



Cross-Level Effects of Deep-Level Diversity on Person-Group Fit

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Abstract

Organizational restructuring causes changes in the workforce profile. Subsequently, these changes in work compositions lead people to reappraise their compatibility with their group. We adopted both supplementary and complementary approaches to investigate how group heterogeneity after organizational restructuring influence employee perception of person-group fit. Our study participants were organizations having undergone restructuring within the previous 6 months. The results showed that value diversity is negatively related to person-group fit, whereas personality diversity is positively related to person-group fit. The findings also show that perceived complementarity has a moderating effect on the relationship between value diversity and P-G fit.

Keywords: Diversity, heterogeneity, person-group fit, complementarity, cross-level

1. Introduction

A rapidly changing external environment in recent decades has produced organizational mergers, organizational restructuring, and downsizing. In the wake of the financial tsunami of 2008, numerous organizations have initiated layoffs, structure transformation, pay cuts, and unpaid leave in response to the global economic crisis. The first two types of organizational changes results in changing the workgroup profile and team composition within the organization. Subsequently, these changes in work group composition lead people to reappraise their suitability for their group.

Understandings of the influence that changes in work environments have on individual's suitability for their group are insufficient. P-G fit refers as the compatibility between the person and the work group (Kristof-Brown, 1996). In this study, person-group fit (P-G fit) was investigated for two reasons. First, organizational restructuring influences whether employees are suited to their new departments workforce. P-G fit is more suitable for investigating colleague relationships than are other types of fits (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). Secondly, in this study, the composition of department personnel was regarded as an independent variable; therefore, personal perceptions of the group were directly affected and therefore P-G fit was more appropriate to be applied in investigation than other types of fits (e.g. P-O fit or P-J fit) were. A small number of studies have examined the effect that the characteristics and processes

of organizational change have on both P-J fit and P-O fit of employees (Caldwell, Herold, & Fedor, 2004) or the relationships between P-O fit and consequences after organizational change (Harris & Mossholder, 1996; Meyer, Hecht, Gil, & Toplonysky, 2010). However, literature examining the influences on P-G fit caused by the diversity in work group composition resulting from organizational change is lacking. After organizational change, employees reevaluate the relationship between their work environment and themselves (Caldwell et al., 2004). Harris and Mossholder (1996) maintained that past P-E fit studies were conducted in stable situations, and did not address the fit between individual employees and organizational environments after organizational change; thus, these scholars advocated that more studies should be conducted regarding the level of fit between individual employees and work environments post-organizational restructuring.

The issue of diversity in work composition has recently attracted the attention of strategic human resource management research. Kidwell, Mossholder and Bennett (1997) stated that the social contexts of environment, organization, and group affect a person's attitude and behaviors. Lengnick-Hall et al. (2009) also indicated that although previous strategic human resource management (SHRM) research has frequently examined how human resource management affects organizational performance, it has rarely investigated its influence on individuals. A better understanding of how diversity in work composition affects employee's behavior can help us to clarify this complex phenomenon. This cross-level study investigates how group heterogeneity after organizational restructuring leads to influence the perception of group fit at the individual levels. Thus, integrating different organizational departments may lead people to reappraise their perception of fit for work units. We believe that organizational restructuring provides a good opportunity to observe the effects of heterogeneity, and to examine whether increased workforce diversity within the affected groups results in a bad fit.

The question of whether it is beneficial for team composition to be homogeneous or heterogeneous remains unanswered. Contextual factors also account for the relationship inconsistency between diversity and team outcomes. Previous studies have discussed various moderators, such as task complexity, task interdependence, team size (Horwitz & Horwitz, 2007), organizational culture, diversity training, and organizational demography (Joshi & Roh, 2009). Although traditional P-E fit theory assumes similarity means a "good fit," ASA theory also sees benefits in difference. Piasentin and Chapman (2006) proposed that complementarity may contribute to the perception of fit. We believe that if heterogeneity in group member traits helps to attain group goals, these diversity traits become useful resources to offset the negative effects caused by diversity and to strengthen positive ones. Therefore, we used perceived complementarity as moderators to examine how this factor clarifies the relationships between group heterogeneity and P-G fit.

2. Theoretical Background and Hypotheses

2.1 Organizational restructuring and work compositions

Organizational restructuring is one type of organizational change (Huber & Glick, 1993) Organizational restructuring occurs when management voluntarily decides to make major changes to its structure (McKinley & Scherer, 2000). This involves changes to work rules and processes, including redrawing unit boundaries, reduced organization hierarchy, teamwork adjustments, and changes in job content and reporting relationships. Organizational restructuring typically results in the reform of job duties, responsibilities (Rondeau & Wagar, 2003), and interrelationships among group members (Houmanfar, Rodrigues, & Smith, 2009).

The compositions of workforce may change following restructuring, homogeneous units may turn into heterogeneous ones and vice versa. These changes in work compositions may cause individuals reappraised the compatibility with their group. Most P-E fit researchers agree that similarity represents “good fit.” P-E fit stresses that “good” fit causes positive outcomes (Schneider, Smith, & Goldstein, 2000). However, Piasentin and Chapman (2006) stated that supplementary fit may be harmful to organizations because homogeneity may make it difficult for members to adapt to a rapidly changing environment. They also indicated that most subjective P-O fit studies conceptualized fit by using the supplementary model, whereas only one used the complementary model (Piasentin & Chapman, 2007). Previous research on diversity has yielded inconsistent results, partially because the attributes of the diversity discussed (Bell, Villado, Lukasik, Belau, & Briggs, 2011) and the examined consequences were different (Triandis, Kurowski, & Gelfand, 1994), leading to varying results.

Previous studies (Kristof-Brown, Barrick, Stevens, 2005; Piasentin & Chapman, 2006) suggest using the supplementary model to assess values and personality, whereas the complementary model should examine job related knowledge, skills, and abilities. We investigate both supplementary and complementary aspects of fit, depending on the nature of attributes.

2.2 Multiple types of diversity

Numerous studies view the concepts of diversity, heterogeneity, and dissimilarity as synonymous (Harrison & Klein, 2007), with diversity referring to the difference among group members regarding a common attribute (Harrison & Klein, 2007; Horwitz & Horwitz, 2007; Joshi & Roh, 2009). Most researchers agree that diversity is an aggregate unit-level construct (Harrison & Klein, 2007; Joshi & Roh, 2009) that can be divided into various attributes and measurements. However, different opinions exist concerning the different types of diversity. Certain researchers have divided the construct into relations-related diversity and task-related diversity (Harrison & Klein, 2007; Horwitz & Horwitz, 2007). Relations-related diversity is related to social categorization and refers to differences in visible attributes such as sex, gender, age, and ethnicity, whereas task-related diversity refers to differences in attributes such as education, function, experience, and skill (Joshi & Roh, 2009). Harrison, Price, Gavin, and Florey (2002) labeled relations-related diversity as surface level, and described dissimilarities of personality, values, attitudes, and beliefs as deep-level diversity.

Harrison and Klein (2007) proposed three diversity typologies: separation, variety, and disparity. They indicated that the same diverse attribute can adopt various conceptualizations and related operationalizations, as long as such adoptions correspond to theory. For example, if functional background is a categorical variable, functional background diversity should be conceptualized as variety. Information processing theory was employed as a basis and the Blau index or entropy index was applied in calculation. In adopting the perspective of information processing, a positive outcome is generated because more task-related information can be obtained from diverse attributes. Continuous variables such as personality traits and values are characterized by separation; the application of the theories of similarity attraction, social identity, attraction, selection, and attrition (ASA), and self-categorization was appropriate for such variables. In addition, the Euclidean distance or standard deviation was appropriate for calculations. Similarity attraction theory presumes that diverse attributes generate self-categorization and distance among groups, resulting in negative outcomes. Diversity as disparity is related to the unequal distribution of resources (e.g., salary) and was calculated using the Gini coefficient or coefficient of variation. Previous studies differed primarily because they relied on concepts, measurements, and theories of diversity that were inconsistent (Harrison & Klein, 2007;

Bell et al., 2011). Thus, this study adopted the typology proposed by Harrison and Klein (2007), employed the concept of separation in investigating value and personality trait diversity, and used the concept of variety in examining task-related diversity.

2.3 Diversity and P-G fit

An interest in the definitions, types, and consequences of P-E fit has grown over the past few decades. This discussion has primarily involved applying multiple conceptualizations, multiple operationalizations, and various measurements. Five distinctive types of P-E fit include person-organization fit (P-O fit), person-job fit (P-J fit), person-group fit (P-G fit), person-supervisor fit (P-P fit), and person-vocation fit (P-V fit). Because we focus on the group as participants, we examine P-G fit to observe how, following restructuring, heterogeneity in the group causes the perception for compatibility between the person and the work group at individual levels.

Scant research has been conducted on the relationships between actual diversity and perceived P-E fit. Piasentin and Chapman (2007) considered perceived similarity and P-O fit as distinct concepts and found a positive correlation between perceived similarity in personal characteristics (values, knowledge, skills, and personalities) and subjective P-O fit.

Certain previous studies regarding the personality trait composition of group members have focused on the diversity of specific personality traits, whereas others have emphasized diversity across all of the Big Five personality traits. Studies that have emphasized diversity across all of the Big Five personality traits have claimed that rather than expressing a single trait, behaviors of group members are influenced by various personality traits (Moynihan & Peterson, 2004). This study agreed that personal behaviors resulted from the influence of various personality traits. Consequently, this study investigated overall personality trait heterogeneity rather than the single trait differences.

According to the aspect of Harrison and Klein (2007), personality is consistent with the idea of diversity as separation. Personality conceptualized as separation draws on similarity attraction, social categorization, and ASA theories. Theories of similarity-attraction, social identity and self-categorization suggest that it is easier for individuals to feel positive about, and behave positively towards, other group members, if they perceive themselves as being similar to the group (Liao, Chuang, & Joshi, 2008). Similar personality traits can cause members of an organization to associate and interact with each other harmoniously (Bowers, Pharmed, & Salas, 2000). The personality trait differences among group members elicit a social categorization process in which people generate stereotypes of members with different personality traits. People categorize members with whom they share personality traits as an ingroup and members with different personality traits as an outgroup (van Knippenberg & Schippers, 2007). Heterogeneity in personality hinders interactions and communication between group members, brings negative consequences, such as less cooperation, reduced cohesiveness and work load sharing, lower satisfaction, and poor performance (Guillaume, Brodbeck, & Riketta, 2012, Ployhart, Weekley, & Baughman, 2006). Thus, the process of social categorization and similarity attraction results in low levels of integration in teams with personality trait heterogeneity (Harrison et al., 2002) and causes difficulty for people to integrate into the group (Guillaume et al., 2012).

Hypothesis 1: Personality-based diversity is negatively related to P-G fit.

We also conceptualized value diversity as separation followed Harrison and Klein's suggestion (2007). An individual's values are central to self-identity, and this guides attitudes and behavior (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Piasentin & Chapman, 2006). Value diversity among group

members signifies that individual cognition of group tasks, missions, and goals differs. In most situations, these differences cause task conflicts because members possess varying views regarding the content of a task. In addition, differences in values cause relationship conflicts because members have diverse views on work assignments and resource distribution (Jehn, Northcraft, & Neale, 1999), which also reduces group functionality (Jehn, Northcraft, & Neale, 1997). Diversity in values implies differences in preferences and beliefs. Nonetheless, values are relatively stable and difficult to change. People with different values may be adamant regarding personal opinions, hindering communication within a group (Glick, Miller, & Huber, 1993) and obstructing group integration (Harrison et al., 2002). Hence, a group with similar values possesses superior interpersonal relationships (Hackman, 1990), facilitates fewer relationship conflicts (Jehn, 1994), and can develop a better group climate (Jehn & Mannix, 2001). Therefore, similarity in values within an organization or group is critical for fit perception within group.

Hypothesis 2: Value-based diversity is negatively related to P-G fit.

Task- or job-related diversity, which represents the differences in functional expertise, education, or experience among members of a group (Horwitz & Horwitz, 2007; Joshi & Roh, 2009). Task-related diversity reflects the heterogeneity in the traits of tenure, educational background, and functional background among group members (Joshi & Roh, 2009; van Dijk, Van Engen, & van Knippenberg, 2012). Tenure diversity represents the difference in times into the organization among team members (Keck, 1997); Functional diversity refers to different functional specialty within which the team members spent the majority in their career (Bunderson & Sutcliffe, 2002). Educational background diversity refers to the dissimilarity in educational discipline among team members (Bell et al., 2011).

We conceptualized task-related diversity as variety consistent with the suggestion of Harrison and Klein (2007). Studies on task-related diversity as variety typically adopted information or decision-making perspectives, indicating that diversity within a group in terms of experience, education, or functional expertise are viewed as a team's cognitive resource base which can stimulate the exchange of diverse information, perspectives, and ideas, and can be used for information integration, thereby facilitating organizational or group tasks (van Knippenberg & Schippers, 2007; Jen, 2014). Studies have observed that various perspectives and viewpoints generated by differences in group members' knowledge background and experiences cause communication difficulties and result in conflicts (Pelled, 1996; Bunderson & Sutcliffe, 2002). However, Jehn et al. (1999) noted that group functional diversity produced task conflicts but did not produce relationship conflicts. Task conflicts did not influence team relationships (de Wit, Greer, & Jehn, 2012). Different cognitions caused by varied functional backgrounds did not impede relationships between group members. Furthermore, Glick, Miller, and Huber (1993) remarked that functional diversity increased communication frequency in top management teams. Ancona and Caldwell (1992) also discovered that team diversity increased the frequency of external communication. An increasing number of interactions among team members decreased the stereotypes that resulted from different cognitions and promoted the recognition of members' different expertise (van Dijk et al., 2012). The increase of internal and external communication improved the benefits of diverse perspectives and enhanced knowledge sharing among team members and opportunities for learning and growth. Consequently, members' perception of group integration was enhanced. Therefore, we propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3: Task-related diversity is positively related to P-G fit

The complementarity of member characteristics and abilities also forms members' perceptions of fit. Piasentin and Chapman (2007) further stated that complementary fit occurs when individuals feel they are different from other employees in the organization on important criteria, yet their unique difference adds value to the organization. When members possess different but complementary traits, teams are compatible (Moynihan & Peterson, 2004).

Piasentin and Chapman (2007) indicated that perceived complementarity in personal attributes (values, personalities, skills, and knowledge) correlates positively with P-O fit. They also found that perceived similarity and complementarity to be interactive. When perceived similarity is low, perceived complementarity positively affects P-O fit. However, perceived complementarity has no effect on P-O fit when perceived similarity is high. We agree with the aspect of complementary fit by Piasentin and Chapman, that differences exist in specific attributes that add value to an organization. Although differences in personality traits and values produce distance and conflicts among team members, if members' characteristics and abilities are complementary, they can create value and contribute to group tasks, thus reducing the negative attitudes that result from differences. In addition, the use of differences within a group to attain group goals is facilitated by interactions among members (van Dijk et al., 2012). By increasing a member's value to the group, the social categorization effects of difference among group members are gradually reduced and people become integrated into groups.

Furthermore, differences in group members' knowledge background and experiences provide various perspectives and learning opportunities. If groups are lacking in certain background knowledge or experiences that certain members possess, those members can contribute more to group objectives, increasing that member's perception of fit in groups. Therefore, we believe that members possess different characteristics, which assist them in contributing to organizations, thus enhancing the positive relationship between task-related diversity and P-G fit, while reducing the negative impact of personality and value diversity on the perception of P-G fit. Therefore, we propose the following hypotheses:

- Hypothesis 4: Perceived complementarity moderates the relationship between personality diversity and P-G fit such that the negative relationship between personality diversity and P-G fit will be weaker for group members with higher perceived complementarity
- Hypothesis 5: Perceived complementarity moderates the relationship between value diversity and P-G fit such that the negative relationship between value diversity and P-G fit will be weaker for group members with higher perceived complementarity.
- Hypothesis 6: Perceived complementarity moderates the relationship between task-related diversity and P-G fit such that the positive relationships between task-related diversity and P-G fit will be stronger for group members with higher perceived complementarity.

3. Methods

3.1 Participants and procedure

Because we explore the effects of group heterogeneity, our sample includes work groups that had experienced some employees transfer to another units and newcomer influx caused by organizational restructuring. The compositions of work units changed followed organizational restructuring, then the perception of fit may reappraise accordingly. It provided a reasonable

context to explore the relationships between group heterogeneity and the perception of P-G fit. We surveyed the work-group based on the following criteria: (1) human resource managers or department managers were asked whether they have completed organizational restructure within previous 6 months. (2) we then confirmed that changes to the workforce are of the order of 10% or more in line with past similar research (Brockner, Spreitzer, Mishra, Hochwarter, Pepper, & Weinberg, 2004). (3) we also used one question to ask whether they had undergone organizational restructure within past 6 months in the beginning of questionnaire. If the response was “no” then the questionnaire was invalid. The survey was conducted for the organizations had undergone restructuring within 6 months, which is commonly used by previous research (Brockner, Tyler, & Cooper-Schneider, 1992).

We contacted human resource managers or functional managers to help distribute questionnaires to their employees in various positions in the departments. Studies have indicated that an 80% response rate for studies of work group diversity may mitigate the bias of nonresponse (Allen, Stanley, Williams, & Ross, 2007). Therefore, a response rate of 80% or above will be viewed as a valid group sample in this study. All employees in the group were informed that participation is voluntary, anonymous, and confidential. They were provided a questionnaire and a return envelope.

We obtained data for 633 employees and 75 groups in 33 companies. These groups ranged in size from 3 to 24 members, the average being 8.44 members. Most respondents were men (63.7%). Over 52% were 26-35 years of age. 53.9% of respondents were married, and 46.4% had university qualification. 26% of respondents had worked in the current organization between 2-5 years, and 20.8% had worked 5-10 years. 62.4% had worked in companies with more than 1,000 employees, and 18.8% had worked in companies with 100-500 employees. 50.5% of respondents were staffs or engineers, 14% were basic-line managers, and 17.4% were technicians.

3.2 Measures

Personality diversity. We assessed five personality dimensions using a 15-item scale from Anusic, Schimmack, Pinkus and Lockwood (2009) BFI-15. Respondents used a 7-point scale ranging from strongly disagree to 7, strongly agree, to rate how accurately each item describes them. CFA results indicated that personality measures fit our data well (GFI = 0.94, CFI = 0.94, NFI = 0.93, NNFI = 0.9, SRMR = 0.06). The Cronbach's alphas for neuroticism, agreeableness, extraversion, conscientiousness, and openness were 0.75, 0.472, 0.776, 0.643, and 0.795 respectively. Composite reliabilities were 0.752, 0.794, 0.548, 0.655, and 0.799, respectively. The AVE were 0.604, 0.569, 0.392, 0.492, and 0.666 respectively. Our results showed the degrees of internal consistence and convergent validity in this scale reached acceptable standard.

Value diversity. We assessed achievement orientation and power orientation values by adopting the scale developed by Schwartz (1992). Each of these values was measured by five and six items respectively by requesting respondents to rate their subjective importance on a 6-point scale, such as social power, ambitious (1 = unimportant to me; 5 = extremely important to me). The CFA results indicated that value measures fit our data well (GFI = 0.91, CFI = 0.95, NFI = 0.93, NNFI = 0.9, SRMR = 0.06). The Cronbach's alphas were 0.795 for ambitious subscale and 0.826 for power subscale. The composite reliabilities were 0.831 and 0.804, respectively. The AVE were 0.499 and 0.415 respectively. Our results showed the degrees of internal consistence and convergent validity in this scale reached acceptable standard. Value-based and personality-based diversity were computed by the mean Euclidean distance as suggested by Harrison and Klein (2007).

Task-related diversity. We assessed task-related diversity in terms of tenure, educational background, and functional background. We asked respondents the information on disciplinary

background, tenure and code it into categories. We assessed data on functional background diversity by inquiring about the functional areas within which the respondents have spent majority in their work histories as suggested by Bunderson and Sutcliffe (2002). We used the Blau index to reflect diversity in tenure, educational background, and functional background.

Perceived complementarity. We measured perceived complementarity using an 8-item scale developed by Piasentin and Chapman (2007). A sample item is “I feel that I am important to this company because I have such different skills and abilities than my co-workers”. The CFA results indicated that the perceived complementarity measure fit our data well (GFI = 0.94; CFI = 0.97; NFI = 0.97; NNFI = 0.95, SRMR = 0.041). The Cronbach’s alpha was 0.806. The composite reliability was 0.901 and the AVE was 0.571. Our results showed the degrees of internal consistence and convergent validity in this scale reached acceptable standard.

P-G fit. The P-G fit was measured using a 5-item scale developed by Vogel and Feldman (2009). A sample item included, if I had more free time, I would enjoy spending more time with my co-workers socially. The CFA results indicated that the P-G fit measure fit our data well (GFI = 1; CFI = 1; NFI = 1; NNFI = 1, SRMR = 0.007). The Cronbach’s alpha was 0.77. The composite reliability was 0.782 and the AVE was 0.477.

Control variables. Ancona and Caldwell (1992) indicated group size as an important factor for group research. Groups of an increasingly large scale demonstrate more complex interactions and coordination among group members, which may reduce group cohesion and the level of individual satisfaction toward the group. Certain studies have indicated that group size has significant effect on social integration (Horwitz & Horwitz, 2007). Our study controlled group size, which was measured by the number of group members.

4. Results

Table 1 provides the means and standard deviations, and the correlations used in the study. The statistics in the upper portion of the table pertain to the individual level of analysis. The data in the lower portion pertain to the correlations among group-level variables.

Table 1
Means, standard deviations, and correlation matrix among variables^a

(a)Individual (Level 1) Variables	Mean	SD	1	2		
1.Complementarity	3.77	0.56	-			
2.P-G fit	4.43	0.88	.37***	-		
(b)Team (Level 2) Variables	Mean	s.d.	1	2	3	4
1. Group size	8.44	5.11	-			
2. Personality diversity	1.38	0.30	.08	-		
3. Value diversity	0.65	0.22	.18	.27*	-	
4. Task-related diversity	0.68	0.21	.44 ***	.11	.11	-

Note: ^an=633 for level 1 variables and 75 for level 2 variables.

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Our cross-level hypotheses consist of constructs spanning both the individual-employee level and the group level of analysis. Therefore, we conducted hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) to examine the relationships. Table 2 summarizes the HLM results. We first tested a null model without any predictors entered. We then introduced the group diversity variables to test the main effects (Model 1), followed by all interaction terms (Models 3-7). We grand-mean centered the Level 1 predictors. This centering approach facilitates interpreting the HLM results,

and lessens multicollinearity in the Level 2 estimation by reducing the correlation between the Level 2 intercept and the slope estimates (Hofmann & Gavin, 1998).

The null model allowed us to test the between-group variance in the P-G fit by examining the residual variance of the intercept (τ_{00}) and the ICC (1) statistic, which represent the proportion of variance in the outcome variable residing between groups. The results showed significant between-group variability ($\tau_{00} = 0.04$, $p < .001$) and an ICC (1) of 0.12, indicating that 12% of the variance resided between groups, to be explained by Level 2 variables. Model 1 shows the main effect results of group diversity. We found that personality diversity ($\hat{\gamma} = 0.22$, $p = .08$) had a marginally significant positive relation with P-G fit, whereas value diversity ($\hat{\gamma} = -0.24$, $p = .04$) had a significant negative relation with P-G fit. Our results fail to support H1, that personality diversity is negatively related to P-G fit. However, our results are consistent with H2, that value diversity is negatively related to P-G fit. The result showed that task-related diversity did not significantly predict P-G fit ($\hat{\gamma} = 0.21$, $p = .16$), failed to support H3. H4-6 suggested that complementarity may have a moderating effect on the relationship between various group diversities and P-G fit. Only H5 supported, the interaction term between value diversity and complementarity was positive and significant ($\hat{\gamma} = 0.41$, $p < 0.01$). Figure 1 shows the pattern of the significant moderating effect. Value diversity might have weaker negative effects on P-G fit when complementarity is high.

Table 2
HLM Results: Main and Interactive Effects

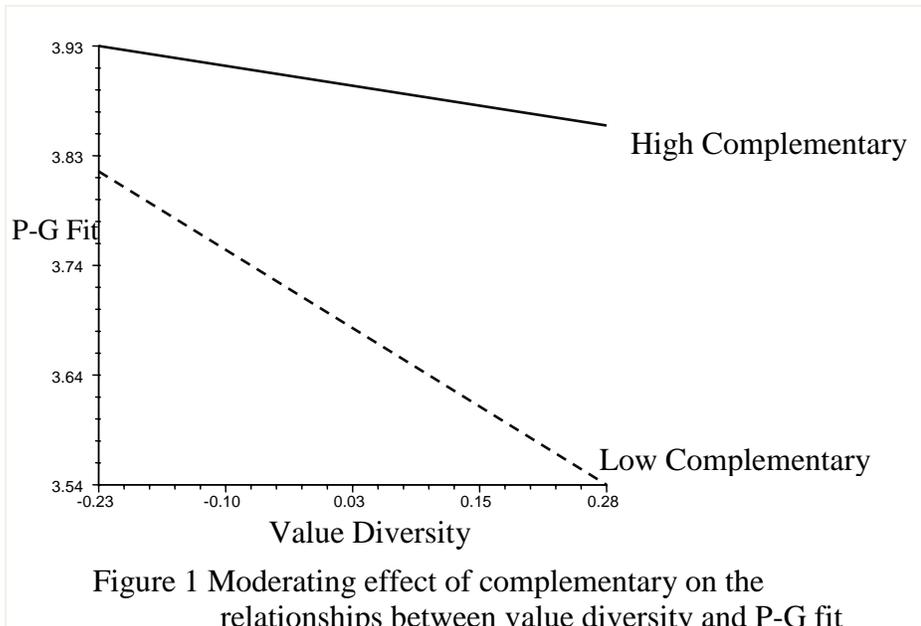
	Main Effects		Interactive Effects		
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5
Level 1					
(1)Intercept	3.90 ***	3.84***	3.83***	3.84***	3.84***
(2)Complementary		0.22***	0.21***	0.21***	0.22***
Level 2					
(3)Group size	- 0.01	- 0.01	- 0.01	- 0.01	- 0.01
(4)Personality diversity	0.22+	0.11	0.04	0.01	0.11
(5)Value diversity	- 0.24*	- 0.21*	- 0.23*	- 0.37**	- 0.21*
(6)Task-related diversity	0.21	- 0.18	0.18	0.20	0.21
(2)*(4)			0.15		
(2)*(5)				0.41**	
(2)*(6)					- 0.08
$R^2_{1(Snijder)}^a$	0.02	0.10	0.01	0.04	0
Deviance	1047.30	931.53	939.02	927.11	935.07

Note: ^a R^2 is based on the proportional reduction of levels 1 and 2 error variance resulting from predictors (Snijders & Bosker, 1999).

+ $p < 0.1$ * $p < 0.05$ ** $p < 0.01$ *** $p < 0.001$

5. Discussion

When a company undergoes organizational restructuring, the department compositions within that company also change because new members join these departments. This change may cause cognitive transformations in current staff. We found that various types of deep-level diversity demonstrated different results: diversity in values had a negative effect, but diversity in personality characteristics may have a positive effect on P-G fit; however, a non-significant



relationship between task-related diversity and P-G fit. Our study findings show that highly diversified value among group members resulted in a low level of fit. However, as personality traits differences among group members increased, person-group fit increased. We also find the negative relationship between value diversity and P-G fit is weaker for group members with higher perceived complementarity.

5.1 Theoretical implications

Regarding value diversity, we conceptualized value diversity as variety consistent with Harrison and Klein's suggestion (2007). We also confirmed similarity and attraction, ASA, and social categorization theories consistent with the concept of diversity as variety. The results showed that high levels of similarity among group member values improved levels of fit between a person and a group. Because of value differences, people in a group possess different views concerning task definitions, missions, goals, resource allocations, decision-making, and behavior, and these differences may increase the likelihood of conflict (Jehn et al., 1999), thus result in bad perception of suitability for the group. In contrast, similar values are considered beneficial for developing interpersonal relationships within a group (Hackman, 1990). Our results are similar with previous research, which value differences in a group lead to higher levels of relationship conflict (Harrison et al., 2002; Jehn et al., 1999; Jehn & Manniz, 2001).

Regarding personality traits, this study conceptualized personality diversity as separation, based on Harrison and Klein (2007)'s view, diversity as separation should use similarity attraction, ASA theories. Therefore, we predicted that personality diversity will result in bad fit perception in group. However, the findings of this study were contrary to our expectations, but consistent with complementary aspects: different personality traits among group members may results in high level perception of compatibility in the group. Embracing multiple personality traits in a group encourages each person within the group to perform defined roles and increase the compatibility of group members. Results derived through this study differed from those found in a previous study conducted by Ployhart et al. (2006) because they suggested that diverse personality traits prevented group members from collaborating and undermined group cohesion.

However, the results were consistent with past research that diversity in personality traits yields positive work results. Mohammed and Angell (2004) indicated that extroverts tend to be controlling and assertive. Accordingly, if an organization has more extroverts, conflicts tend to increase. By contrast, an organization that contains both introverts and extroverts is less likely to produce relationship conflicts. Liao, Joshi, and Chuang (2004) determined that when the differences between an individual person and a group regarding openness to experience and extraverts increase, interpersonal deviance behaviors are less likely to occur. Additionally, Neuman, Wagner, and Christiansen (1999) found that diversity in the extroversion and emotional stability traits of group members contributed to group performance. Extroverts are outgoing and talkative, whereas introverts are more reserved and reticent. Therefore, varying levels of extroversion in an organization reduce relationship conflicts and prevent power struggles. Previously, extroversion was often regarded as a leadership trait. Thus, organizations with too many extroverts, and consequently too many leaders, were viewed as possessing insufficient followers. Scholars have asserted that group efficiency increases with differences in the extroversion of the group members (Barry & Stewart, 1997; Neuman et al., 1999).

Diversity in consciousness trait does not necessarily generate negative results. Based on a personal perspective, people with high consciousness adapt poorly (Lipine, Colquitt, & Erez, 2000). Although people with high consciousness are more responsible and strive to complete a task, they are stricter, lack flexibility, and are extreme perfectionists. Their self-deception might hinder them from learning new knowledge and skills, further influencing group performance (Le, Oh, Robbins, Illies, Holland, & Westrick, 2011). Thus, if a group comprises more people with high consciousness, tension might exist in the group because they might be overly demanding of other members, decreasing personal fit perception. However, if a group comprises more people with low consciousness, namely, people who do not work diligently and have no sense of responsibility, group work cannot be finished smoothly, decreasing person-group fit.

Some scholars have argued that in the discussion of heterogeneity, the conceptualization, related operationalization, and theory regarding heterogeneity must be consistent (Bell et al., 2011; Harrison & Klein, 2007). Harrison and Klein (2007) claimed that a supplementary perspective should be adopted when the concept of separation is applied to investigate personality diversity: namely, that diversity in personalities leads to negative outcomes. However, some scholars have also asserted that diversity in personality traits should be examined as complementary (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Piasentin & Chapman, 2006). These studies which have adopted the complementary model perspective emphasizes the needs of organizations and groups and suggests that different abilities can lead to the greater comprehensiveness of abilities required by an organization or group and can complement the abilities individual group members lack, thereby fulfilling work requirements (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987). Previous studies have investigated the operationalization of personality diversity as separation and also found that operationalizing personality diversity as separation generated positive benefits (Mohammed & Angell, 2004; Liao et al., 2004; Neuman et al., 1999).

Furthermore, Bell et al. (2011) applied the concept of variety to investigate the relationship between performance and gender and ethnic diversity. The resulting relationship was contrary to expectations. In addition, both Harrison and Klein (2007) and Bell et al. (2011) did not investigate personality diversity, we suggest that future empirical research can focus on whether personality diversity can be conceptualized by separation, variety, or disparity. In addition, how to calculate the conceptualized personality as variety or disparity and whether it is corresponded with the theory proposed by Harrison and Klein (2007) should also be investigated.

Based on the above discussion, this study asserts that the completion of group tasks requires the mutual support of people with differing abilities; in addition, because people with similar personality traits play similar roles, competition for resources may arise more easily, leading to conflicts. Hence, regarding diversity in personality traits, this study adopts the perspective of the complementary model; namely, a greater difference in personality traits within a group is correlated with a greater level of fit between individual people and the group.

In this study, the complementary model perspective was also adopted to examine whether positive results could be produced if differences among group members were complementary. The results showed that the perception of complementarity could moderate the relationship between P-G fit and value diversity. Although an individual person's work-related abilities differ from those of other group members, these differences facilitate the accomplishment of work tasks and group goals, effectively reducing the individual discomfort that results from differences in values among group members. These results are consistent with the conclusions of Piasentin and Chapman (2007), who indicated that when differences exist among organization members, complementarity is positively correlated with the fit level between individual employees and the group. Currently, the supplementary perspective is more frequently adopted in diversity-related research, whereas the complementary perspective is less frequently discussed. In addition, few studies have examined whether the varying but complementary abilities of employees can yield positive organizational, group, and individual outcomes.

5.2 Managerial implications

Our findings indicate that the heterogeneity of group members affects their perception of their fit within a group after organizational restructuring, and this phenomenon can hinder companies from achieving expected goals during transition periods. We show that companies should focus on the consequences of employee heterogeneity and changes in employee perceptions when organizational restructuring are implemented. Value differences among employees can exercise a negative effect on employee perceptions of their congruence within a department. Therefore, companies wishing to restructure their organization to implement organizational change should not place employees with significant value differences in the same group. Furthermore, as organizations encounter external environmental variations, group work tasks continually change. Differences in personality traits enable each worker to assume different roles in a group and prevent roles from overlapping; this facilitates the group in adapting to and coping with external environmental changes and enables harmonious associations and interactions within the group. Differences in values, however, can obstruct the harmonious relationships within a group; therefore, during corporate recruitment and selection, complementarity regarding personality traits and value similarities should be considered.

5.3 Contributions

Although numerous studies concerning the single-level effects of organizational change have been published, few studies have focused on cross-level effects. Individual level research primarily presents a discussion of employee resistance to change and the coping strategies an organization or a person employs (e.g. Fugate, Kinicki, & Prussia, 2008). Organizational level research has typically emphasized improvements in organizational performance following organizational change (Rondeau & Wagar, 2003). Few studies have discussed cross-level effects that occur after organizational restructuring. A few researchers have requested their peers to adopt both micro- and macro-perspectives in their research to explore their interactions (Heath & Sitkin, 2001; Ployhart & Moliterno, 2011). This study find the value diversity among group members leads to bad fit perception of an individual, while personality diversity among group members leads to good fit. Our study results assist in explaining the relationship how group

heterogeneity affects the fit perception of people in their environment from the cross-level perspective.

Furthermore, the relationship between diversity and P-E fit among organization members has not been sufficiently examined. The results of this study showed that deep-level diversity among organization members affected their perception of P-E fit. Although Piasentin and Chapman (2007) explored the relationship between diversity and person-organization (P-O) fit, they examined the topic based on perceived diversity, which differs from the actual diversity examined in this study. Piasentin and Chapman adopted the relational approach to examine differences in the overall perception of value, personality traits, and ability, and how these differences positively correlate to P-O fit. Nevertheless, in this study, the compositional approach was employed to examine the influence that deep-level group diversity have on the P-G fit of individual employees. The results indicated that diversity in values and personality traits possess relationships of varying strength and direction regarding P-G fit.

In addition, most previous studies that have investigated diversity and outcome have argued that context factors must be considered (Horwitz & Horwitz, 2007), and have mainly conducted examination based on team work characteristics (e.g. task complexity, task interdependence, team size). Some scholars have claimed that the perception of fit can be generated by both similarity and differences in complementary abilities among team members (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Piasentin & Chapman, 2007). Thus, this study investigated the effects of complementary context. Our result showed that complementarity assists in lowering the negative influences of value diversity. Prior studies on diversity have primarily focused on whether similarities or differences resulted in positive outcomes, and have seldom investigated the complementarity of abilities and characteristics among team members. This study promotes the progress of future studies regarding diversity. Future studies can investigate the influences of complementary abilities and characteristics among team members, thus may be used to clarify the inconsistent results of studies on diversity.

Finally, regardless of adopting perceptual, subjective, or objective measurements, previous studies on diversity have little focused on deep-level diversity (Horwitz & Horwitz, 2007). However, deep-level diversity may more influence individual's behavior in team (Harrison et al., 2002). During organizational restructuring, new staff hiring and the loss of old staff causes changes in not only surface-level but deep-level diversity. We investigated multifaceted deep-level diversity and differentiated their effects on employee perceptions. In the view of competences, compared to the task-related diversity, the difference in values and personality traits of individuals which belong to the competences below the tip of the iceberg have a greater influence of perception of compatibility among group.

5.4 Limitations

Our study includes certain limitations. Instead of investigating an organization as a whole, we employed individual- and group-level perspectives, which could be a possible limitation. During organizational change, employees from a department in which changes exercise a significant influence are affected more substantially than personnel from departments in which changes have a negligible effect. To obtain the desired results, departments that were substantially affected during periods of organizational change were handpicked as participants. Departments that were unaffected were excluded because employee perceptions of their level of fit in a group scarcely changed if organizational changes had little influence on their departments. We suggest that future studies adopt the organizational perspective to investigate the influences reorganization exerts on employee behaviors.

Secondly, Bunderson and Sutcliffe (2002) address four different conceptualizations of functional diversity, including dominant function diversity, functional background diversity, functional assignment diversity, intra-personal functional diversity. They proposed that functional diversity among team members impedes communication, but if a specific team member possesses broader function backgrounds, this improves communication with other team members. Teams composed of individuals whose work experiences span a range of functional domain will tend to accept dissimilarity and will be highly willing to communicate (intra-personal diversity). This study adopted the assessment of dominant function diversity, which many scholars have employed. Because team member work experience data in every functional department was difficult to obtain using a questionnaire survey, we suggest that if future researchers can obtain team member's personnel data, they can investigate the influences of functional background diversity and intra-personal functional diversity.

Thirdly, this study examined personality diversity across all of the Big Five traits rather than the influence of personality diversity on specific traits. However, some scholars have argued that the direction and strength of the influences from every trait might differ, and that combining them might counteract their influence on the outcome variables (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Thus, we suggest that future scholars compare the direction and strength of influences that specific personality traits exert on the outcome variables.

Finally, in previous studies on diversity, scholars have asserted that a faultline perspective be adopted to investigate the influence of group composition; in such a perspective a group is divided into two or several subgroups based on one or several characteristics (Thatcher & Patel, 2012). The interaction effects of several diversity variables are then used to examine the influences they exert on the outcome variables (Lau & Murnighan, 1998). This study did not apply the faultline perspective to observe outcomes regarding diversity because previous studies that have adopted the faultline perspective obtained inconsistent results (Joshi & Roh, 2009; Van Knippenberg & Schippers, 2007). In addition, previous empirical studies that have employed the faultline perspective primarily focused on demographic diversity and only a few empirical studies emphasized nondemographic diversity. Personality diversity was investigated by a minority of studies (Molleman, 2005) and no study applied the faultline perspective to investigate diversity in values. We suggest that future studies employ the faultline perspective to examine deep-level diversity, and the influence such diversity exerts on group processes and outcomes.

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