Emotion in Groups

Symposium Proposal Submitted to the OB & MOC Divisions

Symposium Chair & Organizer: Anthony Pescosolido, University of New Hampshire

Presentations:


3. Ozcelik, H.  Is Shared Happiness Double Happiness? An Exploration of Pleasant Emotional Climate at Work Units.


6. Sy, T. Predictors of Mood Contagion in Groups.

7. Barsade, S. (Discussant)
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Abstract

While recent trends in organizational science have embraced the concept of emotion as an important and even fundamental aspect of organization life, little research or theory has examined emotions at the group level. This is an issue of growing importance as more and more employees spend large amounts of time within group or team contexts, and more organizations are dependent upon groups and teams as their primary performing unit.

The papers within this symposium provide unique insights in that they examine emotion within groups, and do so at the group level. Their foci engage group emotion in a variety of ways including: how emotions develop and spread within groups; the interaction between worker interdependence, task characteristics, and the experience of emotion; the impact of the emotional acceptance of newcomers on group decision making processes; and examination of the group level behavioral norms that can be utilized to understand and manage emotion at the individual, group and organizational levels.

Authors and the discussant will work together to integrate the findings, suggest important questions for future research, and stimulate dialog between participants and audience members.

Key words: emotion, group processes, performance
Symposium Overview

Since Ashforth and Humphrey’s (1995) statement that research has neglected the role of emotions in everyday organizational life (pg. 98), multiple researchers have stepped forward to address this issue. Recent advances in both empirical research and conceptual frameworks have occurred in areas such as emotional intelligence (cf. Bar-On & Parker, 2000, Goleman, Boyatzis & McKe, 2002, or Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2004), the role of emotions in conflicts (cf. Jehn & Mannix, 2001), and emotional labor (Morris & Feldman, 1996) to name just a few.

Although these advances certainly bode well for the future of research and theory development regarding the role of emotion in organizational life, the role of emotion at the group level remains largely overlooked. While there has been research on the concept of emotional contagion within groups (Barsade, 2002) and the concept of group emotion itself (Bartel & Saavedra, 2000; Kelly & Barsade, 2002), the majority of the research in the areas mentioned above, and indeed the majority of research on emotion within a group or organizational context, focuses on the individual as the unit of analysis (Forgas & George, 2001). In fact, the idea that a group may have its own identifiable mood (being separate from the moods of the individual group members) was not truly recognized until more recently (Barsade & Gibson, 1998; Bartel & Saavedra, 2000; Kelly & Barsade, 2002). The papers to be presented in this symposium all have their focus on emotion at the group level of analysis.

The importance of understanding the role of emotion at the intrapersonal level is important, however as management scholars we must recognize that the vast majority of organizational tasks are currently performed in a group or team context (Lawler, 1998). Consequently, as management scholars it is necessary for us to focus not only on emotions at the individual level (through such concepts as emotional labor and emotional intelligence) but also at
the group level. Accordingly, the papers in this symposium focus on the management, proliferation and outcomes of emotion at by examining interacting groups at the group level.

These papers examine the issues of emotions within groups from a variety of different lenses. Druskat and Wolff as well as Pescosolido focus primarily upon the process of managing emotional dynamics in groups, and the impact of this upon group performance. As such, both of these papers are rooted in the idea of group emotional competence (Druskat & Wolff, 2001) as a set of behavioral norms enacted by the group. These behavioral norms are aimed at understanding and regulating emotions at the individual, group, and intergroup (or organizational) level.

The Bartel, Saavedra and Opie paper also is aimed at understanding the processes underlying high performing groups, however their paper focuses on the impact of emotion during group decision making. Specifically, the authors examine the emotional acceptance (or rejection) of a newcomer to the group, and the impact of that acceptance on the newcomer’s ability to influence the group by presenting new or novel problem-solving solutions.

In contrast, the other three papers within the symposium are more strictly focused on emotion in groups, rather than on emotion as a factor in group performance. For instance, Sy focuses on the phenomenon of group emotional contagion, undertaking an analysis of both the individual attributes and the group processes and interactions that contribute to emotional contagion within group settings. Ozcelik examines the phenomena of emotional climate within an intact work unit. He focuses on how task requirements, physical setting, and coworker emotional expression impact the perception of group emotional climate. Both of these papers examine the phenomena of emotional transference and contagion within work units, with a focus
on the individual traits, group interactions, and organizational structures that facilitate this process.

Finally, Saavedra focuses on the relationship between task interdependence, job characteristics and experienced emotion within sport teams. He proposes that the emotional experience within sports teams is dependent upon a combination of interdependence, job characteristics, and the values exhibited by the team’s coach or formal leader. Consequently, he recommends that future models of group management take into account not only individual motivation, but also group contextual variables such as leadership styles, moods contingent on team success or failure, and task interdependence.

Collectively, the papers in this symposium draw attention to an important and emerging research area: emotion as a group level construct. These papers represent important empirical contributions to this emerging research area and extend empirical research beyond what we know about emotion in organizations based upon studies of emotion at the individual level. Using a variety of methods ranging from longitudinal experiments (Bartel, Saavedra, & Opie; Pescosolido), field studies (Druskat & Wolff; Ozcelik; Sy), and a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods (Druskat & Wolff; Saavedra) these papers represent a valuable collection of studies that promise to stimulate questions, ideas and future research.

The session will conclude with an interactive discussion of issues raised by the studies regarding the study of emotion in groups. This discussion will address both the empirical difficulties regarding the study of emotion at the group level as well as conceptual issues regarding group emotion, emotional contagion, and the 2-way interaction between emotion and behavior. The discussant and the researchers will pose their own provocative questions about
emotion within groups and emotion as a group level construct - to each other and to the audience. They will also guide the audience in a discussion of the various issues raised in the session.

**Session Format**

We are requesting a 110 minute session. The presenters will give 12-15 minute presentations of their research. This will be followed by the discussant raising several themes that run through multiple presentations as well as tying the research presentations into other bodies of literature and other research questions. Finally, the discussant will pose several open-ended questions to the authors and to the audience in order to stimulate public discussion about the phenomena.

**Relevance to the OB Division**

This symposium is directly relevant to the Organizational Behavior division, as groups and teams are becoming the primary working units of the modern organization (Lawler, 1998). As such, understanding the processes, procedures, and interactions that occur in groups and lead to effective groups is a major concern for the division. While groups and teams are a core topic within the division, the role of emotion within groups has only recently been a topic of concern to most management scholars. The papers within this symposium go beyond the traditional role of looking at emotions as an intrapersonal phenomenon, and focus on emotion at the group level. As such, they promise to hold value not only through their results and the recommendations for group leadership and management they will support, but also through their contributions to the empirical measurement and theoretical conceptualization of group level phenomena.
Relevance to the MOC Division

This symposium is relevant to the Managerial and Organizational Cognition division through its emphasis on social construction, and the perceptual and interpretive processes that occur within groups. These aspects of group and organizational life are especially relevant to the study of emotion in groups, as emotions tend to be a subtext of organizational life and consequently are not communicated about directly but are often perceived, inferred and interpreted without the benefit of direct communication. Additionally, this symposium addresses how the emotional subtext of a group impacts the group’s ability to develop essential levels of trust, effective communication, and sound decision making processes. Finally, this symposium explores the issue of how group and individual perception of issues (whether task related or interpersonal issues) is impacted by the emotional subtext of the group, and how this subtext can be managed.

References


When Groups Capitalize On Novel Ideas: The Effects of Timing and Emotion on Group Responsiveness to Minority Influence

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The idea that dissenting viewpoints can promote creative and innovative outcomes in groups is widely accepted (Nemeth, 1992; Van Dyne & Saavedra, 1996). While it is clear that work groups in which novel ideas are introduced and used have the potential to perform at high levels on tasks requiring creativity, such groups do not always reach their potential. That is, the presence of minority influence in a work group does not always promote higher performance (Wood et al., 1994). Understanding the different ways in which minority influence might affect a work group’s interaction processes and its outcomes constitutes an intriguing puzzle that researchers have begun to explore. In this study, we attempt to develop a dynamic model of how a work group’s actual creativity and performance may be affected by the presence of a minority influence agent and by how its interactions unfold over time as members work together to perform their assigned tasks.

Organizational research has suggested that the presence of a numerical minority in work groups may enhance task-related or cognitive performance; especially on tasks requiring creativity. One reason is that the presence of a dissenting viewpoint promotes cognitive diversity, increasing the potential range of perspectives and opinions that members bring to the task. This, in turn, opens the door for discussion of alternative ideas about how the task should be accomplished (so-called “task conflict”). We argue that a more complete understanding of the impact of minority influence must not only examine how (i.e., personal style of the agent) it is introduced, but when. This study explores the role of time in work groups’ responses to minority influence attempts and suggests that affective reactions triggered at the time of entry shape its effect on group interaction and performance.

We focus on minority influence in intact work groups that have well-developed methods of interaction. Specifically, we focus on situations in which dissenting viewpoints are introduced
by a new group member. We asked the question of how minority influence might affect the group as a function of when it is introduced. We explored whether the presence of minority influence shapes group interaction and performance differently when it is introduced at the start of a group’s task cycle or its midpoint. To our knowledge, this is a first attempt to identify mood and temporal contingencies that facilitate or inhibit the ability of a numerical minority to influence the way that intact work groups execute creative tasks.

**Method**

**Participants.** Students from a large undergraduate management course participated in this study in exchange for course credit. Participants were previously engaged in regular, group-based work in a ten-week undergraduate management course. Twenty-nine groups comprising 121 subjects provided the overall sample to test for several hypothesized outcomes of minority influence.

**Design.** We conducted an experiment designed to test whether minority influence served as a catalyst for more innovative group products. We developed three conditions: one control condition and two experimental conditions in which a confederate was present. For the first experimental condition (n = 10 groups), the confederate was a new group member who worked with the group for the full duration of the experiment (30 min). For the second experimental condition (n = 10 groups), the confederate arrived precisely at the mid-point of group's work session (15 min), following Gersick’s (1988) suggestion that a temporal midpoint could provide a natural transition point for groups to accept intervention. In the control condition (n = 9 groups), groups worked without intrusion for 30 min.
The confederate’s goal was to trigger discussion about multiple alternatives in the design and execution of the group’s assigned task—a radio commercial promoting an undergraduate concentration program in a school of management. The confederate received 20 hours of training on how to exercise minority influence in work groups.

Observers. We video-taped all work groups to document the social processes resulting from the exercise of minority influence. These video data were then coded by observers who were uninvolved in the design and execution of this study. Thirty-five three-person teams completed an observation protocol as part of course work at a large Midwestern university. We provided each observation team with an Observer’s Guide that we designed and asked them to code various aspects of groups’ interactions. To assess reliability, we had each observer team rate two videos to have comparative observation data from at least two teams for each video. Observer groups demonstrated considerable consistency in their observations.

We are currently in the process of analyzing the coded data. Generally, we expect a more positive affective reaction to and greater acceptance of the minority influence agent in the 30-minute condition, assuming that the confederate has a longer time frame to gain acceptance and exert influence. In the 15-minute condition, we expect the confederate to lower positive affect in the group upon entry and to exert less overall influence. Though the temporal mid-point often provides opportunities for new ideas as Gersick (1988) describes, we expected that perceived time pressure would serve to block the introduction of ideas from the confederate. Additionally, we expect the minority influence agent to be accorded less credit for any contributions in this condition given that most groups could be in a strategy implementation rather than strategy development phase. Generally, minority influence should prompt work group processes that are
more stimulating and more positively energized, leading to better performance, when it is introduced at the start (rather than midpoint) of a group’s task cycle.
References


Team-level Emotional Competence in Cross-Functional Product Development Teams

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Group scholars began systematically documenting the role of emotions and relationships in small groups over half a century ago (e.g., Fearing, 1950; Festinger, 1950; Bales, 1950; Homans, 1950). As time passed, research transitioned from recognizing the role of emotion and relationships to a focus on identifying how to mitigate their disruptive effects on effective task accomplishment (e.g., the nominal group technique) (e.g., Janis, 1982; Steiner, 1972). The goal was to take emotion out of group process and replace it with logical sound reasoning.

Since the early 1990’s, however, research across disciplines has revealed that emotion and positive relationships are helpful resources in groups that often go unrecognized and unutilized (Coleman, 1988; Fineman, 1991; Putnam, 1993). Scholars have shown that: (1) long term task group effectiveness is difficult to achieve if relational issues are ignored (Keyton, 1999), (2) it is impossible to rid emotion from group process (Barsade & Gibson, 1998; Fineman, 1991), (3) emotion is a vital part of reasoning, prioritization, and decision-making (Salovey & Bedell, 2000), and is required for learning and memory (Damasio, 1999).

In response to these discoveries, we developed a socio-emotional theory of group effectiveness that underscores the relevance of emotion and positive relationships to group effectiveness (see Wolff & Druskat, 2003). We argue that, like individuals (Mayer & Salovey, 1997), groups differ in their ability to understand emotion and use emotion as information that can inform reasoning and actions. We further argue that these differences influence a group’s level of effectiveness. We refer to this ability as group emotional competence and define it as the group’s ability to develop emotionally competent norms that promote understanding, acknowledging, monitoring, and attending to emotion, and to responding constructively to emotional threat or challenge (see Druskat & Wolff, 2001, Wolff & Druskat, 2003). These norms build positive relationships and social capital within the team (see Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998).
Our socio-emotional theory of group effectiveness contributes to current knowledge by clarifying how awareness and management of emotion and relationships underlie effective task-focused processes (e.g., cooperation, effort, boundary management). In this symposium, we will present the results of a two-year field study in which we test our theory with a sample of cross-functional strategic drug development teams from a Fortune 100 pharmaceutical company.

Emotionally Competent Group Norms (ECG norms)

To define specific ECG norms we drew from two relevant theories. The first is the cognitive appraisal theory of emotion, which delineates the process through which emotion influences behavior (Lazarus, 1991). This process has two phases: (1) awareness and interpretation of the emotion and (2) regulation of one’s behavioral reaction to the emotion. This leads us to propose that ECG norms must involve creating awareness of emotion and regulation of the behavior that results from emotion. The second theory we used to define our ECG norms is the complex systems theory of small group dynamics, which suggests that norms within groups focus at multiple levels including the individual member-level, the group-level, and the cross-boundary level because groups are open systems (Arrow, McGrath, & Berdahl, 2000).

These theories and initial research led us to identify nine ECG norms. Each norm focuses on either (1) awareness of emotion or (2) regulation of emotion, at one of the three levels: (a) two norms focus on increasing awareness of individual emotion: interpersonal understanding, caring behavior, one norm focuses on regulating individual emotion: confronting members who break norms, (b) two norms focus on increasing awareness of group-level emotion: team self-evaluation, creating resources for working with emotion, two norms focus on regulating group-level emotion: creating and optimistic environment, proactive problem solving, and (c) one norm
focuses on increasing awareness of the emotion and issues faced by groups and individuals outside of the group: organizational awareness, one norm focuses on regulating emotion and building of relationships with those groups and individuals: building external relationships.

Figure 1 summarizes our socio-emotional theory of group effectiveness, which proposes that effective task-focused group processes are boosted by positive group member relationships (i.e., social capital), which grow out of ECG norms.

**Research Questions**

The study we will present was designed to test aspects of our theory with cross-functional product development teams. Specifically, we asked whether ECG norms would be associated with the effectiveness of cross-functional product development teams and whether, as predicted by our theory, the relationship between ECG norms and team effectiveness would be mediated by effective relationships (i.e., social capital) and task-focused processes.

Effective task accomplishment in cross-functional teams requires the integration of diverse backgrounds and areas of expertise. Previous research suggests that effective collaboration is critical to the success of such teams (Jassawalla & Sashittal 1999; Lovelace, Shapiro, & Weingart, 2001). Thus, we were interested in determining whether ECG norms would support team member collaboration and team success.

**Methods**

We studied cross-functional strategic drug development teams in the research and development division of a Fortune 100 pharmaceutical organization. The 60 teams in this organization had 7 to 10 members. Teams were responsible for developing strategy for the
effective development, testing, and production of a specific drug compound. Each team member was also a team leader within his or her functional area. Functional areas included: chemical pharmaceuticals, clinical research, global marketing, project management, regulatory (i.e., experts on FDA regulations), and preclinical (i.e., managing clinical trials of the compound). Each team had a team leader appointed by management.

Data were collected via two methods: (1) an on-line survey made available to all teams and (2) critical incident interviews with members and leaders from: (a) the ten highest performing teams in the sample and (b) nine lower performing teams.

**Survey Data Collection** Our final sample consisted of forty-five teams; a 75% response rate, which we felt was high for these strategic-level teams. Each team had a minimum of 80% member participation.

To measure ECG norms, social capital, and task processes we used items from previously validated scales and also developed and pre-tested other items. All items were worded so that they were focused on group-level issues. All items were subjected to principal components analyses to test whether items fit predicted scales. Cronbach alphas were also tested.

A month after survey completion, upper-level managers rated team performance on seven dimensions (using a 1-7 scale): (1) Performance against other teams, (2) Quality of the team’s work, (3) Ability to sustain motivation, (4) Efficiency, (5) Effective and efficient in getting through functional reviews, (6) Achievement of last year’s goals, and (7) Progress toward this year’s goals. These were tallied to produce a team mean performance rating.

**Critical Incident Interviews** To vary methods and obtain qualitative data to more fully understand what occurred in the teams, we also conducted interviews. Toward that end we used comparative case study methodology. This involved obtaining nominations from eight upper-
level managers to identify a sub-sample of the top ten performing teams in our sample and a comparison sub-sample of nine lower performing teams. For each of the 19 teams, we conducted critical incident interviews with two randomly selected team members and the team leader. This included 57 interviews lasting 90-120 minutes. Interviewers were blind to the performance condition of the teams.

Interviews were transcribed verbatim and we used iterative content analysis methods (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996) to develop a list of behavioral patterns and themes capturing the internal processes and external boundary management strategies and activities. Transcripts were coded by two coders who were blind to the performance categories of the teams and the research questions and hypotheses. Coders achieved inter-rater reliability of .70 or higher for each code.

Results

We are currently in the process of analyzing our data. We are also waiting for some upper-level managers who wanted to wait for end of the year results to return their performance assessment surveys. Initial analyses with 34 of our teams reveals that several of our ECG norms, measures of social capital, and task processes (which are aggregated to the group level based on theoretical and ICC support, p< .05, to do so) are significantly correlated to team performance: interpersonal understanding (r = .395; p < .05), team interpersonal trust (r = .303; p < .10), proactive problem solving (r = .407; p < .01), external relationships (r = .364; p < .05), and external support (r = .346; p < .05). At the symposium, we will present all analyses (including an integration of our quantitative and qualitative data) with our full sample, including the test of our model presented in Figure 1.
References


**Figure 1: A Simplified Model of How Group Emotional Competence Leads to Group Effectiveness**
Is Shared Happiness Double Happiness?

An Exploration of Pleasant Emotional Climate at Work Units

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Do happier employees perform better? Despite its intuitive appeal, the “happier employee is a better performer” hypothesis remains to be an issue yet to be more fully explored at both theoretical and empirical levels (Weiss and Brief, 2004). Previous studies investigating this issue have focused on affect mostly at the individual level and paid relatively less attention to its role as a component of the employee’s social context at work (for an exception, see Staw and Barsade, 1993). However, one can argue that it is not only the pleasantness of an employee that affects his/her performance, but also the pleasantness of the social environment in which he/she interacts with coworkers.

With an aim to shed light on this relatively unexplored area, I have studied the pleasantness dimension of affect (Russell and Feldman-Barrett, 1999; Russell and Pratt, 1980) as both an employee’s affective trait and a component of the emotional climate of his/her workplace. Drawing on the psychological climate research (James et al., 1978), I conceptualized emotional climate as an employee’s perceptions of the pleasantness of his/her work unit, based on his/her recollections of how other people usually express their emotions, the work pace, the job requirements, and the physical setting of their office.

It can be argued that an employee with pleasant affective trait will have a stronger tendency to engage in pleasant interactions with coworkers and will perceive his/her work environment more positively. Therefore, a pleasant employee will be likely to operate in a more pleasant psychological climate while performing his/her organizational roles. Operating in this psychologically pleasant climate, in turn, will increase the employee’s performance through the mediating role of psychological meaningfulness, defined as a feeling that one is receiving a return on investments of one’s self in a currency of physical, cognitive, or emotional energy (Kahn, 1990).
Sample

As part of a larger project, the data for this study were collected from 257 employees within 40 work units across 11 organizations and their supervisors, who provided data regarding the performance of employees. The organizations were in Greater Vancouver, British Columbia and came from a variety sectors including trade, forestry, high-tech, finance, and courier service. Response rates within work units ranged from 64% to 100% with an overall response rate of 79%. The sample was comprised of employees from a variety of occupations, including laborers, clerks, sales representative, network analysts, engineers, coordinators and managers.

Measures

To measure affective trait, I used a semantic differential scale adapted from Mehrabian and Russell (1974). Respondents were asked to rate a list of emotion adjective items on an 8-point bipolar semantic differential scale (e.g. 1 = unhappy, 8 = happy) to describe how they feel in general. It was emphasized that the respondents were asked to describe how they feel in their overall life instead of at the time they fill out the survey. The scale measuring affective climate was adapted from Russell and Pratt (1980). Respondents were asked to rate a list of emotion adjective items on an 8-point Likert scale (1 = not typical at all, 8 = very typical) to describe how their workplace environment has been over the past twelve months. The list included such items as happy, enthusiastic, unpleasant (reverse coded), and depressing (reverse coded).

The data for role performance were collected from the supervisors of the employees, using a scale created by Welbourne et al. (1998), including such items as: “Working to implement new ideas”, and “Working as part of a team or work group”. Psychological meaningfulness was
measured by a scale developed by Brown and Leigh (1996), including such items as “I feel like a key member of the organization” and “I feel very useful in my job”. Regression analysis was used to test the hypotheses of the study.

Data Analysis and Results

In the first step of regression analyses, I entered the control variables, sex and tenure in the work unit, in the equation. Neither of the control variables was significant. When affective trait was entered in the second step, it had a significant positive relationship with performance. In the third step, when emotional climate was entered in the equation, it was positively related to performance, and affective trait was no longer significant, indicating that emotional climate fully mediated the relationship between affective trait and performance. When I entered psychological meaningfulness in the fourth step of the equation, it was significantly related to performance and emotional climate was no longer significant. Thus, psychological meaningfulness mediated the relationship between affective climate and role performance.

Discussion

The results of this study suggest that employees with a pleasant predisposition perform better in their organizational roles to the extent that this pleasantness is reflected on the psychological emotional climate in which they interact with others in their organization and the psychological meaning they derive from these interactions. These findings have implications for the “happier employee is a better performer” hypothesis in that it extends our view of this relationship to a domain in which the employee’s interaction with his/her social context is also taken into account. The results indicate that being happy in itself does not suffice for better
performance. An employee’s capacity to create a pleasant psychological climate around himself/herself in his/her work environment and the psychological meaningfulness associated with this climate play an important role in bridging this link.
References


The Development of Group Emotional Competence

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Over the last two decades, the concept of emotional intelligence (EI) has been the subject of substantial discussion and research. Salovey and Mayer (1990) were the first to formally suggest that individuals differ in their ability to perceive, understand, and use emotion as a source of information. Emotional intelligence is defined as encompassing: (1) the ability to perceive, appraise, and express emotion accurately, (2) the ability to access and generate feelings when they facilitate cognition, (3) the ability to understand affect-laden information and make use of emotional knowledge, and (4) the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth and well-being (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

Goleman (1995) was the first to claim that EI was linked to success in the workplace. He argued that emotional intelligence was the root of workplace competencies such as self-control, empathy, and resonant leadership, which have consistently been linked to workplace effectiveness (see Boyatzis, 1982; Goleman, 1998). Other researchers have continued to test these ideas and found that EI can facilitate effective workplace behavior (see Ashkanasy, Hartel, & Zerbe, 2000; Bar-On & Parker, 2000; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002).

Most recently, scholars with interests in small groups have begun to theorize and study the role of emotion and EI in groups. For instance, Bartel and Saavedra (2000) identified the concept of group mood as being distinct from the mood of individual group members, while Barsade (2002) brought the concept of emotional contagion (whereby the emotion of one individual directly but perhaps unintentionally impacts the emotion of another individual) into the literature on small group processes. Another significant addition to the discussion of emotion in groups is Druskat and Wolff’s (2001) theory of group emotional competence. Their observations in an applied research setting revealed the ability of some groups to establish strong group norms regarding the expression, understanding and management of emotion (and
emotional information) at the individual, group and intergroup levels of analysis. Specifically, Druskat and Wolff describe Group Emotional Competence as the ability of a group to implement a combination of nine behavioral norms labeled emotionally competent norms (ECG norms). At the individual level, these group norms include interpersonal understanding, caring behavior and confronting members who break group norms. At the group level, these norms include team self-evaluation, creating resources for working with emotion, creating an optimistic working environment, and proactive problem solving. Finally at the intergroup (organizational) level, these norms include organizational awareness and building relationships with groups and individuals outside the team. (See Druskat and Wolff’s outline in this document for a further description of their theory.)

The ECG norm concept appears to hold great promise for enhanced learning, productivity and viability of groups and teams in organizations. However little has been done so far to empirically validate the impact of ECG norms on group level outcomes, or to document how these norms develop within groups. Recently, an applied research study was conducted to develop a survey instrument that could be used to measure individual group member perceptions of the ECG norms (Hamme, 2003). This study not only found support for the nine separate sub-scales listed above (Druskat and Wolff had originally proposed 11 distinct norms), but also resulted in a survey instrument that could be used to assess the prevalence of these norms within a group.

Research Question

The study will present an initial look at the development of Group Emotional Competence (ECG norms) within intact teams, and the relationship of ECG norms to group
leadership, individual and aggregate levels of individual emotional intelligence, and various personality variables. Additionally, the study examines the relationship between ECG norms over time and group performance as well as group member satisfaction.

Specifically, this study addresses whether the presence of ECG norms is influenced most by the highest, lowest, or mean level of individual emotional intelligence. Additionally, this study will look at other possible factors impacting the development of ECG norms such as the emotional intelligence of the group emergent leader, the relative dominance within the group of personality traits such as extroversion, emotional stability, or conscientiousness, and the dominance within the group of personality types such as intuition, feeling, or perceiving.

Method

Fifty-three teams consisting of four to six members each (total of 260 individuals) were followed for a period of 14 weeks. Teams consisted of undergraduate business students at a north east (U.S.) university. The student teams were organized around required semester-long projects. Individual team member perceptions of the presence of the ECG norms were measured halfway through the team’s time together, and then again at the end of the semester. Additionally, measures were taken of individual emotional intelligence using the Bar-On Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire. Other individual self-report measures included a short version of the Big 5 Personality Test and the Meyers Briggs Type Indicator.

Outcome measures consisted of student group level performance, individual student performance over time, student perceptions of learning from group members and measures of student satisfaction with the group.
Results

Preliminary data analyses reveal multiple interesting findings. For instance, it was documented that Emotionally Competent Group Norms (as measured by individual surveys regarding the frequency of specific behaviors) increased significantly over time. In fact, significant increases were measured not only in overall emotional competence, but also in 6 of the 9 subscales used, with non-significant increases occurring in another two subscales. Additionally, early levels of Caring Behavior and Interpersonal Understanding were significantly associated with team performance, whereas later on in the semester high group performance was associated with Creating Resources for Working with Emotion, Proactive Problem Solving and Overall Group Emotional Competence. As expected, no significant associations were found between group performance and the Myers Brigs Type Indicator, the Big 5 Personality variables, or the Bar-On Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire. These findings will be discussed in full in the symposium.

Contribution

This paper is expected to present one of the first empirical studies linking the presence of Emotionally Competent Group norms to overall group effectiveness, defined by Hackman (1986) as consisting of productivity, individual learning, and group viability. Additionally, it is the first known study to examine the development of ECG norms within a group, and to address the question of the factors that lead to the development of Group Emotional Competence. Consequently, this study contributes to current knowledge by clarifying how group member composition and group leadership contribute to the awareness and management of emotion within the group, and thus lead to performance, learning and satisfaction within the group.
References


The Emotional Lives of Athletic Teams

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The concept of a “team” as opposed to a “group” has taken a life of its own in organizational research and practice. Although both concepts can be used interchangeably (Cohen & Bailey, 1987), a team has come to signify a unit for high performance that promises more exhilarating participation and requires enlightened managerial attention in terms of how it is designed and led (Ilgen, 1999). One description for the type of leadership that is required for these high-performance teams is “coaching” and a variety of perspectives have evolved that describe and prescribe coaching behaviors. “Coaching is evolving as a natural form of leadership in the changing world of work. It is a way of managing, a way of communicating, a way of thinking, and a way of being. As a result, it produces results beyond people's expectations” (Caproni, 2000, p. 32).

While “teams” and “coaching” are alternative and inspiring concepts to describe group behavior and leadership, one question would be whether these terms, borrowed from the world of sports, are appropriate concepts in organized work settings. Specifically, are athletic teams a distinct form of work group whereby the performance context and the type of “work” require unique description and leadership? Alternatively, are there appropriate generalizations from athletic contexts that can inform and shape approaches to organizational work teams? In the current research, I examine contextual elements of the athletic context and relate them to how athletes experience their performance environments and how coaches decide on strategic and relational tactics. From a spectator’s perspective, one would imagine that an important dimension of an athlete’s experience and a coach’s tactics involves how a sport is experienced emotionally. It is this light that allows us to compare the emotional lives of athletic teams to descriptions of life in organizational domains (Hackman, 1990).
Research Strategy

In the current work, I will take a two-pronged approach to understanding the emotional lives of athletic teams. First, I will consider the core work processes (Goodman, 1986) for several popular NCAA sports: football, wrestling, hockey, baseball, gymnastics, track and field, basketball, crew, field hockey, volleyball, and swimming. I describe each in terms of the motivational properties of a sport using the Job Characteristics Model (Hackman, 1987). I also describe the interdependence requirements of playing a sport and its implications for both communication and coordination. Finally, I investigate how athletic participation influences the health and mental flexibility of student-athletes in addition to how sport affects an athlete’s identity, self-esteem and sense of belonging.

The second set of lenses compare a sport’s technology to coaching (leadership) practices as predicted by traditional organizing principles (Thompson, 1967). Specifically, how do coaches enhance motivation and increase commitment beyond that offered by job characteristics? What is the role of the coach’s values (in a specific sport) on how athletes are developed? How does a team’s culture influence how knowledge is managed and mood experienced in a team?

Method and Results

Nine four-person observer teams were created and charged with the responsibility of identifying and then contracting with 20 NCAA athletes at a large Big 10 university. Teams were to identify athletes from five separate sports including both men and women participants, interview them using a researcher-developed Interview Guide on the Emotional Lives of Athletes, and ask them to complete a Sport as Work Survey. Observers were undergraduate
students participating in an organizational behavior course. Participation in this study constituted the field research portion of the course. Interview and survey collection procedures were discussed and practiced in class.

A sample of 193 useable surveys and 200 interviews constituted the data for the study. Eleven NCAA sports teams were represented. Expectations for the results of the study include the notion that the emotional lives of athletes are connected to both the technology of a sport and the organizational values of coaches. Highly interdependent sports teams such as basketball and crew will exhibit more emotionally powerful lives, experiencing highs and lows that will directly influence health and mental flexibility. Teams with pooled or sequential interdependence (e.g., baseball, football) will experience more consistent and moderate emotional experiences. Finally, the structure of athletics and the role of coaching serve uniquely to promote an athlete’s identity, self-esteem and sense of belonging in a manner that probably differs significantly from how organizational teams are generally organized and managed. When coaching is considered as a unique set of behavioral leadership strategies for team development, it would be wise to ask about the “sport” that a team plays before making recommendations regarding coaching.
References


Predictors of Mood Contagion in Groups

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Affect in the workplace is a hot topic in recent years (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2002). While much of the research on affect has been focused at the individual level of analysis (Forgas & George, 2001), the role of affect in groups has received increasing attention. Accumulating research provides theoretic and statistical support for affective influences in group (Kelly & Barsade, 2001). Specifically, researchers have found that affect are contagious in groups and once caught by group members, has implications for group processes and outcomes (Barsade, 2002; Bartell & Saavedra, 2000; Sy, Cote, & Saavedra; Toterdell, 2000; Toterdell, Kellet, Teuchmann, Briner, 1998). The extant literature provides some evidence of what factors influences affective contagion at the individual level of analysis, such as power (Hsee, Hatfield, & Carlson, 1990), intensity of facial emotional display (Wild, Erb, & Bartels, 2001), and gender and occupation (Doherty, Orimoto, Singelis, 1995). However, a review of the literature yielded only two studies (Toterdell, 2000; Toterdell, Kellett, Teuchmann, 1998) that examines predictors of mood contagion at the group level. These studies indicate that the characteristics of group members influenced mood contagion. Given the lack of knowledge in this domain, the focus on this study is to examining additional predictors of mood contagion in groups.

Specifically, I examine the factors that make groups more susceptible to the mood of the leader.

**Input-Process-Output Model of Mood Contagion**

The present study expands the extant literature of emotional contagion that has been largely based on the individual-level analysis by examining mood contagion at the group level, particularly utilizing a well-established model of group behavior. The input-process-output model has prevailed the group literature as a heuristic framework to explain group behavior and group effectiveness (Barry & Stewart, 1997; Porter, Hollenbeck, Ilgen, Ellis, et al., 2003). Input
to the group process includes group composition in terms of ability, personality, and backgrounds, task characteristics, and organizational context for task performance. Group process involves interpersonal dynamics among members such as communication, conflict resolution, and other task or social exchange processes. These processes are expected to determine the group outcomes such as member satisfaction and quantity and quality of team performance (Hackman, 1987).

The input-process-output model represents a cohesive framework to understand what factors influence mood contagion in groups. In the present study, as depicted in Figure 1, I identify group mood contagion as an outcome of a group that can be predicted by its input and process. With regard to input to the group, I attend to group member’s personality, emotional expressivity, tenure and time spent with the group and the diversity of group members. For group processes, the model includes interpersonal cooperation, task interdependence, cohesion, trust, and collective self esteem. Obviously, the present list of input and process variables is far from comprehensive given that this is the first attempt to examine group mood contagion based on the input-process-output framework. In the study, I hypothesize that the identified group input and process variables will associate positively with the level of group mood contagion.

Figure 1.
Method

One hundred and eighty nine students (107 women and 82 men) forming 56 intact groups were recruited from three undergraduate courses in organizational behavior at two large Universities in the the United States. As part of a class requirement, students formed groups to complete a project. There were 36 three-member groups, 19 four-member groups, and 1 five-member group. The average age of the participants was 22. At the time of the study, groups were spending approximately 2 hours per week together, and had been together for 2.5 months. Groups conducted meetings, outlined task procedures, assigned tasks to members, and handled interpersonal issues. Groups, with their respective members, were randomly assigned to one of two leader mood conditions: positive leader mood and negative leader mood.

All scales were adopted from those previously published in the organizational literature.

Results

The hypotheses will be tested with structural equation modeling (SEM) using the EQS program (Bentler, 1995). The SEM analysis simultaneously estimates the hypothesized regressions using the covariance matrix generated from the observed patterns among the variables measured. SEM is an appropriate analytical strategy for the present study because it simultaneously estimates the effects of multiple predictors on multiple outcomes that are connected through more than two causal steps (thus creating mediated relationships), controlling for measurement errors associated with latent factors (Bollen, 1989).
References


Statement of Participation

I have received e-mail statements from all intended participants agreeing to participate in the symposium.

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