

The Pennsylvania State University

The Graduate School

College of the Liberal Arts

**POWER HUNGRY: THE INFLUENCE OF POWER VALUES DIVERSITY ON
RELATIONSHIP CONFLICT AND TEAM PERFORMANCE**

A Thesis in

Psychology

by

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Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements

for the Degree of

Master of Science

December 2014

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Abstract

Despite their role as motivational goals that influence behavior and social interactions, little research has investigated power values in teams. In 80 student teams, mean achievement values moderated the relationship between power values diversity and team performance, such that higher team-mean achievement values trended toward increasing team performance. In addition, the interaction between power values diversity and participative safety climate to predict relationship climate was marginally significant, such that higher participative safety climate trended toward decreasing relationship conflict. Results support the utility of considering the role of moderators to comprehend when team power values diversity is likely to predict team processes and outcomes.

Keywords: Values, power values, diversity, relationship conflict, team performance

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1. Introduction

Organizations are moving further into the 21st century, and not only has the diversity of the workforce increased (e.g., Mannix & Neale, 2005; van Knippenberg & Schippers, 2007), but the reliance on teams in organizations has also increased (e.g., Klein, Knight, Ziegert, Lim, & Saltz, 2011). Although team diversity research has often focused on surface-level or demographic characteristics (e.g., age, gender), researchers have recommended that more attention be paid to deep-level or psychological characteristics (e.g., traits, values; Hollenbeck, DeRue, & Guzzo, 2004; van Knippenberg & Schippers, 2007), in part, because they have been found to exhibit greater influence over time (Harrison, Price, Gavin, & Florey, 2002).

Although prior studies have investigated the effects of personality traits and attitudes (e.g., Harrison et al., 2002; Mohammed & Angell, 2004), values are one category of deep-level diversity that has been under-researched within the team context (e.g., Bell, 2007). This research gap is regrettable because values are motivational constructs that convey to us what is significant in our lives (Bardi & Schwartz, 2003). Values can be universal, and they refer to guiding principles in a person's life (Schwartz, 1992), which influence behavior by channeling, evaluating, and justifying beliefs, attitudes, and actions (Rokeach, 1973). They symbolize broad goals that apply across contexts and time (Schwartz, 1997). Moreover, values serve as the foundation from which attitudes and behaviors are generated (Hilton, 2003; Homer & Kahle, 1988).

In past team research, values have been conceptualized as both a "levels" concept (e.g., team-means) as well as a "dispersion" concept (e.g., team member differences or diversity in the importance attributed to a value; e.g., Woehr, Arciniega, & Poling, 2013). The latter has received much less attention despite the fact that diversity/dispersion constructs have regularly demonstrated important incremental effects in other research areas, such as climate (e.g.,

Colquitt, Noe, & Jackson, 2002; Schneider, Salvaggio, & Subrats, 2002) and team personality (e.g., Humphrey, Hollenbeck, Meyer, & Ilgen, 2011). In addition, differences, or diversity of values held within a team, has been linked to a number of important team processes and outcomes, including task conflict (Hobman & Bordia, 2006; Woehr, et al., 2013), relationship conflict (Hobman & Bordia, 2006; Klein et al., 2011; Woehr et al., 2013), and team performance (Fisher, Macrosson, & Yusuff, 1996; Jehn & Mannix, 2001), thereby showing the promise of values for future investigation. In the present study, we use the term *values diversity* to refer to differences between team members in the importance attributed to a particular value type.

In the context of work teams, *power values*, which refer to values focused on the attainment of social status and prestige, as well as obtaining and exerting social influence or control over people and resources, may be especially important to consider because they represent motivational goals in regard to desired social interactions (Schwartz, 1992). Schwartz (1994) suggested that power values may be related to intragroup conflict. Schwartz (1996) later found that the importance people attributed to power values was predictive of noncooperation with others, which has been found to decrease team performance (Salas, Cooke, & Rosen, 2008). Moreover, despite the emergence of a dominance/submission dimension in many analyses of interpersonal relations (Lonner, 1980) and growing interest in power and status differences in teams (e.g., Aime, Humphrey, DeRue, & Paul, 2013; Bendersky & Shah, 2012), a dearth of empirical work on power values exists.

Furthermore, the few studies in industrial/organizational psychology and organizational behavior that have investigated power values have either predominantly utilized means or have been focused on individual-level outcomes. For instance, Arthaud-Day and colleagues (2012) found that mean levels of power values moderated the relationship between individual power and

organizational citizenship behavior directed toward individuals. However, we can also consider the effects of diversity of power values on team-level outcomes. Little research has examined power values in teams, and even less research has explored diversity of power values within teams. This lack of research is unfortunate, as *power values diversity*, or differences between team members with respect to the importance attributed to power values, has been found to be related to important team processes, including team task and relationship conflict (Woehr et al., 2013).

Therefore, the present study investigates the conditions under which power values diversity may be related to important team processes and outcomes. More specifically, I examine the moderating effect of *participative safety climate*, or a sense that the team is interpersonally nonthreatening and encouraging of involvement, on the relationship between power values diversity and relationship conflict (tension and animosity between team members). Furthermore, I examine *mean achievement values*, or values focused on personal success through the demonstration of competence according to social standards, as a moderator of the relationship between power values diversity and team performance. I posit that these moderators help to influence team outcomes by increasing the positive effects and/or overriding the negative effects of power values diversity. Figure 1 depicts the research model.

My research provides four key contributions to the extant values diversity literature. First, I add to the limited empirical research on team values diversity, which is important because team members who differ in values may have dissimilar motivational goals, making it difficult to attain consensus or coordinate in a manner conducive to important team outcomes (Jehn & Mannix, 2001; Kirkman & Shapiro, 2005). Second, I expand this research domain by answering the call for more research on power and achievement values in particular, which have been found

to be related to important team processes, but have received little attention in the context of diversity within teams (Woehr et al., 2013). Third, I examine the conditions under which power values diversity affects relationship conflict and team performance. Prior work on team power values has emphasized main effects (e.g., Woehr et al., 2013). However, in their review of the team diversity literature, van Knippenberg and Schippers (2007) declared the bankruptcy of the main effects approach and advocated for “models that are more complex and that consider moderating variables in explaining the effects of diversity” (pp. 518–519). Although few values diversity researchers have investigated contextual or compositional moderators (cf. Woehr et al., 2013; Klein et al., 2011), such moderators likely influence the extent to which power values predict team outcomes.

Fourth, I integrate literature on diversity, complementary fit, and Schwartz’s (1992, 1996) model of values. To my knowledge, this is the first paper that has simultaneously incorporated all of these research domains. Team literature on complementary fit suggests that when team members are diverse in some way, they may better “fit” the team because they are able to fill needed roles (Humphrey, Hollenbeck, Meyer, & Ilgen, 2007). In addition, Schwartz’s model is recognized as the central scheme for examining personal values (see Hitlin & Piliavin, 2004; Rohan, 2000), but little attention has been paid to investigating its value types in the context of diversity within teams.

Fifth, I examine the interaction between two value types: Power values and achievement values. Because team members have multiple values (Bardi & Schwartz, 2003), it is important to understand how these values interact with each other to shape team outcomes. Past work has largely neglected interactions between universal value types in the context of teams.

The present study provides a broad overview of values. Schwartz's universal model of values is introduced, and the significance of power values in teams and organizations is discussed. Next, past team research on values diversity is reviewed, and the dearth of research on power values diversity in teams is highlighted. Theory and hypotheses relevant to power values diversity and its potential link with important team outcomes are presented, along with an empirical investigation of these propositions. Finally, results are reported with a discussion of theoretical implications, limitations, and practical implications.

1.1 Literature Review of Values

According to Schwartz, (1992, 1996) values refer to motivational goals, which transcend specific situations, and guide the evaluation of actions, policies, people and events. Each person holds many values (e.g., power, achievement), and certain values may be unimportant to one individual, but important to another (Bardi & Schwartz, 2003). In addition, some values are considered universal (Schwartz, 1992), or theorized to be held by nearly *all* individuals, but the importance attributed to any given universal value may vary from person to person. Values are said to be universal if they help to cope with at least one of the three universal requirements of human existence: "needs of individuals as biological organisms, requisites of coordinated social interaction, and survival and welfare needs of groups" (Schwartz, 1994, 2012, p. 4).

Values serve as criteria that provide social justification for decisions and actions (Rokeach, 1973), and they are different from traits (tendencies of showing consistent patterns of thoughts, feelings, and actions, McCrae & Costa, 1990). Whereas traits can be thought of as lasting dispositions or tendencies, values can be thought of as lasting motivational goals that are relevant across contexts. Although individuals may view traits as desirable or undesirable, they, by definition, view values positively. For example, an individual might have negative feelings

about his or her tendency to exhibit high anxiety and neuroticism (a trait), but he or she would not attribute dislike toward his or her values, which represent desirable goals (Roccas & Sagiv, 2010; Rokeach, 1973). Like traits, values are relatively stable and exhibit little change across adulthood (e.g., Feather, 1971; Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 1997). However, unlike traits, values are used to justify actions as “worthy” and serve as criteria for judging the behavior of oneself and others (Schwartz, 1992; Roccas, Sagiv, Schwartz, & Knafo, 2002).

Values differ from motives, needs and beliefs. Like needs and motives, values drive behavior (Rohan, 2000; Seligman, Olson, & Zanna, 1996). Dissimilar to needs and motives (Bilsky, 1998; McClelland, 1985), values are inherently attractive and must be represented cognitively in ways that allows people to communicate about them (Bilsky & Schwartz, 2008; McClelland, 1985). Beliefs refer to concepts and perceived relationships between things and concepts that individuals hold to be true (Bem, 1970). Examples of beliefs are “what comes around goes around,” “working hard always pays off,” and “smoking causes cancer.” Beliefs vary in their certainty of truth. Unlike values, beliefs pertain to the subjective perception that a relationship is true, not to motivational goals that guide behavior and are relevant across contexts (Schwartz, 2012).

Individuals may act in a manner congruent with their values even when they do not consciously consider them. For instance, a person may, without awareness, present his or her power values by interrupting a partner in conversation. Therefore, although values can be retrieved from memory, they can also operate unconsciously (Bardi & Schwartz, 2003). Extant literature suggests that values may relate to ongoing behavior via unconscious habits. For example, Sagiv & Schwartz (2002) demonstrated that counselees exhibited either dependent or

independent behavior in accordance with their values throughout multiple career counseling sessions.

Past research has shown that personal values are related to behavioral intentions (Feather, 1995; Schwartz, 1995), which demonstrates that individuals desire to act in a manner congruent with their values. Additionally, values have been found to influence what individuals worry about (Schwartz, Sagiv, & Boehnke, 2000), how individuals focus their attention (e.g., de Dreu & Boles, 1998), and the way they interpret information (e.g., Sattler & Kerr, 1991; Van Lange & Liebrand, 1989). Past findings have also shown that values are related to behaviors, such as consumer purchases (Grunert & Juhl, 1995), conflict resolution (Bond, Leung, Au, Tong, & Chemonges-Nielson, 2004), decision-making (Feather, 1995), and negotiation (Brett & Okumura, 1998).

Judge and Bretz (1992) noted that individuals establish relatively stable values through their life experiences, and organizations are unlikely to modify these values. In addition, past empirical work has demonstrated that values may not easily be changed through organizational socialization or charismatic leadership, and individuals are more strongly influenced by the values that they initially bring with them to organizations (Cable & Parsons, 2001). In the context of teams, these findings suggest that members may not easily alter their values after they have been placed in a work team, and if individuals with differing values are placed in teams, it may be difficult to align their values. Because the consequences of this misalignment has been found to influence important team processes and outcomes, such as task and relationship conflict (e.g., Woehr et al., 2013) and team performance (e.g., Jehn & Mannix, 2001), it is important for organizations to understand team composition in regard to values.

1.2 Schwartz's Circumplex of Universal Values

Although other typologies of values include Rokeach (1973) and Hofstede's cultural taxonomy (1980), Schwartz's (1992, 1996) model of universal values is considered the central model of personal values (see Hitlin & Piliavin, 2004; Rohan, 2000). Investigated in over 200 samples and more than 65 countries, Schwartz's (1992, 1996) model proposed that universal values can be summarized into two basic conflicts. The first conflict involves self-enhancement values versus self-transcendence values. Self-enhancement values emphasize self-interests, power, and success. In contrast, self-transcendence values stress a concern for the interests and well-being of others. The second conflict involves openness to change values versus conservation values. On the one hand, openness to change values emphasize autonomous thought, action, and feelings, as well as readiness for change. On the other hand, conservation values stress order, restriction, and preservation of the status quo. Taken together, these value conflicts differ in their motivational goals.

According to Schwartz (1992, 2006), the two aforementioned conflicts can be investigated in the context of 10 more specific, but still broad value types. These values, defined according to their motivational goals, are: Power, achievement, self-direction, stimulation, hedonism, security, conformity, tradition, benevolence, and universalism. Power values are focused on social status and prestige, as well as control or dominance over others. Achievement values emphasize the goal of personal success through the demonstration of competence according to social standards. Hedonism values stress the attainment of pleasure and sensuous gratification for oneself. Stimulation values are focused on excitement, novelty, and challenge in life. Self-direction values emphasize the goal of independent thought and action. Universalism values emphasize the goal of understanding, appreciation, tolerance, and protection for the welfare of all people and for nature. Benevolence values stress preserving and enhancing the

welfare of those people whom an individual is in frequent contact. Tradition values are focused on respect, commitment, and acceptance of the customs and ideas that one's culture or religion provides. Conformity values emphasize the goal of restraint in actions, inclinations, and impulses likely to upset or harm others as well as violate social expectations. Lastly, security values stress the attainment of safety, harmony, and stability in society, relationships, and for the self.

Any given individual may prioritize these ten universal values differently depending on his or her personal goals, and behavior is suggested to be influenced by this prioritization of relevant values. According to Schwartz (1992, 1996), pursuit of one of these values may either conflict or be congruent with the pursuit of another. For instance, a person's power values may conflict with his or her benevolence values, as seeking social status, prestige, and authority for oneself may impede an individual from enhancing the welfare of others who need immediate assistance. In contrast, power values and achievement values may be compatible, as attaining personal success is often related to actions congruent with increasing one's social position or authority. In addition, achievement influences social admiration, and such admiration is helpful in obtaining power (Pulfrey & Butera, 2013).

Figure 2 illustrates the conflict and congruence among the 10 value types. The figure's circular structure represents a motivational continuum, where adjacent values have more similar motivations, and values that are located further away have more antagonistic motivations. Hedonism values are uniquely located on the circular structure because they share certain characteristics of both openness to change and self-enhancement values. In addition, conformity and tradition occupy the same space on the circular structure because they share the same motivational goal. However, conformity values are located closer to the center of the circular structure because they conflict more strongly with the other values (Schwartz, 2012). Moreover,

Bardi and Schwartz (2003) found that these ten value types predicted behaviors congruent with their motivational goals, which provides empirical support for the premise that values predict behavior. For example, stimulation values were found to predict behaviors such as watching thrillers, hedonism values were found to predict behaviors such as consuming food and drinks even if one was not hungry or thirsty, and power values were found to predict behaviors such as pressuring others to go along with preferences or opinions as well as choosing friends based on how much money these friends had.

The present study examines the self-enhancement value type of power values. This value type was chosen for investigation because it is particularly relevant to teams and organizations. Power values justify the hierarchical structure in many workplaces. As individuals attribute greater importance to power values, by definition, they are more motivated to obtain control over people and resources, as well as status and prestige (Schwartz, 1992). In the context of organizations, employees who attribute greater importance to power values should be more motivated to obtain promotions and work for team and organizational interests, provided that such actions are perceived to help them reach their power goals.

1.3 Team Research on Values Diversity

The mere handful of studies in industrial/organizational psychology and organizational behavior that have examined values diversity within teams is unfortunate, as past research has found that team values diversity is associated with important team processes and outcomes. For example, Fisher and colleagues (1996), utilizing the Rokeach Value Survey (RVS; Rokeach, 1979), found that teams with more agreement in value ratings demonstrated better task performance than teams with less agreement. Rodriguez (1998) also used the RVS and found that dispersion of values within groups positively predicted perceived team effectiveness. In

addition, Jehn, Chadwick, and Thatcher (1997) measured values via the Organizational Culture Profile (OCP; O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991) and found that values diversity within workgroups had a negative effect on workgroup performance through a positive relationship with team conflict. In a later study, Jehn and Mannix (2001) also used the OCP to demonstrate that diversity of team members' values was positively related to relationship conflict and negatively related to team performance. Furthermore, Kirkman and Shapiro (2005) found that determinism values diversity was positively related to team member ratings of cooperation and of productivity, and doing-orientation values diversity was negatively related to team member ratings of productivity. Klein et al. (2011) examined the moderating effects of leadership style on the relationship between values diversity and team conflict. Values were measured via traditionalism and protestant work ethic, and findings showed that task –focused leadership weakened the diversity-team conflict relationship, while person-focused leadership strengthened the diversity-team conflict relationship. Taken together, these findings highlight the potential promise of studying values diversity within teams.

To the author's knowledge, only a single study has investigated the relationship between power values diversity and team outcomes (Woehr et al., 2013). In a sample of undergraduates, Woehr and colleagues used a quasi-experimental design, and over the course of 110 minutes, teams worked interdependently to make plans for and build a complex bridge structure from plastic pipes and rubberbands. Results demonstrated that power values diversity was significantly and positively correlated with both task and relationship conflict, which have been found to influence team performance (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; de Wit, Greer, & Jehn, 2012). Such empirical work provides support for further investigation of the construct.

1.4 Hypotheses

The present study examines power values diversity and its relationship with two important team outcomes: relationship conflict and team performance. *Relationship conflict* refers to disagreements among team members stemming from interpersonal incompatibilities and is characterized by tension, annoyance, and animosity (Jehn, 1995). Because past research has only examined main effects of power values diversity within teams (e.g., Woehr, et al., 2013), the current empirical investigation provides valuable insight in regard to the boundary conditions for these relationships through examining two moderators: participative safety climate and mean achievement values.

1.5 Moderation and Main Effect Hypotheses

The moderating role of participative safety climate on relationship conflict. Team member differences in the importance attributed to power values may be positively related to relationship conflict. As suggested by the similarity attraction paradigm (Byrne, 1971), dissimilarity of values, beliefs, and attitudes may decrease interpersonal attraction (e.g., Mannix & Neale, 2005). Team members who attribute greater importance to power values should be more likely to value, in themselves, behavior that assumes authority or status over others, or is perceived to lead to such outcomes. These members may present their power values through actions such as delegating responsibilities to other team members or assuming an authoritative role. In congruence with the similarity attraction paradigm (Byrne, 1971), other team members who attribute lesser importance to power values may view such actions as unattractive. In addition, teammates may perceive such behavior as unnecessary, aggressive, or even offensive, as they are not equally motivated by power goals. Thus, differences in power values may create tension and animosity in team member interactions.

However, it is also plausible that power values diversity may be negatively related to relationship conflict because differences in members' power values may allow for complementary fit (Humphrey et al., 2007; Kristof, 1996; Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987). In teams characterized by *complementary fit*, members "fit" the team because they are different than other teammates in some important way, and are therefore able to fill a need (Cable & Edwards, 2004; Humphrey et al., 2007; Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987). In teams with high power values diversity, not all team members will be motivated to obtain a position of status or dominance (e.g., a role of delegation) within the team. Team members with lower power values may be more comfortable "going with the flow" and deferring to others, whereas members with higher power values may desire the authority of assigning tasks to teammates. Thus, power values diversity offers the potential for complementary team roles, as individual team members are differentially motivated to acquire certain positions within the team.

Therefore, it is expected that whether power values diversity is positively or negatively related to relationship conflict will depend on the contextual moderator of participative safety climate. *Participative safety climate* refers to a feeling that the team is interpersonally nonthreatening and encouraging of involvement (West, 1990). In teams with a high participative safety climate, individual members are encouraged to participate in discussions and decision-making, as they perceive the team climate to be supportive. This climate of trust within teams allows members to feel comfortable expressing ideas without fear of being disrespected, or negatively perceived (West, 1990).

Participative safety climate, a construct similar to psychological safety (Edmondson, 1999) may be an especially important factor in the context of team members with diverse power values. For example, past research has shown dominant behavior, a manifestation of power

values, to be perceived as threatening, and has suggested that such behavior is likely to reduce group cohesion and cooperation (Carli, LaFleur, & Loeber, 1995). Participative safety climate may help to alleviate these concerns. Specifically, when the team climate is nonthreatening, respectful, and encouraging of communication, individuals are likely to be more comfortable around teammates and less offended by members who assume positions of status or dominance within the team. In addition, there is a greater probability that team member values and subsequent roles will complement rather than conflict with one another when participative safety climate is high. The process of negotiating roles is a crucial step in the formation of teams (Ilgen, Hollenbeck, Johnson, & Jundt, 2005), and this process may cause conflict between team members who desire similar roles. However, under conditions of high participative safety climate, teammates may more easily agree on who will fill what positions within the team, as a climate characterized by trust and respect has been established (West, 1990). In addition, if team members attribute differing levels of importance to power values, they may be more likely to assume positions of complementary fit. Team members who delegate roles will need teammates who are willing to take on these responsibilities (Meindl, 1993). Thus, as individual team members undertake positions that are more consistent with their own personal values, they may not only be more content with their own place in the team, but also with their teammates, lowering the possibility of relationship conflict.

In contrast, teams with high power values diversity and a low participative safety climate may not be able to utilize their diversity in an advantageous manner. Because the team climate is perceived as more threatening and less accepting of participation, team members may not be as comfortable interacting with one another. As individuals with higher power values make demands of their teammates, their requests may be seen as needless, pushy, or obnoxious.

Without a high participative safety climate, teams may not be able to overcome the undesired effects of power values diversity on relationship conflict, and benefit from the potential for complementary fit. Therefore, the following was proposed:

Hypothesis 1: Participative safety climate moderates the relationship between power values diversity and relationship conflict: As power values diversity increases in groups that have higher participative safety climate, reduced levels of conflict are expected.

The moderating role of achievement values on team performance. Given existing theory on team complementary fit (Humphrey, et al., 2007), power values diversity may be positively related to team performance. Because teams are characterized by members performing interdependent roles (Belbin, 1993), teams that lack ideal members for certain positions are left with unmet needs (Biddle, 1979), which may negatively influence team performance (Humphrey et al., 2007). However, in teams with high power values diversity, it is likely that certain members will be more motivated to assume power-related positions within the team (e.g., a role of delegation), while other members will be more motivated to take-on the tasks requested of them and demonstrate willing cooperation. In congruence with theory on complementary fit in teams, as power values diversity increases, team members may better “fit” together because their differences allow for the filling of complementary team roles. According to Humphrey and colleagues (2007), complementary fit may expedite the clarification of roles within a team. In turn, this may reduce confusion about role expectations (Graen, 1976) and increase team member adaptability (Moon et al., 2004), which may positively influence team performance.

In contrast, it is also plausible that power values diversity may be negatively related to team performance. In teams with high power values diversity, members who attribute greater

importance to power values may be more motivated to attain social admiration or approval than their teammates (Schwartz, 1992). Because such admiration can be attained via rewards such as promotions to higher status positions, these members may exert greater effort on team tasks in an effort to reach their power goals. However, because teams are interdependent in nature, this individual effort may not translate into team success, as members with lower power values are not likely to be as motivated to attain social admiration or approval. Thus, while team members may be in a position to assume complementary roles, they may be differentially motivated to perform well on team tasks, and team performance may suffer.

Therefore, it is expected that whether power values diversity is positively or negatively related to team performance will depend on the compositional moderator of team-mean achievement values. *Achievement values* are focused on the motivational goal of personal accomplishment and emphasize the demonstration of competence and successful performance in terms of prevailing social or cultural standards. Capable performance that produces resources is vital for individuals to survive and for teams and organizations to realize goals (Schwartz, 2012). As people attribute greater importance to achievement values, they should be more motivated to demonstrate competence in all aspects of life, including the workplace. Like power values, the central purpose of achievement values is to obtain social admiration or approval (Schwartz, 1992). According to Schwartz (1997), those who endorse achievement values desire to obtain social esteem and acceptance. However, unlike power values, which are focused on obtaining social esteem through status or control over others, achievement values are focused on obtaining social esteem through personal success and the demonstration of ability (Schwartz, 1992).

In teams with high power values diversity and high mean achievement values, team members should, in general, be more motivated to display competence, as well as adapt to

emergent team roles. Because working in teams may increase interdependence among workers (Morgeson, Reider, & Campion, 2005), and team tasks often require a contribution from each individual team member, individual contributions may not be praised or even acknowledged if the team, as a whole, does not perform well. In teams with high mean achievement values, members should, in general, be more motivated to achieve team success, as such accomplishments may be related to attaining social admiration or approval. Therefore, team members with high achievement values should not only strive to display individual capability, but they should also strive to exhibit team competence, as perceptions of their individual capability may be influenced by the performance of their team. Because team success may be dependent on the individual contributions of all team members, members will benefit from not only considering their own work, but also considering how they might facilitate the work of others within the team. Furthermore, the goal of demonstrating capability and accomplishment may be reinforced by socialization with team members who also attribute high levels of importance to achievement values (Freidson, 2001; Van Maanen & Barley, 1984). In addition, these teams may benefit from increased team productivity because members are likely to be more motivated to socially display appropriate communication, cooperation, and coordination.

In contrast, when teams with high power values diversity have low mean achievement values, they may not be able to benefit from the desire of teammates to assume complementary roles. In congruence with Schwartz's model of values (1992), it is less likely that team members with low achievement values will be as motivated to exhibit their task-related abilities. Specifically, these members do not attribute great importance to the goal of displaying competence. Thus, they may be less likely to perform the behaviors necessary to ensure team success. Considering these points, the following was predicted:

Hypothesis 2: Team mean achievement values moderate the relationship between power values diversity and team performance: As power values diversity increases in groups that have higher achievement values, increased levels of team performance are expected.

Schwartz (1992) suggests that members high in achievement values will be motivated to demonstrate competence and ability, and these values will be prioritized in comparison to other values. In contrast, team members lower in achievement values will not be as motivated to perform well on team tasks, as such goals are not considered a priority in comparison to other motivations. Therefore, I predicted the following:

Hypothesis 3: As team mean achievement values increase, team performance increases.

1.6 Replicative and Mediation Hypotheses

Although the main purpose of this study was to examine moderators of the relationships between power values diversity and team processes and outcomes, I also expected main effects between participative safety climate and relationship conflict, as well as between relationship conflict and team performance, consistent with previous research.

Participative Safety Climate and Relationship Conflict. Extant literature has demonstrated a relationship between intragroup trust and relationship conflict (e.g., Simons & Peterson, 2000). Intragroup trust, a component of participative safety, has typically been associated with favorable characteristics such as benevolence and honesty (Mayer et al., 1995). Furthermore, intragroup trust may play a role in the process of interpreting ambiguous behavior from team members (Mishra, 1996). If ambiguous behaviors are witnessed within a team, a low participative safety climate may influence members to perceive such behaviors negatively and report higher relationship conflict. In teams characterized by a high participative safety climate,

ambiguous member behaviors may be less likely to be perceived as threatening or discouraging, as there is a general feeling that teammates are respectful and supportive (West, 1990).

Additionally, psychological safety has been found to be negatively associated with relationship conflict (Lau & Murnighan, 2005). Therefore, the following was predicted:

Hypothesis 4: Team participative safety climate will be negatively related to relationship conflict.

Relationship Conflict and Team Performance. Relationship conflict may negatively affect the information processing ability of team members, because of managing interpersonal problems rather than devoting time and attention to team tasks (Evan, 1965; Jehn & Mannix, 2001; Simons & Peterson, 2000). Past research suggests that relationship conflict may limit the cognitive functioning of team members by increasing stress and anxiety (Jehn & Mannix, 2001; Simons & Peterson, 2000; Staw, Sandelands, & Dutton, 1981). Taken together, relationship conflict may negatively impact teams by limiting the amount of cognitive resources that team members can devote to a particular task. Supportive of this rationale, two meta-analyses found that relationship conflict in teams was associated with lower team performance (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; de Wit, Greer, & Jehn, 2012). Thus, the following was predicted:

Hypothesis 5: Relationship conflict will be negatively related to team performance.

Hypothesis 6: The interaction of power values diversity and participative safety climate will have an indirect effect on team performance via relationship conflict.

2. Method

2.1 Sample

This study utilized 80 self-selected teams of undergraduate students (N=395) from two metropolitan universities in the northeast United States; 70.4% of team members were between 20 and 25 years of age. Moreover, 44.6% of the sample was male and 38.7% was female. The sample was 4.2% Black, 0.2% American Indian/Alaskan Native, 37.4% Asian/Pacific Islander, 4.2% Hispanic, and 34.7% White. Teams ranged from three to seven members in size, with an average of 5.08 members per team. Participants were enrolled in one of ten introductory management classes, with each class having its own instructor. Two teams were completely excluded from the final analysis because of missing outcome data. In addition, the instructor of one classroom did not report project grades, so teams in this classroom were excluded from hypothesis tests involving team performance. However, there were no significant differences between excluded and included teams on other variables in the study, and no participants withdrew from the study. No data were removed in terms of outliers; 17% of participants did not report their age, 16.7% did not report their biological sex, and 19% did not report their race or ethnicity.

2.2 Team Task

Team members were required to work on an interdependent project for one semester. Projects were initiated at the beginning of the semester, and they were submitted at the end of the semester in the form of a written report, which comprised 20% of members' grades. Teams were responsible for: a) identifying a current problematic event in an organization b) generating ideas to remedy the problem c) designing a detailed plan to be implemented and d) using existing

research to describe how and why the plan would be successful. All teams were encouraged to consult with the instructor on their projects and seek feedback prior to writing the report.

2.3 Data Collection Procedure

At the beginning of the semester, team members completed a survey that measured their own perception of power values and achievement values. A second survey measuring participative safety climate and relationship conflict was administered during the last week of the semester. Teams submitted their projects on the last day of classes, and these projects were evaluated by the course instructor, who assigned each team a numerical performance grade. For all data collection procedures, participants were assured that their responses would remain confidential, and that data would only be reported in aggregate form. During the course of the study, instructors were not aware of the power values composition of teams.

2.4 Measures

Power values (alpha = .80) were assessed via four items adapted from the power subscale of the Schwartz Value Survey (SVS; Schwartz, 1992, 2005a), including “The right to lead others in the group.” Team members rated the importance of each item “as a guiding principle in MY work,” and item responses ranged from -1 (opposed to my values) to 7 (of supreme importance). The reliability of this measure compares favorably to past research utilizing the SVS (Schwartz, 2005b).

Achievement values (alpha = .74) were assessed with four items adapted from the achievement subscale of the SVS (Schwartz, 1992, 2005a), including “Competence, effectiveness, and efficiency as a student.” Team members rated the importance of each item “as a guiding principle in MY work,” and item responses ranged from -1 (opposed to my values) to 7

(of supreme importance). The reliability of this subscale also compares favorably to past work on achievement values (Schwartz, 2005b).

Participative safety climate (alpha = .76) was assessed with five items adapted from Anderson and West (1998), including “The group made an effort to understand my point of view.” Item responses were coded from 1, “strongly disagree,” to 7, “strongly agree.”

Relationship conflict (alpha = .91) was measured using four items adapted from the Intragroup Conflict Scale developed by Jehn (1995), including “There was tension among team members.” Items were rated on a seven-point Likert scale from 1, “not at all,” to 7, “a lot.”

Team performance was assessed by the course instructor, who graded teams’ final project reports on a scale from 0 to 25, with higher scores representing higher levels of team performance.

Control variables. Team size and the mean of power values were examined as control variables. Team size was examined as a control variable because larger teams may be more heterogeneous (e.g., Jackson et al., 1991), and team size has been found to be related to team outcomes (e.g., Steiner, 1972). Additionally, as recommended by diversity scholars (Bedeian & Mossholder, 2000; Harrison & Klein, 2007), the mean of power values was used as a control variable.

3. Results

3.1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Confirmatory factor analysis was utilized via MPLUS 7 to assess the theorized four-factor structure of the measurement model in the current study. Fit indices as well as chi-square difference tests were used to determine if the proposed measurement model fit the data appropriately. Power values, achievement values, participative safety, and relationship conflict were expected to load on separate factors; therefore, the four-factor model was expected to provide the best fit to the data as compared to alternative models. Results indicated that the hypothesized four-factor measurement model fit the data reasonably well, χ^2 ($N = 395$; $df = 113$) = 233.21, RMSEA = .05, SRMR = .05, CFI = .95, TLI = .94. The hypothesized model was compared to an alternative one-factor model in which all self-report measures were combined to assess common method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). The one factor model did not fit the data well (χ^2 ($N = 395$; $df = 119$) = 1724.09, RMSEA = .19, SRMR = .18, CFI = .33, TLI = .23), and had significantly worse fit than the hypothesized model ($\Delta\chi^2$ ($N = 395$; $\Delta df = 6$) = 1490.88, $p < .001$).

To further assess common method bias, an alternative two-factor model was tested. In this model, power and achievement values were combined into one factor, as both were measured at the same point in time during the first data collection and have been combined in previous research (e.g., Pulfrey & Butera, 2013). Participative safety and relationship conflict were combined into a second factor, as these constructs were measured at the same time during the second wave of data collection. The two-factor model did not fit the data well (χ^2 ($N = 395$; $df = 118$) = 708.27, RMSEA = .11, SRMR = .10, CFI = .75, TLI = .72), and had significantly worse fit than the hypothesized model ($\Delta\chi^2$ ($N = 395$; $\Delta df = 5$) = 475.06, $p < .001$). Taken together, results support the discriminant validity of measures used in the current study.

3.2 Data Aggregation

Power values diversity was assessed using a dispersion model (Chan, 1998). Individual scores were aggregated to the team level via standard deviation (Harrison & Klein, 2007). Mean achievement values were assessed using an additive composition model (Chan, 1998) in which individual scores were aggregated to the team level via means.

Team participative safety climate and team relationship conflict measures were obtained by aggregating individual-level responses to the team-level. Because both are shared group properties (Kozlowski & Klein, 2000), a reference shift consensus model (Chan, 1998) was utilized. Before scores could justifiably be aggregated, it was necessary to demonstrate within-group agreement or consensus. Therefore, ICC(1) was used to assess the level of consensus and consistency expected if a rater was randomly selected from the population and his or her scores were compared to the mean score obtained from a sample of raters (Bliese, 2000; James, 1982; LeBreton & Senter, 2008). The ICC(1) value for team participative safety climate was .43, and the ICC(1) value for relationship conflict was .35. ICC(2) was used to assess the reliability or stability of team-level means. The ICC(2) value for team participative safety climate was .79, and the ICC(2) value for relationship conflict was .73.

Additionally, $r_{wg(j)}$ coefficients were calculated for team participative safety climate and relationship conflict ratings. A uniform null distribution was theorized to be most appropriate, as there was no reason to assume a systematic response bias. For instance, a leniency bias was thought to be unlikely because all participants were assured that their responses would remain confidential and would only be used for research purposes. The median $r_{wg(j)}$ coefficient, using a uniform null distribution, was .87 for team participative safety climate and .76 for relationship

conflict. Taken together, the ICC and $r_{wg(j)}$ values demonstrated appropriate within-team agreement, justifying aggregation to the team level.

3.3 Nested data

Because teams were nested within classrooms, and classrooms were nested within universities, ICC(1) values were calculated to determine the amount of variance in relationship conflict and team performance attributable to classroom and university membership. ICC(1) values, at the classroom level, were .00 for relationship conflict and .04 for team performance. ICC(1) values, at the university level, were .00 for relationship conflict and .00 for team performance. Taken together, these values suggest that relationship conflict scores were independent of classroom and university membership. However, although performance scores were found to be independent of university membership, an effect was observed for classroom membership. Thus, multilevel modeling (MLM) was used, and data were grand-mean centered.¹ This allowed for the estimation of Level 1 (team-level) effects while accounting for Level 2 (classroom-level) effects.

All hypotheses were assessed with MPLUS 7 Multilevel Add-On using maximum likelihood estimation. Because there was no reason to assume that relationships would significantly differ based on classroom membership, intercepts were allowed to vary across classrooms, but slopes were fixed for the testing of all hypothesized Level 1 (team-level) relationships.

¹Results were similar for grand-mean centering and group-mean centering

3.4 Correlations

Table 1 summarizes descriptive statistics and correlations for the present study's variables. Higher team-mean power values were positively related to team size ($r = .31, p < .01$), but negatively related to power values diversity ($r = -.40, p < .01$) and relationship conflict ($r = -.23, p < .05$). Relationship conflict was also negatively related to participative safety ($r = -.45, p < .01$).

3.5 Hypotheses Testing

Hypothesis 1 predicted that participative safety climate would moderate the relationship between power values diversity and relationship conflict, such that power values diversity would be less positively related to relationship conflict when participative safety climate was higher. There was a marginally significant interaction between power values diversity and participative safety climate that predicted relationship conflict ($\gamma = -1.07, p = .054$). Nonetheless, the interaction was plotted at one standard deviation above and below the means to interpret the form of the interaction (see Figure 3). As expected, participative safety was more salient under high power values diversity as compared to low power values diversity. Simple slope analyses were in the expected negative direction for high levels of participative safety climate, but were only marginally significant (+1 SD; simple slope = $-.90, p = .10$). As predicted, simple slope analyses were in the positive direction at low levels of participative safety climate, but were not significant (-1SD; simple slope = $.60, p = ns$). Although the form of Figure 3 was consistent with Hypothesis 1, the interaction term did not meet conventional significance levels.

Hypothesis 2 stated that team mean achievement values would moderate the relationship between power values diversity and team performance, such that power values diversity would

become more positively related to team performance as the mean level of achievement values increased. As shown in Table 3, a statistically significant interaction was found between power values diversity and team mean achievement values as a predictor of team performance ($\gamma = 4.78$, $p < .05$). To determine its form, the interaction was graphed at one standard deviation above and below the means (see Figure 4). Consistent with Hypothesis 2, mean achievement values were more salient under high (than low) power values diversity. A simple slope analysis showed that when there were high levels of team mean achievement values, the relationship between power values diversity and team performance was positive and marginally significant (+1 SD; simple slope = 3.12, $p = .08$). At low levels of team mean achievement values, a simple slope analysis was negative but did not differ significantly from zero (-1 SD; simple slope = -1.565, $p = ns$).

According to Hypothesis 3, team mean achievement values would be positively related to team performance. The fixed slope for team mean achievement values on team performance was not statistically significant ($\gamma = 1.11$, ns). Thus, Hypothesis 3 was not supported.

Hypothesis 4 predicted that participative safety climate would be negatively related to relationship conflict. As shown in Table 2, the fixed slope for participative safety climate on team performance was negative and statistically significant ($\gamma = -.95$, $p < .001$). Therefore, Hypothesis 4 was supported.

According to Hypothesis 5, relationship conflict would be negatively related to team performance. Controlling for the effects of team size, team performance was regressed on relationship conflict. The fixed slope for relationship conflict on team performance was not significant ($\gamma = .25$, ns). Thus, Hypothesis 5 was not supported.

Hypothesis 6 predicted that the indirect effect of power values diversity on team performance via relationship conflict would vary as a function of participative safety climate. In

an effort to accurately reflect the asymmetric nature of the sampling distribution, moderated mediation was tested using bootstrapping with 1000 repetitions in MPLUS (Edwards & Lambert, 2007). However, the hypothesized conditional indirect effect was not found to be statistically significant (-.41; 95% CI: [-1.43, .61]). Thus, Hypothesis 6 was not supported.

4. Discussion

This study yielded three major findings. First, team-mean achievement values moderated the relationship between power values diversity and team performance. Second, the interaction between power values diversity and participative safety climate to predict relationship climate was marginally significant, and the form of the interaction was in the direction predicted. Third, participative safety climate exerted a negative main effect on relationship conflict. These results enhance extant knowledge of team diversity and values in significant ways. Below, I discuss the study's theoretical implications, limitations, and practical implications.

4.1 *Theoretical Implications*

The results extend team diversity research in multiple ways. For example, study results increase the limited research on values diversity and draw attention to the neglected dimension of power values. Although past team value diversity research has emphasized values such as determinism (Kirkman & Shapiro, 2005) as well as protestant work ethic and traditionalism (Klein et al., 2011), power values are important because they represent motives to attain control over people and resources, and justify the hierarchical structure present in many workplaces. Further, past work demonstrated that power values diversity was positively related to intragroup conflict, but this study was limited to an examination of main effects (Woehr et al., 2013).

Extending beyond the only prior study on power values diversity (Woehr et al., 2013), the present study explored both contextual (participative safety climate) and compositional (mean achievement) moderators of the power values diversity – team outcome relationship. Consistent with the call for increased attention to be given to the role of moderators in diversity research (e.g., Mannix & Neale, 2005; van Knippenberg & Schippers, 2007), this study demonstrated that the impact of power values diversity goes well beyond main effects. Results

revealed no direct relationship between power values diversity or mean achievement values on relationship conflict or team performance. However, the relationship between power values diversity and team performance trended positively when achievement values were high. This relationship can be explained by theory on complementary fit (Humphrey et al., 2007; Kristof, 1996; Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987) in that higher power values diversity may have increased the probability that team members and subsequent roles would complement rather than conflict with one another. Additionally, as suggested by Schwartz's value theory (1992, 1994), higher achievement values may have provided team members with the motivation necessary to perform well within their complementary team roles.

Findings also showed that the interaction of power values diversity and participative safety climate on relationship conflict was marginally significant, and the form of the interaction was consistent with predictions. Participative safety climate may be important for diminishing potential negative effects of power values diversity on relationship conflict. It is possible that the sample size offered inadequate statistical power to detect the proposed moderation effect. Therefore, future studies should sample a greater number of teams.

The present study's findings also extend theory on achievement values at the team-level, as past research has focused on achievement values almost exclusively at the individual-level, and has found individual-level achievement values to be related to individual-level performance. For example, Adkins and Naumann (2002) demonstrated that achievement values were positively related to self-reported customer service and sales performance in the transportation industry. In addition, extant literature has shown achievement values to be associated with self-reported sales performance among salesman from the United States and Japan (Dubinsky, Kotabe, Lim, & Wagner, 1997). However, little research has examined achievement values at the

team level (Woehr et al., 2013). Results of the present study found that team-mean achievement values, alone, did not predict team performance. Thus, moderators are key when examining its effects on team performance. Therefore, if teams are, in general, motivated to demonstrate competence and ability, they may not necessarily exhibit high performance. Potential moderators of the relationship between team achievement values and team performance may include organizational-level variables (e.g., organizational resources), or aggregated individual differences that reside at the team-level (e.g., knowledge, skills, or abilities). For example, teams that are highly motivated to perform well on a task may not display high performance if the organization does not allow them access to the resources necessary to complete the task (e.g., books, computer software). In addition, if teams are motivated but are not comprised of members high in job-related knowledge, team performance may suffer.

Relationship conflict has been found to negatively influence team performance, as evidenced by two meta-analyses analyzing this association (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; de Wit, Greer, & Jehn, 2012). However, there is a growing subset of studies that have not found this result (e.g., De Dreu & Van Vianen, 2001; Jehn, 1995; Mohammed and Angell, 2004; Pelled et al., 1999; Woehr et al., 2013). In addition to these past findings, the present study did not demonstrate a statistically significant relationship between relationship conflict and team performance. This highlights the need to examine moderators of the relationship conflict – team performance association, which may help to better elucidate when these variables are likely to display a negative relationship. Past research has found that task type may moderate the association between relationship conflict and team performance (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003). Specifically, for simple tasks, relationship conflict may greatly influence team performance in comparison to more complex tasks, which necessitate more cognitive resources and a longer time

period to perform. However, it is unlikely that task type fully explains the conditions under which relationship conflict negatively impacts team performance, because projects in the present study were relatively complex. Therefore, other potential moderators of this relationship should be investigated, such as workload sharing, which refers to the extent to which team members do a fair share of the team's work (Erez et al., 2002). The relationship conflict – team performance association may be attenuated when workload sharing is higher. Although relationship conflict may result in dissatisfaction, tension, and animosity, it may not affect team performance as much when members are committed to doing a fair share of the work. When relationship conflict is high, the cognitive resources that are spent on managing interpersonal friction may be recaptured for task accomplishment as long as team workload sharing is also high. In contrast, when members do not complete their share of responsibilities, already high relationship conflict is likely to translate into lower performance, as frustrated teammates have to pick up the slack for others as well as do their own work to meet project deadlines.

4.2 Limitations and Future Research

The contributions of this study should be qualified, and several limitations present fruitful directions for future research. Although my theoretical model suggests a causal effect of participative safety climate on relationship conflict, both constructs were measured with the same survey. Therefore, causality cannot be established and common method variance may explain the significant relationship (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Future studies should vary the measurement order of these constructs to rule out the possibility of reverse causality as well as consider employing longitudinal methodology to assess change in relationships over time.

Unfortunately, I was unable to control for surface level diversity characteristics due to a substantial amount of missing demographic data. Accounting for these demographic factors

would allow for teasing out variance attributable to characteristics such as age, sex, ethnicity, and race. However, past research found that surface level diversity did not predict relationship conflict (e.g., Mohammed & Angell, 2004) or team performance (e.g., Harrison et al., 2002). Indeed, a recent meta-analysis found little support for the relationship between demographics (e.g., age, sex, race) and team performance (Bell, Villado, Lukasik, Belau, & Briggs, 2011). Thus, even if the variance in outcomes attributable to surface-level diversity was accounted for, findings may have been similar.

The sample used may limit the generalizability of findings. I investigated team members performing a task over the course of several weeks for which they received a grade. Teams in this study would be most similar to task forces with ad hoc membership, limited lifetimes, and narrowly defined goals. Nevertheless, the use of groups in an academic setting that disband after a few months limits generalizability for longer-term teams. However, it should be noted that these teams were “field teams” in the sense that they would have existed in spite of the fact that data was collected on them. Future studies should target self-managed teams in more traditional organizational contexts. In addition, team sample size was limited, but comparable to other work in this area of research (e.g., Woehr et al., 2013).

Although the current study helped to broaden the range of values previously considered to examine power values diversity, future research should continue to expand value dimensions in team diversity research. For example, the incongruence of power distance values between leaders and teams has shown promise in past research. Cole, Zhang, and Carter (2013) found that differences between leaders’ and teams’ power distance values had a negative influence on teams’ justice climate and team effectiveness. These findings, along with the results of the present study, suggest that not only should power values diversity be further examined, but

power distance values diversity may warrant future investigation. In addition, more work is needed to investigate the conditions under which the negative effects of values diversity are minimized and the positive effects are maximized. Extant literature has demonstrated that diversity is more likely to have positive effects when team members believe in the value of diversity (De Meuse & Hostager, 2001; van Knippenberg & Haslam, 2003). Homan and colleagues (2007) found that diverse teams had greater performance when members believed in the value of diversity as compared to when they did not. Thus, the value of diversity as well as climates that support diversity may be fruitful directions for subsequent study.

4.3 Practical Implications and Conclusion

Study results suggest that organizations may benefit from encouraging teams to form a high participative safety climate, which may mitigate the undesirable effects of relationship conflict. Leadership styles as well as characteristics of leaders have been found to be potential antecedents to fostering a supportive team climate. For example, leader inclusiveness (Nembhard & Edmondson, 2006), leader accessibility, and leader acknowledgement of fallibility (Edmondson, 2003) have been found to be associated with the establishment of team psychological safety. Given these findings, it may be beneficial to train leaders to demonstrate these behaviors, or consider appointing leaders who exhibit them. Moreover, managers may contemplate the possibility of strategically configuring self-managed teams to ensure that members have high achievement values, as this may increase the probability that power values diversity will have desirable effects on team performance. Additionally, managers may consider team member power values to better determine which team members are more likely to assume leadership as well as subordinate roles within self-managed teams, and strategically configure such teams accordingly.

In conclusion, results support the utility of considering the role of moderators to comprehend when team power values diversity is likely to predict team outcomes. Findings highlight the potential role of participative safety climate in attenuating the negative effect of power values diversity on relationship conflict as well as the role of mean achievement values in heightening the positive effect of power values diversity on team performance.

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Appendix

Table 1

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations Between Team-Level Variables

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Team Size	4.97	.78						
2. Power Values	4.50	.67	.31**					
3. Power Values Diversity	1.10	.36	-.11	-.40**				
4. Achievement Values	5.23	.49	-.01	-.14	.12			
5. Participative Safety	5.38	.70	.06	.06	.07	.05		
6. Relationship Conflict	3.35	1.24	-.07	-.23*	-.01	.08	-.45**	
7. Team Performance	21.40	2.99	-.02	-.25	.05	.14	-.01	.09

Note. N=78; N = 56 for Team Performance correlations.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed).

Table 2

Multilevel Modeling Analyses Testing the Moderating effect of Participative Safety on the Relationship between Power Values Diversity and Relationship Conflict.

Variable	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Team Size	.00 (.18)	.01 (.17)	-.04(.17)
Power Values Mean	-.42 (.22)	-.35 (.21)	-.33 (.21)
Power Values SD		-.12 (.37)	-.15 (.36)
Participative Safety		-.90* (.19)	-.85*(.19)
Power Values SD x Part. Safety			-1.07(.56)
Quasi R ²	.05	.30	.33

Note. N = 78 for Relationship Conflict; Unstandardized estimates are reported, with standard errors in parentheses. SD = standard deviation.

* $p < .05$ (two-tailed).

Table 3

Multilevel Modeling Analyses Testing the Moderating effect of Mean Achievement Values on the Relationship between Power Values Diversity and Team Performance

Variable	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Team Size	.09 (.55)	.28 (.54)	.31 (.52)
Mean Power Values	-1.06 (.71)	-.97 (.75)	-.77 (.74)
Power Values SD		-.31 (1.14)	.78 (1.19)
Mean Achievement Values		.76 (.80)	1.00 (.78)
Power Values SD x Mean Achievement			4.78* (1.87)
Quasi R ²	.06	.07	.18

Note. N = 56. Unstandardized estimates are reported, with standard errors in parentheses. SD = standard deviation.

* $p < .05$ (two-tailed)

Figure 1: Theoretical model investigated in the current study.

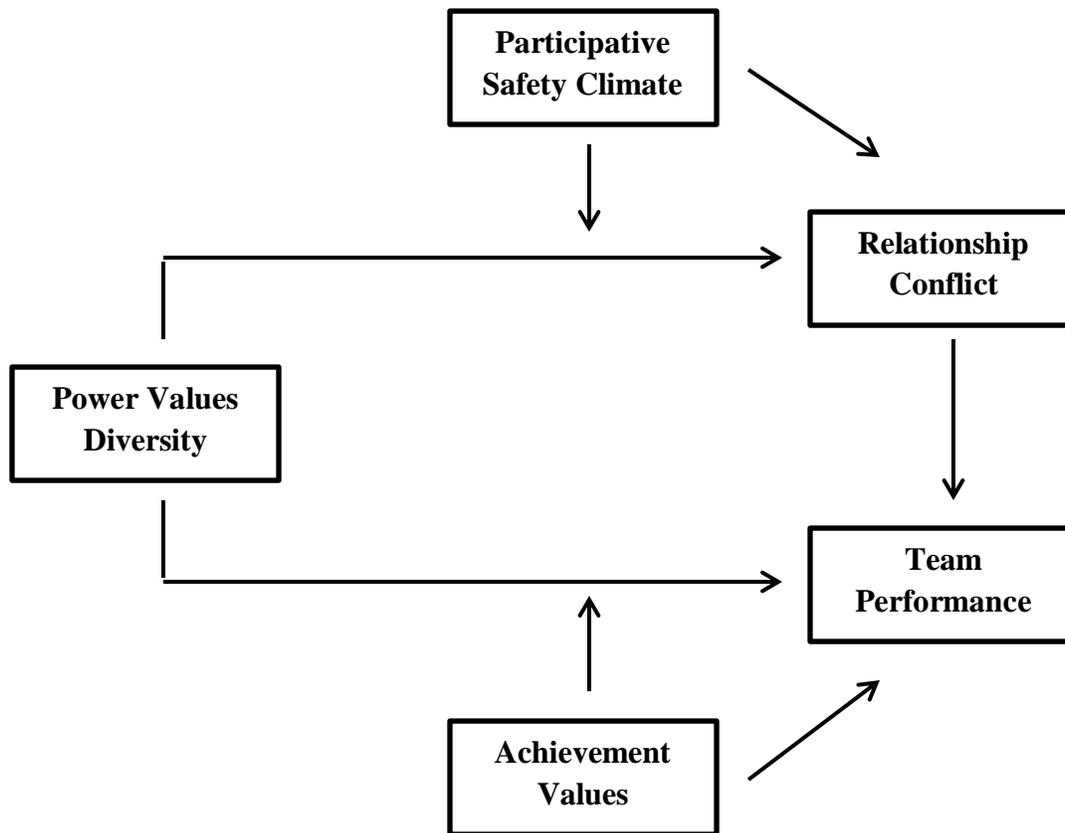


Figure 2: Model of relations among the ten universal value types proposed by Schwartz (1992, 2012)

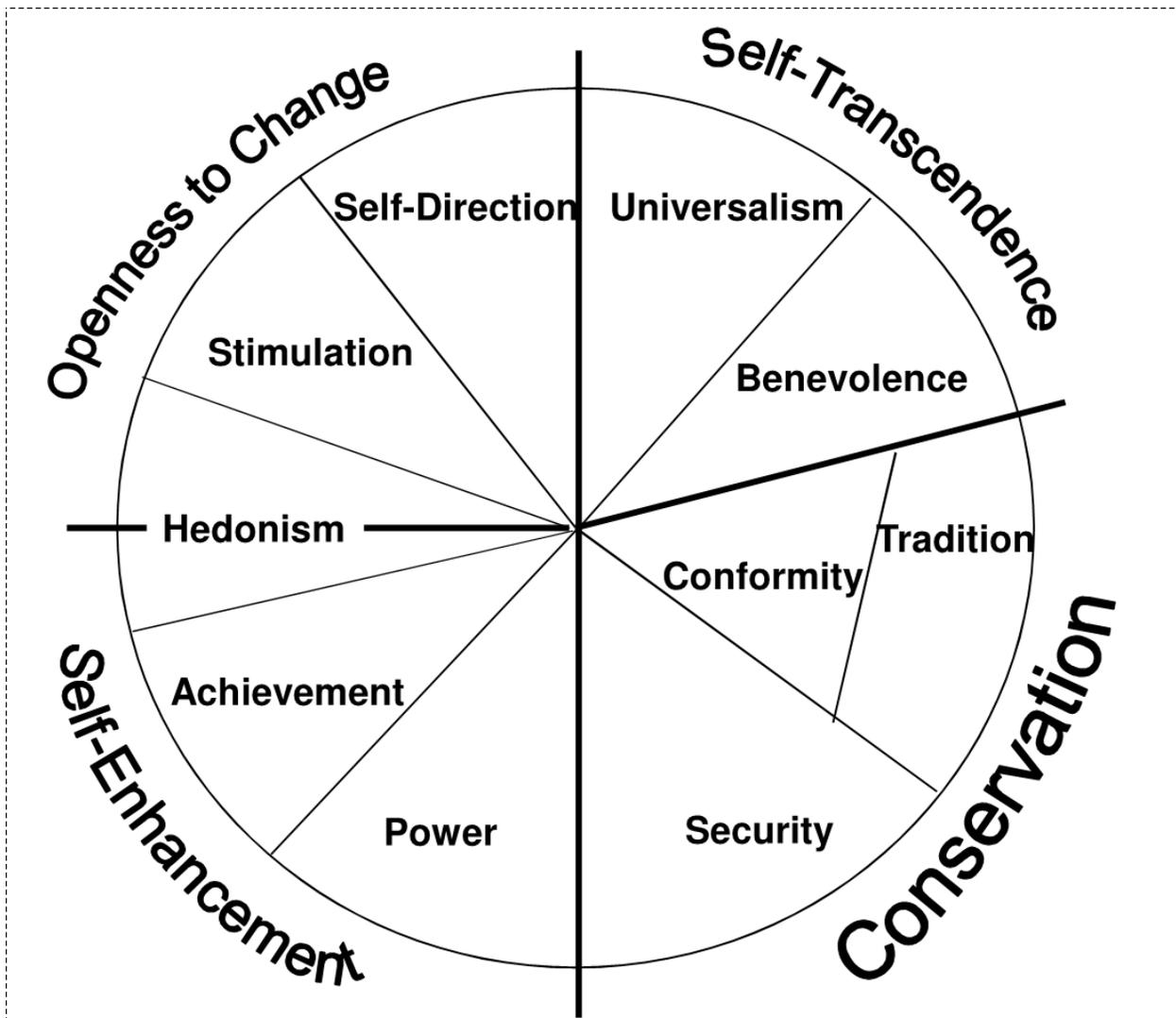
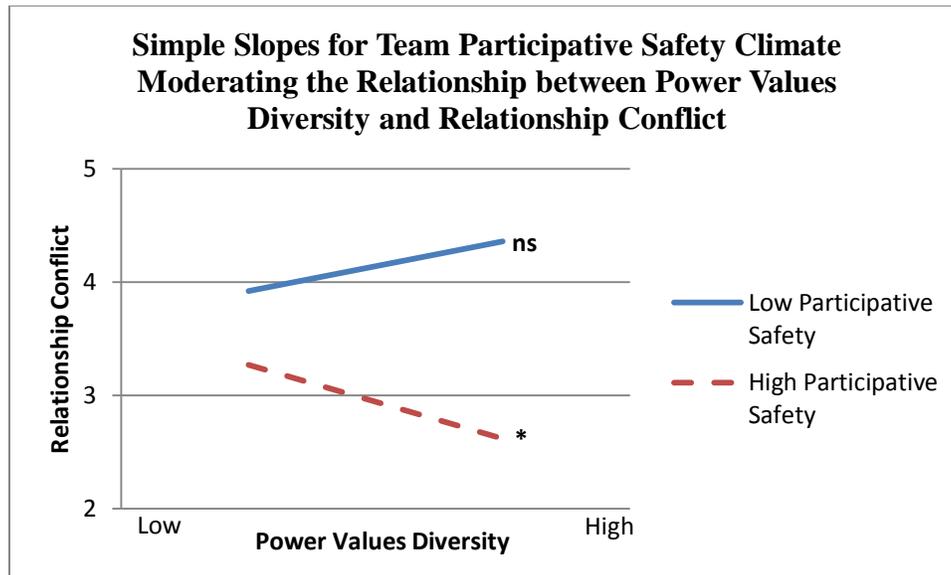
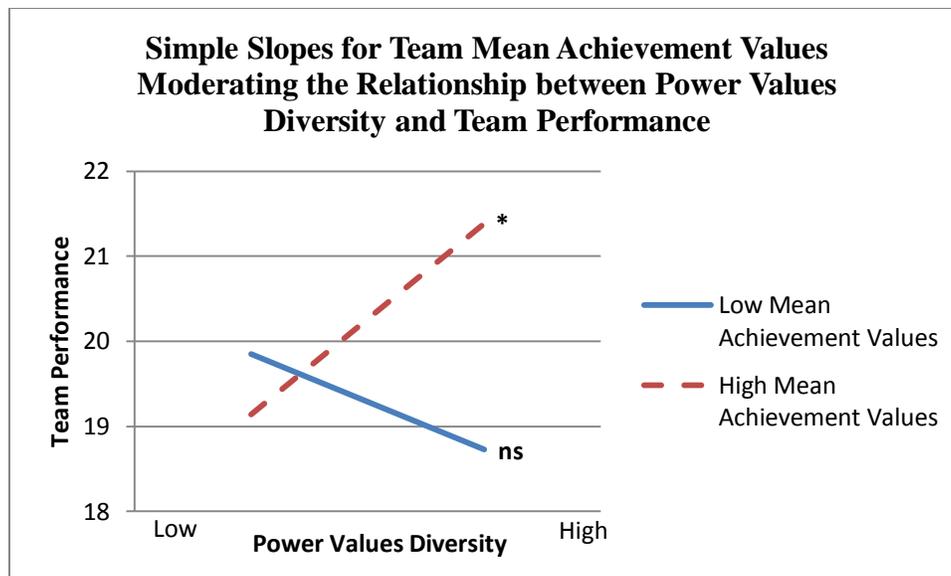


Figure 3:



Note. $*p = .10$ (two-tailed); ns = not statistically significant

Figure 4:



Note. $*p = .08$ (two-tailed); ns = not statistically significant

Measures

Power Values (adapted from Schwartz, 1992)

1. Protecting my name and reputation as a member of this group
2. The right to lead others in the group
3. Getting respect and approval from other members
4. The ability to influence people and events

Achievement Values (adapted from Schwartz, 1992)

1. Competence, effectiveness, and efficiency as a student
2. High aspirations
3. Accomplishment
4. My grades

Participative Safety (adapted from Anderson & West, 1998)

1. In my group, members were willing to discuss different opinions
2. The group made an effort to understand my point of view
3. I feel that my group members did not respect my opinions
4. Silent members were encouraged to speak out
5. Every member got an opportunity to participate

Relationship Conflict (adapted from Jehn, 1995)

1. There was a lot of friction among members in the team
2. There were personality conflicts in the team
3. There was tension among team members
4. There was emotional conflict among team members