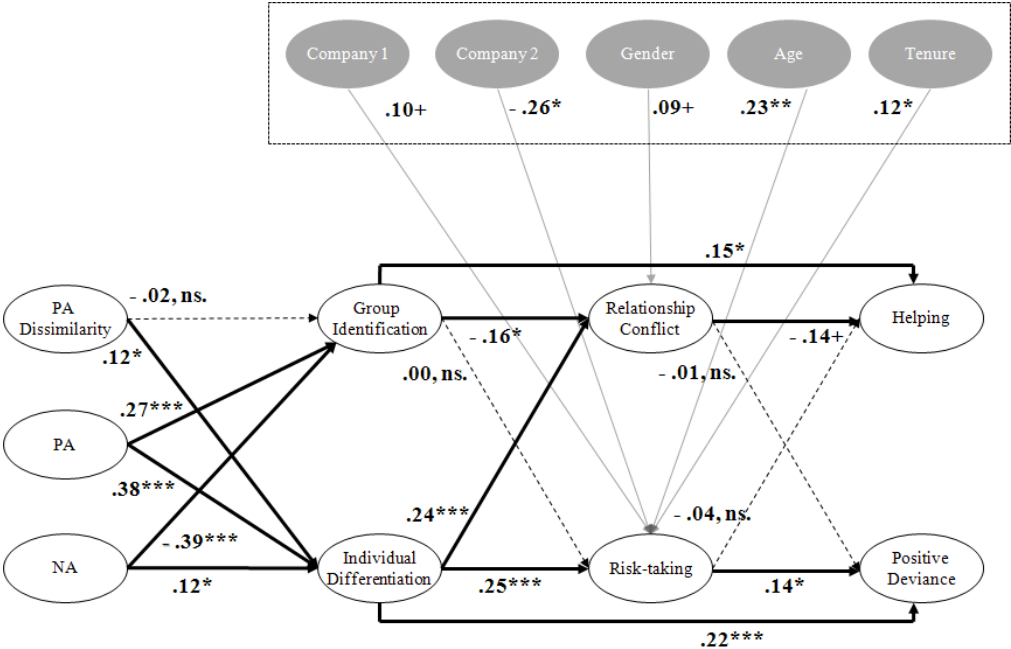
underlying steps linking affective dissimilarity to discretionary behaviors of individuals. Given this pattern, there still remains the possibility of an indirect relationship between positive affect dissimilarity and change-oriented behavior of individuals, with individual differentiation and task-related risk-taking behaviors operating as intervening processes (Mathieu & Taylor, 2006).

Following recent recommendations (Mackinnon, Fairchild, & Fritz, 2007; Shrout & Bolger, 2002), therefore, I validated my mediation hypotheses by employing the product-of-coefficient approach. I tested the statistical significance of the potential indirect effects of positive affect dissimilarity on change-oriented discretionary behavior of individuals using the bootstrapping procedure (Mackinnon et al., 2007). This follow-up analysis identified the significant total indirect effects of positive affect dissimilarity on positive deviance (point estimate = .10 [.01, .19]). As shown in Figure 3, the double-mediated relationship model posed in Hypothesis 6 was not supported. Figures 4 and 5 further elaborate the mediating processes proposed in Hypothesis 6. In Figure 4, the bootstrap procedure indicated an insignificant main effect of positive affect dissimilarity on positive deviance ($\beta = -.15, ns.$). There is, however, a significant direct path c' ($\beta = -.22, p < .10$) in addition to a significant indirect path a ($\beta = .32, p < .05$) * b ($\beta = .21, p < .001$). These results demonstrated partial mediation by the individual differentiation of the relationship between positive affect dissimilarity and positive deviance.

Figure 5 shows that the effect of positive affect dissimilarity on positive deviance was fully mediated by the risk-taking behavior. Although the direct effect of positive affect dissimilarity on positive deviance was not significant, it was a marginally

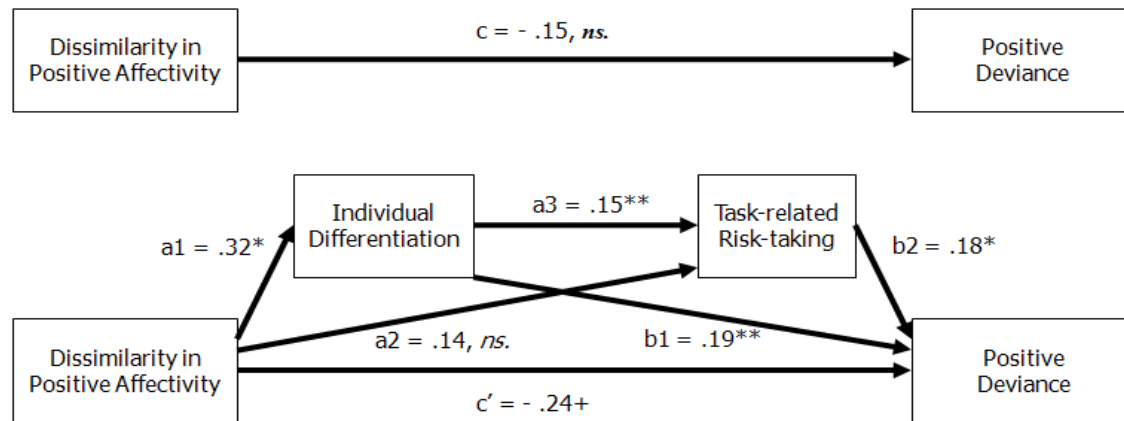
significant predictor of risk-taking behavior ($\beta = .19, p < .10$), which in turn explained positive deviance ($\beta = .25, p < .001$). The indirect effect of positive affect dissimilarity on positive deviance via risk-taking behavior was statistically significant (point estimate = .05, [.00, .13]).

Figure2: Results of Multilevel Structural Equation Modeling



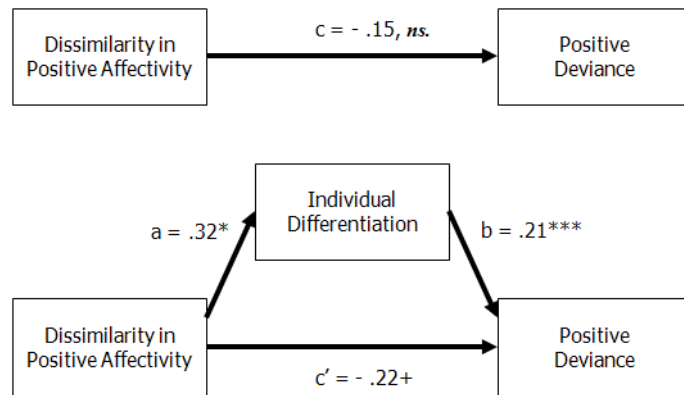
+ $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Figure3: Indirect Effects of Positive Affect Dissimilarity on Positive Deviance via Individual Differentiation and Risk-taking



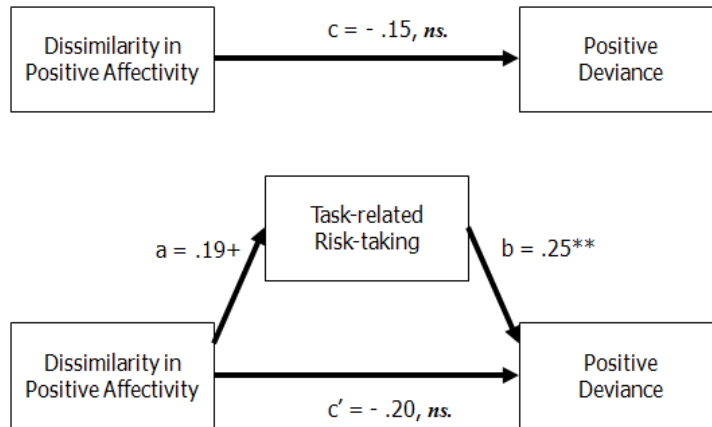
Note. The numbers represents the unstandardized regression coefficients that were derived from a bootstrap procedure. The *a1* and *a2* paths represent the relationships between the predictor variable and the mediator variables; the *a3* path represents the relationship between the two mediating variables; the *b1* and *b2* paths represent the relationships between the mediator variables and the outcome variable; the *c* path represents the total effect; and the *c*-prime path represents the direct effect.
 + $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Figure 4: Indirect Effects of Positive Affect Dissimilarity on Positive Deviance via Individual Differentiation



Note. The numbers represents the unstandardized regression coefficients that were derived from a bootstrap procedure. The a path represents the relationships between the predictor variable and the mediator variable; the b path represents the relationships between the mediator variable and the outcome variable; the c path represents the total effect; and the c -prime path represents the direct effect.
+ $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; *** $p < .001$

Figure 5: Indirect Effects of Positive Affect Dissimilarity on Positive Deviance via Risk-taking



Note. The numbers represents the unstandardized regression coefficients that were derived from a bootstrap procedure. The a path represents the relationships between the predictor variable and the mediator variable; the b path represents the relationships between the mediator variable and the outcome variable; the c path represents the total effect; and the c -prime path represents the direct effect. $+ p < .10$; $** p < .01$

Table 4

Indirect Effects of Mediated Relationships

	Product of Coefficients		Bootstrapping Bias-Corrected 95% CI	
	<i>Effect</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>Lower</i>	<i>Upper</i>
PA Dissimilarity → PD	.0952	.0457	.0081	.1888
PA Dissimilarity → ID → PD	.0594	.0348	.0006	.1373
PA Dissimilarity → TR → PD	.0267	.0226	-.0133	.0782
PA Dissimilarity → ID → TR → PD	.0091	.0070	-.0003	.0264
PA Dissimilarity → PD	.0687	.0390	.0001	.1560
PA Dissimilarity → ID → PD	.0687	.0390	.0001	.1560
PA Dissimilarity → PD	.0476	.0309	.0009	.1296
PA Dissimilarity → TR → PD	.0476	.0309	.0009	.1296

Note. Bootstrap sample size = 1000. Coefficients in bold indicates significant mediation. CI = confidence interval. PD = Positive Deviance; ID = Individual Differentiation; Risk = Risk-taking.

Hypotheses 7 and 8 delineate cross-level contextual moderators of the relationship between group members' affective dissimilarity and their identity-related cognition. Hypotheses 7a and 7b posit that group affective diversity may moderate the extent to which affective dissimilarity of group members influences their cognitive process of self-categorization. According to Hypotheses 7a and 7b, group affective diversity renders individual affective dissimilarity less salient (van Knippenberg & Shippers, 2007), thus normalizing or neutralizing the effects of individual affective dissimilarity on identity-related cognition. As reported in Model 2 in Table 5, individual dissimilarity on trait positive affect interacts with positive affect diversity to reduce its negative effects on group identification ($\gamma = .91, p < .01$) (Model 2 in Table 5). Contrary to my hypothesis 7b, however, the cross-level interaction between positive affect dissimilarity and positive affect diversity is shown to promote individual differentiation ($\gamma = .93, p < .01$) (Model 2 in Table 6).

I further probed into the significant cross-level interaction by comparing the slopes associated with high and low positive affect diversity conditions (Aiken & West, 1991). As expected, Figure 6 shows that the group members' positive affect dissimilarity is negatively related to group identification when positive affect diversity is low ($b = -.48, p < .10$) but not when it is high ($b = .06, ns.$). Unlike my expectation, however, Figure 7 shows that the group members' positive affect dissimilarity is positively related to individual differentiation when positive affect diversity is high ($b = .46, p < .10$) but not when it is low ($b = -.10, ns.$).

Table 5
Hierarchical Linear Models Predicting Group Identification

Variables	M1	M2	M3
<i>Individual-level Process</i>			
Company1	-.10	-.00	-.18
Company2	-.12	-.07	-.26
Company3	.11	.22	-.00
Gender	-.31+	-.35*	-.33+
Age	-.01	-.01	-.01
Education	.12	.13	.13
Tenure	.00	.00	.00
PTA	.30***	.33***	.30***
NTA	-.42***	-.40***	-.41***
PTA Dissimilarity	-.17	-.84*	-.15
<i>Cross-level Process</i>			
PTA Diss * PA Div		.91**	
PTA Diss * Leader PP			.21
PTA Diss * Leader NS			-.05
<i>Group-level Process</i>			
PA Diversity		-1.03*	
Leader PP			-.54+
Leader NS			-.09
Sigma squared	.59	.59	.58
Tau	.16	.17	.17
Deviance	740.94	736.00	742.41

Table 6
Hierarchical Linear Models Predicting Individual Differentiation

Variables	M1	M2	M3
<i>Individual-level Process</i>			
Company1	.33+	.44**	.39+
Company2	-.03	.02	.05
Company3	.52*	.65**	.61*
Gender	-.01	-.04	.05
Age	-.00	-.01	-.00
Education	-.02	-.01	-.02
Tenure	-.00	-.00	-.00
PTA	.53***	.56***	.53***
NTA	.13	.15	.11
PTA Dissimilarity	.29*	-.47	.18
<i>Cross-level Process</i>			
PTA Diss * PA Div		.93**	
PTA Diss * Leader PP			.29+
PTA Diss * Leader NS			.06
<i>Group-level Process</i>			
PA Diversity		-.87+	
Leader PP			-.53+
Leader NS			.69
Sigma squared	1.04	1.03	1.04
Tau	.02	.03	.03
Deviance	855.25	849.88	857.23

Figure 6: Cross-level Moderation by Positive Affect Diversity

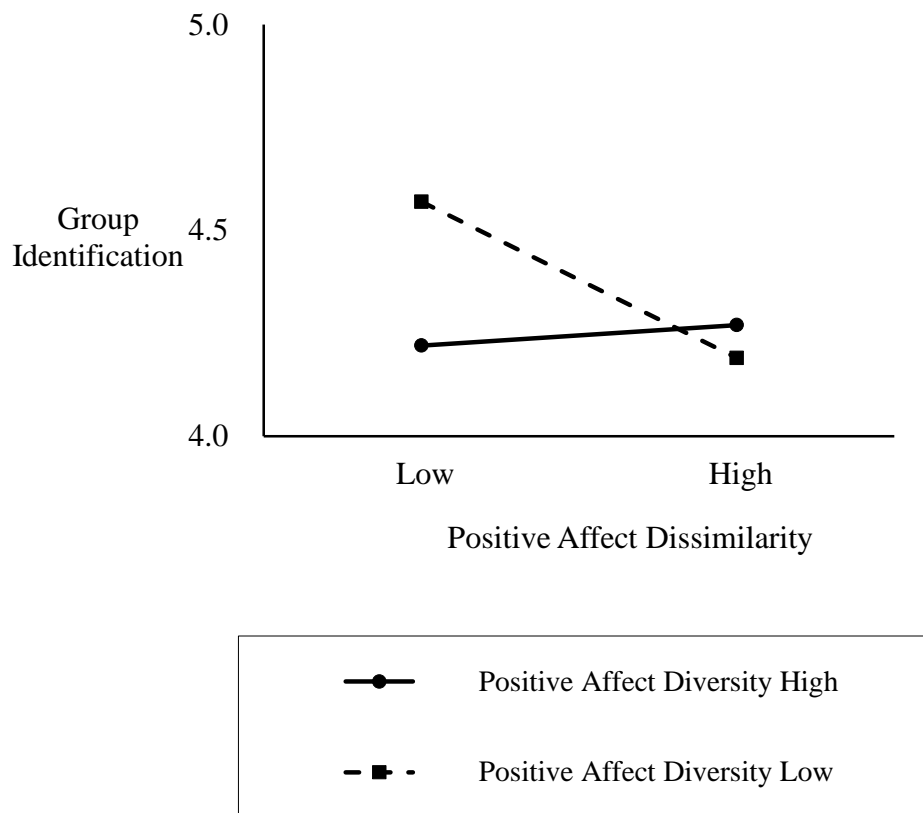
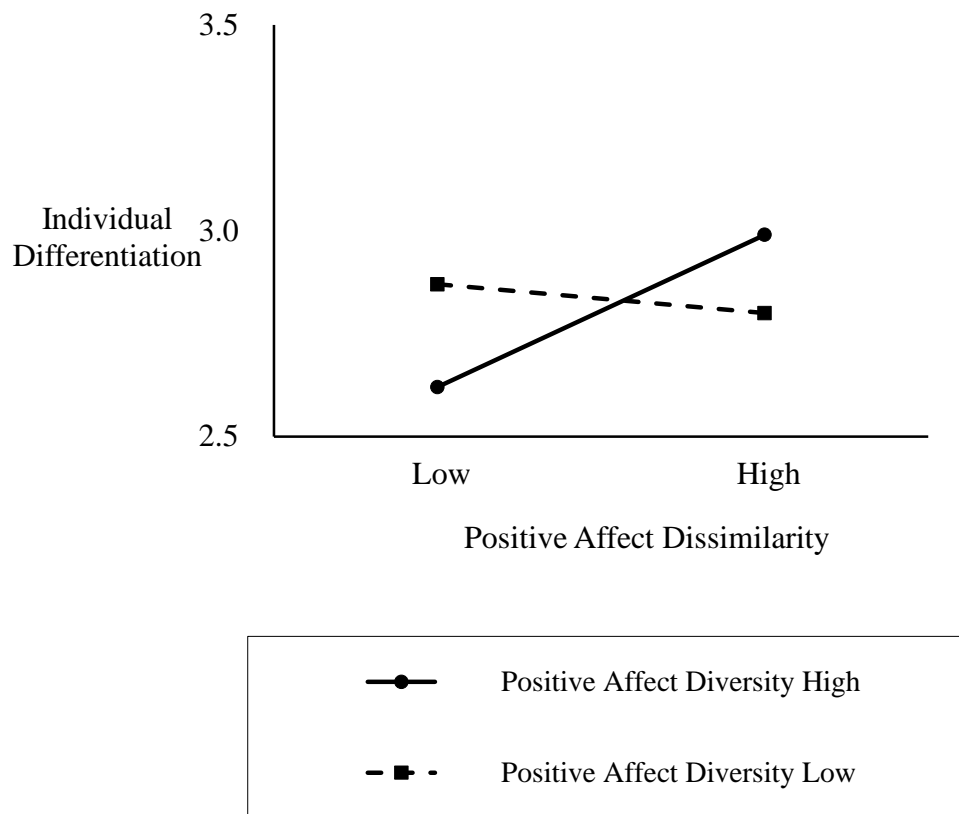


Figure 7: Cross-level Moderation by Positive Affect Diversity



Hypotheses 8a and 8b delineate cross-level contextual moderating effects of leader's emotion management behavior on the relationship between members' affective dissimilarity and their identity-related cognition. Specifically, leader's proficiency in emotion management behaviors is hypothesized to reduce the negative effects of affective dissimilarity on group identification whereas it is expected to increase the positive effects of affective dissimilarity on individual differentiation. As reported in Model 3 in Table 6, the cross-level interaction between positive affect dissimilarity and leader's positive affect promotion behavior is shown to increase individual differentiation ($\gamma = .29, p < .10$) (Model 3 in Table 6). The results show that leader's positive affect promotion behavior is shown to have a significant positive moderating effect on the relationship between positive affect dissimilarity and individual differentiation.

I estimated a slope-as-outcome model in HLM to test these cross-level moderation hypotheses. Figure 8 shows that the group members' positive affect dissimilarity is more positively related to individual differentiation when leader's positive affect promotion behavior is high ($b = 1.93, p < .05$) than when it is low ($b = .96, p < .05$). The results of my hypotheses are presented in Table 7.

Table 7

Results of Hypotheses

	Hypotheses	Results
H1	<i>1a.</i> Individual member's PA will be positively related to group identification of the individual.	H1a: supported.
	<i>1b.</i> Individual member's NA will be negatively related to group identification of the individual.	H1b: supported.
	<i>1c.</i> Individual member's PA will be positively related to individual differentiation of the individual.	H1c: supported.
	<i>1d.</i> Individual member's NA will be negatively related to individual differentiation of the individual.	H1d: supported but the direction was opposite.
H2	<i>2a.</i> PA dissimilarity will be negatively related to relationship-oriented behavior of the individual.	H2a: not supported.
	<i>2b.</i> PA dissimilarity will be positively related to change-oriented behavior of the individual.	H2b: not supported.
H3	<i>3a.</i> PA dissimilarity will be negatively related to group identification.	H3a: not supported.
	<i>3b.</i> PA dissimilarity will be positively related to individual differentiation.	H3b: supported.

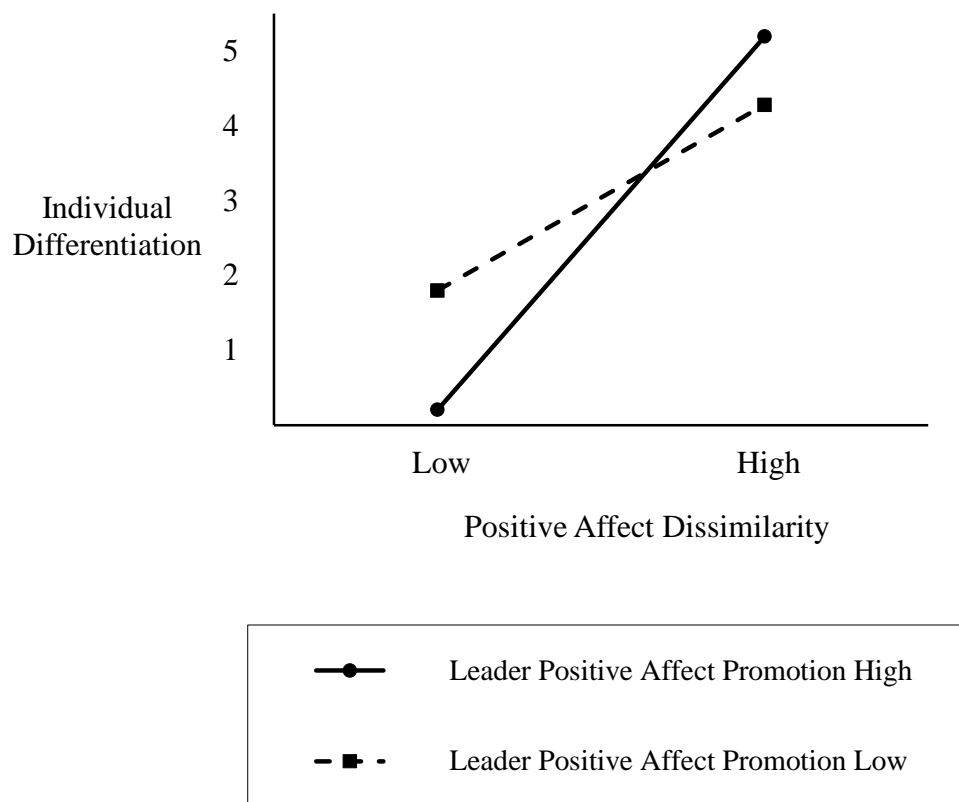
(continued)

	Hypotheses	Results
H4	<i>4a.</i> Group identification will be negatively related to interpersonal conflict.	H4a: supported.
	<i>4b.</i> Individual differentiation will be positively related to risk-taking.	H4b: supported.
H5	<i>5a.</i> Interpersonal conflict will be negatively related to relationship-oriented behavior.	H5a: supported.
	<i>5b.</i> Risk-taking will be positively related to change-oriented behavior.	H5b: supported.
H6	<i>6a.</i> The relationship between affective dissimilarity and relationship-oriented behavior will be mediated by identity-related cognition and interpersonal relationship.	H6a: not supported.
	<i>6b.</i> The relationship between affective dissimilarity and change-oriented behavior will be mediated by identity-related cognition and task-related orientation.	H6b: supported.

(continued)

H7	<i>7a.</i> Group affective diversity will moderate the negative relationship between affective dissimilarity and group identification such that the negative relationship between affective dissimilarity and group identification will be reduced under high level of group affective diversity.	H7a: supported.
	<i>7b.</i> Group affective diversity will moderate the positive relationship between affective dissimilarity and individual differentiation, such that the positive relationship between affective dissimilarity and individual differentiation will be attenuated under high level of group affective diversity.	H7b: supported but the direction was opposite.
H8	<i>8a.</i> LEMB will moderate the negative relationship between affective dissimilarity and group identification such that the negative relationship between affective dissimilarity and group identification will be reduced when LEMB is better.	H8a: not supported.
	<i>8b.</i> LEMB will moderate the positive relationship between affective dissimilarity and individual differentiation such that the positive relationship between affective dissimilarity and individual differentiation will be amplified when LEMB is better.	H8b: partially supported.

Figure 8: Cross-level Moderation by Leader's Positive Affect Promotion Behavior



Post-hoc Analyses

Although the current focus on affective dissimilarity is related to the degree of discrepancy between individual affect and that of the rest of the group members, the direction of the discrepancy between two predictor variables may further our understanding of affective dynamics in group settings. The degree of discrepancy refers to the extent to which the levels of the two predictor variables differ from each other whereas the direction of the discrepancy signifies which predictor is higher than the other (Shanock et al., 2010). Since the methodology I utilize to operationalize affective dissimilarity in this study is the relational demography approach, which is the methodology that has been mainly applied to the study of individual dissimilarity, I consider only the degree of discrepancy between individual affect and peer affect but not the direction of the discrepancy. Using polynomial regression with response surface analysis, however, I will examine the extent to which combinations of individual and group affect relate to outcome variables in post-hoc analyses.

Polynomial regression with response surface analysis is a sophisticated, emerging approach that can provide a nuanced view of relationships between combinations of two predictor variables and an outcome variable (Edwards & Parry, 1993; Shanock et al, 2010). This approach came from attempts to solve problems associated with using traditional difference scores to analyzing discrepancies in ratings (Edwards, 1994, 2002). Differences scores, including the algebraic, squared, or absolute difference between two scores or the absolute or squared difference among a profile of scores, have some problems in that they cause information loss that may aid in the

interpretation of results by combining distinct measures into one score and reducing the model to two dimensions (Shanock et al, 2010). Difference scores do not tell us the extent to which each of the component measures contribute to the outcome variable and whether it is better or worse for the outcome to have one component than the other component. Through employing polynomial regression, however, we can retain the independent effect of each component measure.

In fit literature, this approach has been used to examine how person-environment fit data (similarities and differences) relate to performance (Gibson et al., 2009). For example, Kristof-Brown et al.'s (2005) examines complementary person-team fit on extraversion (i.e., high individual-low team or low individual-high team levels) in relation to individual members' attraction to their teams and subsequent performance by using this approach. According to Kristof-Brown et al. (2005), each member's standing on extraversion influences the effectiveness social interactions such that dissimilarity in members' level of extraversion stimulated feelings of attraction toward the team. In Kristof-Brown et al.'s (2005) study, personality complementarity is suggested to induce individuals to contribute more fully to team-based work because extraverts and introverts have their needs (high need for dominance versus low need for dominance) met through interpersonal interactions with each other.

By using polynomial regression with response surface analysis, I examined how affective dissimilarity of an individual to the average level of affect in groups influences identity-based cognitions of the individual. The graphs, shown in Figures 9 and 10, demonstrate the results. Figure 9 shows that the highest level of group

identification is at the back corner of the graph where individual PA and team PA are both high, indicating that group identification is enhanced by both forms of PA in combination. In other words, individual PA and team PA produce a synergistic effect, mutually reinforcing the effect of each other. Unlike my expectation, however, the graph shows the lowest level of group identification at the front of the graph where individual PA and team PA are both low. In addition, the graph shows that toward the left and right of the graph, where individual PA and team PA become more and more discrepant, group identification increases. This pattern suggests that, when both individual PA and team PA are low, group identification is lower than when PA of either party is high. In other words, the effects of PA (of either party) are stronger than those of PA dissimilarity. Finally, group identification increases similarly as the discrepancy between individual PA and team PA increases in either direction (individual PA high or team PA high), moving away from the center of the graph, indicating that the direction of discrepancy does not matter much.

In Figure 10, individual differentiation was highest when the individual was high on PA and the team was low and when the individual was low and the team was high, supporting the complementarity perspective. The graph shows positive curvature along the line of incongruence ($X = -Y$) as related to individual differentiation. That is, individual differentiation would be relatively low when individual PA and team PA are in agreement, and it increases as the degree of discrepancy between individual PA and team PA increases. This pattern suggests that, when both are high, person PA and team PA have a compensatory relationship, rather than mutually reinforcing the effect of each

other. When PAs of both parties are high, individual differentiation is not higher than when PA of either party is high. This pattern resonates with the findings of Chang et al. (2012) that demonstrate a compensatory relationship between the average members' emotional intelligence (EI) and the leaders' EI. In addition, the direction of discrepancy does not matter as much since individual differentiation increases similarly as the discrepancy between individual PA and team PA increases in either direction (individual PA high or team PA high). In summary, the above graphs can be interpreted that complementarity exists between person PA and team PA in relation to individual differentiation. Either high person PA or high team PA (not necessarily both) is sufficient to explain a high level of individual differentiation. The principle of complementarity, however, does not work for group identification. Furthermore, my post-hoc analyses indicate that the direction of discrepancy does not matter as much, confirming my research findings produced by relational demography approach.

Figure 9: Group Identification as Predicted by Individual PA-Group PA Discrepancy

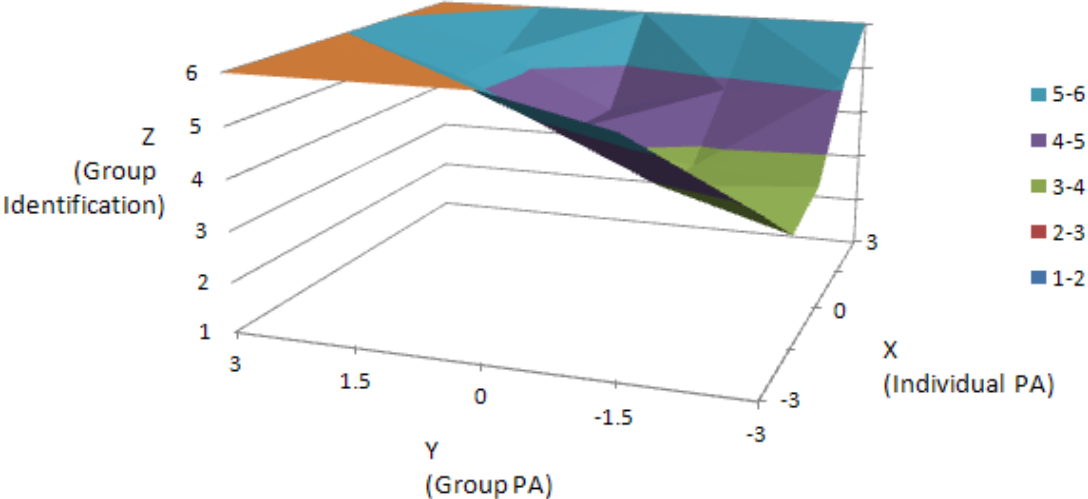
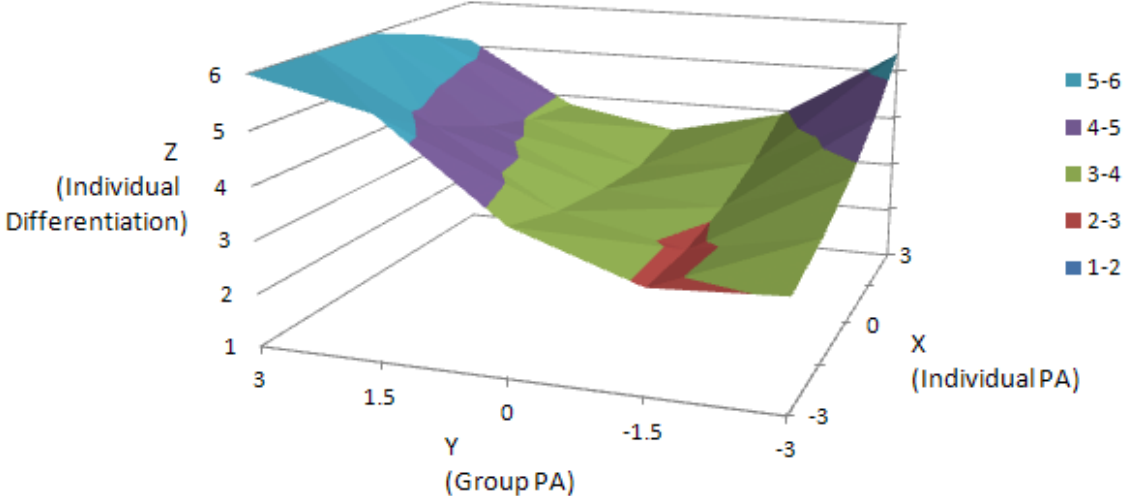
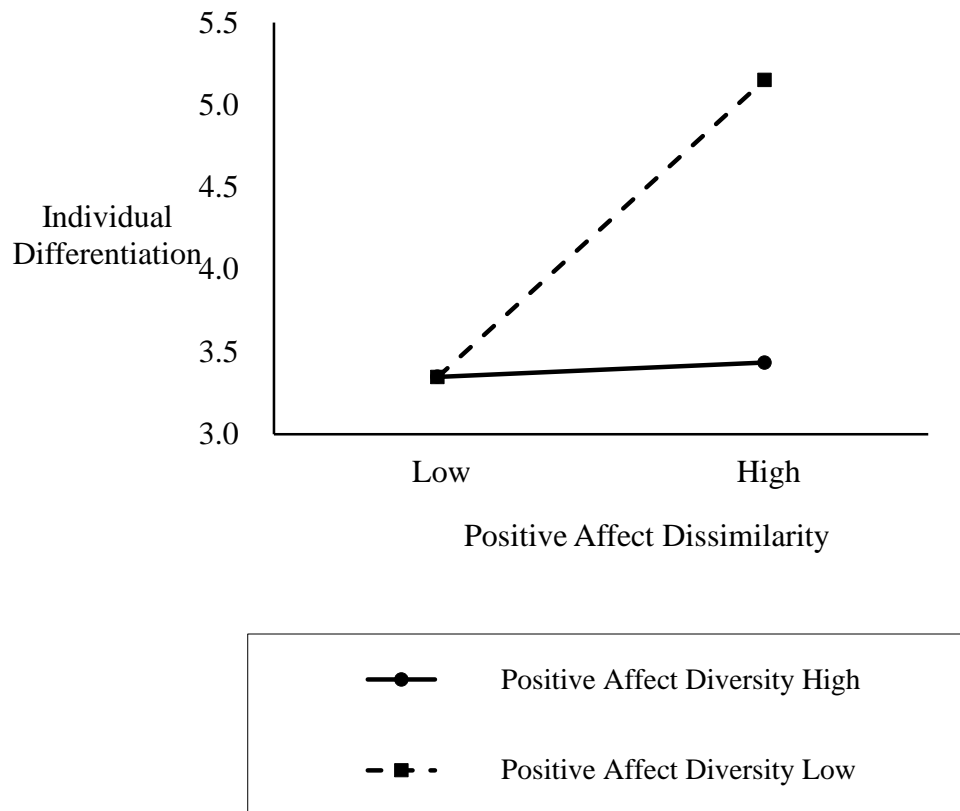


Figure 10: Individual Differentiation as Predicted by Individual PA-Group PA Discrepancy



I performed another post-hoc test in order to confirm the cross-level moderation effects of PA diversity as shown in Figures 6 and 7 since there has been some question as to whether it was a true cross-level moderation, because subgroup sample sizes might have produced spurious findings. For example, there are probably more dissimilar individuals in terms of PA in the subgroup of high PA diversity whereas there might be less dissimilar individuals in terms of PA in the subgroup of low PA diversity. In order to check the validity of my findings, I performed the subgroup analyses, using two equal-sized subgroups (median split). I conducted separate regression analyses on two subgroups composed of individuals belonging to groups with either high or low PA diversity among group members. As indicated by Figure 11, the results suggest that the positive relationship between PA dissimilarity and individual differentiation be weakened when PA diversity is high, supporting Hypothesis 7b. The cross-level moderation effects of PA diversity on the relationship between PA dissimilarity and group identification (H7a), however, was not supported in the post-hoc test.

Figure 11: Cross-level Moderation by Positive Affect Diversity



CHAPTER VI

DISSCUSSION

As the workplace has become increasingly diverse, managing differences remains a significant organizational challenge. Although researchers have examined the dissimilarity-performance relationship for decades, the literature has not produced a clear and consistent pattern of results (Riordan, 2000). The inconsistent findings in the literature call for a more nuanced approach that examines possible moderating as well as mediating processes that influence the dissimilarity-process-performance linkage (Goldberg et al., 2010; Mannix & Neale, 2005).

Clarifying the mixed effects of dissimilarity in work groups involves broadening the field's view of dissimilarity to include new types of dissimilarity, such as dispositional affect. In previous research, the reliance on primarily demographic proxies for underlying subjective differences, such as values and personalities, is both conceptually and methodologically problematic (Lawrence, 1997). In an effort to measure the actual individual-level psychological constructs rather than the visible demographic proxies, I focus on dispositional affect as a stable and enduring personality trait expressed by the tendency to react to situations in positive or negative way (Kaplan et al., 2009). In this section, I highlight the theoretical implications of the present study as well as its limitations and directions for further research in this domain.

Theoretical Implications

The present theoretical propositions and empirical findings make meaningful contributions by exploring the multilevel dynamics involving affective diversity within intact work groups in organizations. Although diversity is a multi-level concept that requires multi-level theories and analysis, most research on diversity has examined the effects of diversity at the group- and organizational-levels of analysis (Choi, 2007; Harrison & Klein, 2007). Focusing on the role of affective diversity in shaping individual behavior, this study explores the individual- and cross-level processes involving affective group composition.

Since I look at dispositional affect as a dissimilarity dimension in a group setting, I first examine the role of dispositional affect in defining the social identities of individual members. My results show that individuals' dispositional affect significantly influences their identity-related cognitions. As I expected, PA is shown as positively related to both group identification and individual differentiation. NA is found to be negatively related to group identification as I hypothesized; however, contrary to my expectation, it is shown to be positively associated with individual differentiation. Rather than influencing individuals' risk-avoidance tendencies, NA may trigger their social independence orientation and lead to higher levels of individual differentiation.

Next, my multilevel analysis shows that the relationship between affective dissimilarity and identity-related cognition depends on group affective diversity, further bolstering the context-dependent view of affect as shown in Figure 7 (Martin et al., 1993). Through rendering PA dissimilarity less salient (van Knippenberg & Shippers,

2007), PA diversity is shown to normalize the negative effects of PA dissimilarity on group identification. Unlike my initial expectation, however, PA diversity is found to have facilitating rather than neutralizing effects on individual differentiation as shown in Figure 8. Perhaps, PA diversity may ease the psychological burden of being different, thus liberating individuals from pressure toward uniformity and encouraging them to express their individuality.

Another possibility is that affective diversity can be interpreted as situations that signal the relevance or appropriateness of the affective dissimilarity of individual members, thus amplifying the positive effects of affective dissimilarity on individual differentiation as suggested by trait activation theory (Tett & Burnett, 2003). Focusing on person-situation interaction, trait activation theory suggests that personality traits are expressed as responses to trait-relevant situational cues (Lievens, 2010). If affective diversity provides cues for the expression of individual affective differences, it may strengthen the individuating effects of PA dissimilarity.

My results also show that LEMB significantly moderates the relationship between members' affective dissimilarity and their identity-related cognition. Leaders may help group members who are dissimilar in their trait PA from the rest of the members to express their individuality through creating positive affective norms in the group. Through doing so and thereby offering psychological safety and trust that group members feel during interpersonal interactions (West & Richter, 2008), leaders can intensify the positive effects of PA dissimilarity on individual differentiation. A group leader who displays proficiency in PA promotion behavior may reduce the innate fear of

appraisal and the social risk of losing face among group members and instead encourage their followers to express their individuality and be brave enough to be different (Janssen & Huang, 2008; Rink & Ellemers, 2007). Therefore, leaders can amplify the positive effects of positive affect dissimilarity on individual differentiation when their PA management is better.

Another theoretical contribution of the present study is broadening the field's view of dissimilarity through recognizing dispositional affect as a significant dimension of difference. Dispositional affect, often divided into two types (positive and negative), manifests as positive or negative frames of mind and strongly predicts job performance (Kaplan et al., 2009). While past studies on diversity have focused mainly on demographic or cognitive variables, affect can be an important dimension of diversity, given that it is a recognizable and enduring personality trait whereby people identify differences within a work group (Barsade & Gibson, 1998). Affective dissimilarity to others in the same work group may form a sufficient basis for differences in individual attitudes and work behavior. In addition, affect may have a direct psychological link to the processes that cause similarity-attraction (Berscheid, 1985). Affect may influence the social perception of people when judging that others are similar, refreshingly different, or incompatible.

Although researchers have increasingly examined affective dynamics in groups (Barsade & Gibson, 1998, 2007), they have emphasized the mean level of affect, based on the homogeneity assumption. A mean-level approach, however, may limit our understanding of affective phenomena in group settings in that affective traits are valid

and defining features of an individual member's personal characteristics by which people identify differences and define psychological groups (Barsade & Gibson, 1998). Moving beyond the mean-level of affect to consider other ways in which affect might influence individual attitudes and behaviors, the present study examines the relative effect on individual outcomes of a person's affective difference or dissimilarity to others in the same work group. My analysis indicates a significant indirect relationship between PA dissimilarity and change-oriented discretionary behavior of individuals, with individual differentiation and risk-taking behaviors operating as mediating processes.

Finally, this study expands upon previous research through examining both supplementarity and complementarity hypotheses regarding group affective composition. Drawing upon similarity-attraction theory, prior studies have taken supplementarity-focused approaches without paying sufficient attention to the complementarity of group affective composition. The similarity-attraction paradigm predicts positive effects for similarity and emphasizes social integration aspects in a group, thus predicting negative effects for affective dissimilarity. For example, Barsade et al. (2000) found that affective dissimilarity in a sample of 62 top management teams was related to less positive attitudes about group relations and to individuals' perceptions of having less influence within the group. At the group level, they also found that affective diversity was positively associated with team conflict and negatively related with cooperation.

The complementarity of members' affectivity is theoretically feasible, but it has not yet been empirically validated by the existing literature. Research on

interpersonal relationships suggests that dissimilarity rather than similarity in certain characteristics leads to better relationships (Dryer & Horowitz, 1997; Glomb & Welsh, 2005). According to this line of research, interpersonal behaviors can be described in terms of two dimensions of affiliation and control. On the affiliation dimension, interpersonal behaviors invite similar responses, whereas interpersonal behaviors on the control dimension invite complementary responses (Dryer & Horowitz, 1997). Empirical evidence supporting the interpersonal complementarity hypothesis is identified in Neuman et al.'s (1999) study in which diversity in group-level extraversion and neuroticism is found to be positively related to group performance. Kristof-Brown and her colleagues (2005) also found that a complementary fit with regard to extraversion resulted in greater attraction to the team. Although extraversion and neuroticism are often compared to PA and NA, respectively, more research on affective disposition is needed.

Although some conceptual studies point to a theoretical possibility that being affectively different may lead to positive consequences (e.g., Barsade & Gibson, 1998; George & King, 2007; Tiedens et al., 2004), empirical evidence is lacking for the supposed beneficial effects of affective dissimilarity. Barsade et al.'s (2000) study on dissimilarity effects in affective disposition empirically verify only the negative influences of affective dissimilarity on individual attitudes, group processes, and performance, mainly drawing upon similarity-attraction theory (Byrne, 1971). To explore the possibility of both positive and negative effects of affective dissimilarity on individual outcomes, the present study examined various mediating variables, such as

identity-related, interpersonal, and task-related variables, and integrated different types of outcomes, both relationship- and change-oriented behaviors. Through integrating different types of mediating variables (identity, interpersonal, and task-related mediating variables) as intervening processes linking affective dissimilarity to various individual outcomes and thereby capturing other than merely the social aspects of group processes, this study demonstrates the positive, indirect effects of affective dissimilarity on individuals' change-oriented behavior.

In addition, in my post-hoc analyses, I tested the complementarity hypothesis by using polynomial regression with response surface analysis. The results suggest that complementarity exists between individual PA and team PA in relation to individual differentiation. Either high individual PA or high team PA (not necessarily both) is sufficient to explain a high level of individual differentiation. Instead of mutually reinforcing the effect of each other, individual PA and team PA have a compensatory relationship when both are high.

Practical Implications

The present study provides practical implications for team formation and the role of group leaders. Recent developments in group dynamics literature suggest that group composition is likely to be a critical input variable that has a significant impact on group effectiveness. In this study, I have argued that the affective composition of work group influences individual performance through affecting identity-related cognition and the interpersonal and task-related behaviors of individual members. From a similarity-

attraction perspective, affective dissimilarity from other group members may, on the one hand, influence individual members' attraction to their teams and weaken employee bonds with the group. On the other hand, it may foster individual differentiation and risk-taking orientation of individuals, thus leading to change-oriented behavior of individual members.

It has been generally assumed that similarity in psychological characteristics would result in more positive consequences, and that complementary fit is relevant only for knowledge or skills (Klimoski & Jones, 1995). Despite this assumption, my findings show that complementary fit is also relevant for dispositional affect and that the complementarity on affective disposition may result in positive consequences. This finding might be significant for effective staffing practices in that managers may manage affective diversity through leveraging its advantages and minimizing its disadvantages based upon the empirical findings. Managers might consider whether their teams prioritize the needs of relationship building or change-oriented behavior, and may be assisted in managing group emotions effectively by staffing teams having a particular trait affect for better emotional balance in groups.

Furthermore, my findings on contextual moderators may offer insight into how affective complementarity may induce individuals to contribute fully to their teams. My results show that LEMB is found to moderate the relationship between members' affective dissimilarity and their identity-related cognition. For group members who are dissimilar in their trait PA, leaders may create a positive affective norm and offer psychological safety during interpersonal interactions in the group to encourage them to

express their individuality and increase change-oriented behaviors (West & Richter, 2008). As suggested by trait activation theory (Tett & Burnett, 2003), which states that personality traits are expressed as responses to trait-relevant situational cues (Lievens, 2010), leaders may provide cues for the expression of individual affective differences by intensifying the positive results from PA dissimilarity on individual differentiation. A group leader who displays proficiency in PA promotion behavior may reduce the innate fear of appraisal and the social risk of losing face among group members, and instead encourage their followers to express their individuality and to have the courage to be different (Janssen & Huang, 2008; Rink & Ellemers, 2007). By so doing, managers can effectively manage emotions in groups and guide group affective processes in a favorable direction (Sy et al., 2005).

Study Limitations and Conclusion

The findings should be interpreted with caution considering the following limitations of the study. First, data were collected at a single point in time, and the direction of causation remains ambiguous. To consider alternative theoretical possibilities related to the potential reciprocal influence between variables, I tested three alternative models with reverse causality. For instance, I tested the possibility of reverse causality between interpersonal relationship/task-related orientation and identity-related cognition as shown in Table 3, Model 4. The results exhibited a worse model fit than the hypothesized model: $\chi^2 (df = 17) = 50.744, p < .001$; CFI = .902; RMSEA = .082; AIC = 4274.851. The possibility of reverse causality between individual performance and

interpersonal relationship/ task-related orientation (Model 5 in Table 3) was also tested, and it exhibited a worse model fit than the hypothesized model: $\chi^2 (df = 17) = 56.727, p < .001$; CFI = .884; RMSEA = .089; AIC = 4243.318. I also tested whether individual performance influenced identity-related cognition (Model 6 in Table 3), which showed a worse model fit than the hypothesized model fit: $\chi^2 (df = 19) = 58.502, p < .001$; CFI = .885; RMSEA = .084; AIC = 4240.732. None of the models with reverse causality improved the model fit significantly.

Second, the current data were collected from a manufacturing industry that is heavily populated with males. Thus, this industry may have distinct norms that differ from those in other industrial settings. Moreover, the cultural values of Korean firms may affect the current pattern of results. Korean society is often called “collectivist,” meaning that the group takes precedence over the individual. The collectivist tendency of the participants may influence the patterns of my results, which raises the issue of the limited generalizability of the findings. Further empirical studies on diverse industrial and national settings should bolster our understanding of the current multilevel dynamics.

Third, this study has left some unanswered questions that deserve further investigation. Through simultaneously examining contrasting processes, I aimed to open the possibility for both positive and negative effects of affective dissimilarity on individual behavior. Nevertheless, the results are geared mostly toward the individual differentiation process, which explains only the half of the model. Besides, the main effects of dispositional affect are found to be far stronger than those of affective

dissimilarity. In addition, I focus exclusively on dispositional affect even though much of my hypothesis rationale relies on the state affect literature. Future research might examine if state affect operates the same way as trait affect.

Finally, many of my hypotheses involve the same source data. I collected individuals' self-reports of PA and NA, identity-related cognition, interpersonal relationships, and task-related orientation. Thus, there is a possibility of correlated errors and common method bias. However, the relationships I demonstrated are complex, involving the additional component of the index of Euclidian distances. Moreover, the outcome variables were collected from supervisors. Thus, it is unlikely that such bias could explain the pattern of my results.

Despite these limitations, the present study offers meaningful theoretical and empirical contributions to organizational diversity literature. First, the main theoretical contribution of this study is its endeavor to identify an intervening mechanism underlying the relation between dispositional affect and individual performance in a group setting. Through relating the idea of relational demography to the affective dimension, I compare individual affect to peer affect, which may serve as an immediate social context within which the focal person reflects on and redefines his or her identity. My research findings demonstrate that affective dissimilarity serves as a basis for individual distinctiveness or differentiation, which in turn leads to risk-taking orientation and change-oriented behavior in the individual.

Moreover, this study provides a multilevel conceptualization of affective dynamics in groups, confirming the context-dependency of the affective processes

(Martin et al., 1993). The effects of affective dissimilarity can be suppressed or promoted during group interactions because group affective diversity may render individual affective dissimilarity less salient (van Knippenberg & Shippers, 2007). As I proposed and demonstrated, the affective processes in groups should be conceptualized as a context-dependent, multilevel phenomenon that requires further elaboration of its boundary contingencies.

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Zhou, J., & George, J. M. (2001). When job dissatisfaction leads to creativity: Encouraging the expression of voice. *Academy of Management Journal*, *44*, 682-696.

Appendix A

Trait Positive and Negative Affect Items

In general, I feel the following feelings...

Positive Affect (PA)

1. interested
2. excited
3. strong
4. enthusiastic
5. proud
6. inspired
7. determined
8. attentive
9. active
10. alert

Negative Affect (NA)

11. distressed
12. upset
13. guilty
14. scared
15. hostile
16. irritable
17. ashamed
18. nervous
19. jittery
20. afraid

Watson, David, Clark, Lee A., & Tellegen, Auke. (1988). Development and validation of brief measures of positive and negative affect: The PANAS scales. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 54(6), 1063-1070.

Appendix B

Group Identification and Individual Differentiation Items

Group Identification

21. I feel included in this group.
22. I feel well-integrated into this group.
23. I feel a sense of belongingness within the group.

Individual Differentiation

24. I feel like I stand out within this group.
25. I feel unique as I participate in this group.
26. I feel distinct and separate within this group.

Sheldon, K. M., & Bettencourt, B. A. (2002). Psychological need-satisfaction and subjective well-being within social groups. *British Journal of Social Psychology, 41*, 25-38.

Appendix C

Interpersonal Conflict Items

Interpersonal Conflict

27. I often experience frictions with other team members.
28. I often experience personality conflicts with other team members.
29. I often experience tension with other team members.
30. I often experience emotional conflicts with other team members.

Jehn, Karen. (1995). A multimethod examination of the benefits and detriments of intragroup conflict. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 40, 256-282.

Appendix D

Risk-taking Items

Risk-taking

31. In my work, I like to play it safe when I'm developing ideas (reverse).
32. I am a risk-taker when it comes to proposing ideas.
33. I prefer to think conservatively when I develop ideas (reverse).

Andrews, Jonlee, & Smith, Daniel C. (1996). In Search of the Marketing Imagination: Factors Affecting the Creativity of Marketing Programs for Mature Products. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 33(2), 174-187.

Appendix E

Helping Items

Helping

34. This employee helps others who have been absent.
35. This employee takes a personal interest in the well-being of others.
36. This employee helps others who have heavy workloads.
37. This employee goes out of the way to help new employees.

Williams, L. J., & Anderson, S. E. (1991). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment as predictors of organizational citizenship and in-role behaviors. *Journal of Management*, 17, 601-617.

Appendix F

Positive Deviance Items

Positive Deviance

38. This employee did not follow my orders in order to improve work procedures.
39. This employee disagreed with others in the work group in order to improve the current work procedures.
40. This employee disobeyed my instructions to perform more efficiently.
41. This employee reported a wrong-doing to another person in the company to bring about a positive organizational change.

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Appendix G

Leader Emotion Management Behavior Items

Leader Emotion Management Behavior

Positive promotion

- 42. I create pleasant feelings in our group because I believe a happy person is a productive person.
- 43. I try to create a fun environment for everyone.
- 44. I praise others positively when they deserve it.

Positive suppression

- 45. I try to keep people's pleasant emotions under control because it can be distracting to others.
- 46. I encourage others to keep a "level head" when they are too positive.
- 47. I try to suppress overly pleasant emotions because it makes people lazy.

Negative promotion

- 48. I push others to meet their goals even if they do not like it.
- 49. I let people know when I am disappointed with them.
- 50. I point out things that people are doing wrong even if it hurts their feelings.

Negative suppression

- 51. I try to minimize unpleasant feelings between members of our group.
- 52. I prevent others from creating an unpleasant environment.
- 53. I try to eliminate tensions between people.

Sy, T., & O'Hara, L. (2007). *Leader emotion management behavior survey*. California State University Long Beach. Long Beach, CA.

국문초록

집단 내 기질적 정서의 개인차와 개인성과

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김 문 정

본 논문은 집단 내 개인의 기질적 정서(dispositional affect)가 어떤 경로를 거쳐 관계지향적 행위나 변화지향적 행위와 같은 중요한 개인행동에 영향을 미치는지 규명한다. Relational demography와 Affect 문헌에 기초하여, 본 연구는 개인의 기질적 정서가 그 개인이 속한 집단의 다른 구성원들의 정서와 서로 얼마나 유사한지 (혹은 다른지)에 따라 그 개인의 집단에 대한 인식, 태도 및 행동이 달라질 수 있음을 이론적, 경험적으로 탐구한다. Similarity-attraction 관점에서 선행연구들은 집단의 집합적 속성, 동질성을 지나치게 강조하면서 개인이 지닌 고유한 차이에 대해 관심을 충분히 기울이지 않거나, 집단 내의 개인차가 가져오는 부정적인 영향을 강조해왔다. 그러나 uniqueness theory나 optimal distinctiveness theory와 같은 사회 심리 연구에서 제시하듯이, 인간은 사회 속에서, 타인과의 관계에서 자리매김을 하면서도 동시에 타자와는 다른 고유의 의미를 잃지 않고 자 하는 욕구를 가지고 있기 때문에, 개인성, 즉 남들과 다르다는 것이 개인에게 미치는 긍정적인 효과 역시 연구되어야 한다. Relational demography 연구에서도 집단 내 개인차가 창의성이나 변화지향적 행위와 같은 일부 개인행동에 긍정

적인 효과를 주는 것으로 나타난다. 비록 집단 내 기질적 정서의 개인차가 미치는 긍정적인 효과가 아직까지 연구되지 않았지만, 유사한 성격특성(예를 들어 Big 5의 Extraversion)의 경우 긍정적인 효과가 보고되기도 한다. 본 연구에서는 다양한 매개변수(정체성과 관련된 개인의 인지, 대인관계적 혹은 업무와 관련된 개인의 성향 등)와 서로 다른 두 가지 유형의 개인행동(관계지향적 행동과 변화지향적 행동)을 함께 보면서 집단 내 기질적 정서의 개인차가 개인성과에 미칠 수 있는 긍정적 효과의 가능성을 탐색해보고자 한다. 또한 그러한 효과들이 집단수준의 정서적 맥락(affective context)에 따라 변화됨을 다수준 분석(multilevel analysis)을 통해 규명하고자 한다. 본 연구는 기질적 정서의 개인차와 개인성과의 관계를 조절해주는 또 다른 중요한 집단 수준의 변수로서 리더의 정서관리행위(LEMB)에 주목한다. 66개 작업집단에 속한 293명의 종업원을 대상으로 자료를 수집하여 다수준 분석을 한 결과, 기질적 정서의 개인차는 개인의 차별화 및 위험감수성향에 영향을 주어 간접적으로 개인의 변화지향행위에 긍정적인 영향을 미치는 것으로 나타났다. 또한, 이러한 개인 수준의 효과는 긍정적 정서의 다양성(집단 수준의 분포)에 의해 변화하는 것으로 나타났다. 긍정적 정서의 다양성은 긍정적 정서의 개인차가 집단 정체감에 미치는 부정적인 효과를 중화시키는 반면, 긍정적 정서의 개인차가 개인의 차별화에 미치는 긍정적인 효과를 더욱 강화하는 것으로 나타났다. 리더의 정서관리 행위는 긍정적 정서의 개인차가 개인의 차별화에 미치는 긍정적인 효과를 더욱 증폭시키는 결과를 보였다. 결론적으로, 본 연구는 집단 내 개인의 정서적인 프로세스가 집단 맥락에 의존하며, 따라서 다수준적인 현상으로 연구되어야 한다는 주장을 뒷받침해준다.

주요어: 기질적 정서, 정서의 개인차, 정서적 다양성, 관계지향적 행위, 변화지향적 행위, 사회 정체성

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