ME, MYSELF, AND I, AT WORK AND AT HOME, TODAY, TOMORROW, AND THE DAY

AFTER: UNDERSTANDING INTRA-INDIVIDUAL MULTIPLE SELVES

ACROSS THE WORK-NONWORK INTERFACE

by

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Dedication

To my husband, Hossein.
For your unconditional love and support. I love you!

To my parents, Hossein and Batoul.
I am forever grateful for all you have done.

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ABSTRACT

ME, MYSELF, AND I, AT WORK AND AT HOME, TODAY, TOMORROW, AND THE DAY

AFTER: UNDERSTANDING INTRA-INDIVIDUAL MULTIPLE SELVES

ACROSS THE WORK-NONWORK INTERFACE

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While scholars commonly agree that self-concept is a complex set of self-representations, or identities that influences individual's decisions, evaluations, attitude, and behaviors, little is known about how individual's multiple identities influence important employee and organizational outcomes because studies to date have typically adopted a static approach to understanding the interrelationship among identities. Research has also rarely examined the interrelationships among more than two identities. Through the introduction of the concept of an *identity coactivation episode*, a momentary occurrence in which multiple identities are simultaneously triggered and occupied, I recognize that multiple identities might be experienced differently across various situations. Further, integrating tenets from the identity development literature and appraisal theories of emotions, I theorize that distinct emotions are experienced following an individual's evaluation of an episode regarding whether the elements of an identity help or hinder satisfaction of the identity motives associated with another simultaneously coactivated identity. Various behaviorally-oriented employee outcomes following an emotion-

generating identity coactivation episode are also identified. The hypotheses were tested in a sample of 205 employed adults, surveyed twice a day over 10-workday period, in a work-nonwork context. The results of multilevel modeling indicated that the contribution of an identity to the satisfaction of another identity's motives results in both positive and negative emotions, and subsequently determines daily behaviors at work and outside of work, however, the direction and magnitude of the effect depends on a number of factors, including presence of actors, individual differences, and where the coactivation episode was experienced. Implications for theory, research, and practice are discussed.

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INTRODUCTION

Scholars have long recognized that self-concept is a complex set of self-representations, or identities, that reflect "the subjective knowledge, meanings, and experiences that are self-defining" (Ramarajan, 2014, p. 593) and are based on an individual's group memberships (i.e., social idenitiy theory; Tajfel, 1978; Tajfel & Turner, 1986; Turner, 1982), occupied roles and their role relationships (i.e., identity theory and relational identity; Sluss & Ashforth, 2007; Stryker, 1980; Stryker & Burke, 2000), and unique personal characteristics (i.e., personal identity; Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Accumulated research has shown how a single identity influences various individual and organizational outcomes, including performance and extra role behaviors (Blader & Tyler, 2009; Burke & Reitzes, 1991; Riketta, 2005), cooperative behaviors, intention to turnover, and creativity (Abrams, Ando, & Hinkle, 1998; Dukerich, Golden, & Shortell, 2002; Swann, Kwan, Polzer, & Milton, 2003). However, because demarcations and boundaries in employees' lives have exceedingly diminished due to globalization, declining job security, increasing workforce diversity, and the spread of communication technology, recently there has been increased interest in multiple identities (Ramarajan, 2014; Ramarajan & Reid, 2013). For example, studies have begun to examine the effect of individual's multiple identities on various outcomes, including well-being (Brook, Garcia, & Fleming, 2008; Settles, Sellers, & Alphonse, 2002; Spreitzer, Snyder, & Larson, 1979; Thoits, 1983, 1986), satisfaction (McQuillen, Licht, & Licht, 2001; Ogilvie, 1987), competitiveness (Cadsby, Servátka, & Song, 2013), innovation and performance (Cheng, Sanchez-Burks, & Lee, 2008; Das, Dharwadkar, & Brandes, 2008; Settles, 2004), decision-making and judgement (Leavitt, Reynolds, Barnes, Schilpzand, & Hannah, 2012; LeBoeuf, Shafir, & Bayuk, 2010), and diversity-related attitudes (Brewer & Pierce, 2005; Roccas &

Brewer, 2002), recognizing that some identities are more important to the individual's sense of

self, or that the content of these identities might conflict or enhance each other (Miscenko &

Day, 2016; Ramarajan, 2014).

Despite the growth of research on identity in general, and multiple identities in particular

(Miscenko & Day, 2016), little is known about how individual's multiple identities influence

employee and organizational outcomes because to date studies have typically adopted a static

approach to understanding the interrelationship among identities, and research has also rarely

examined the interrelationship among more than two identities (Ramarajan, 2014). These

shortcomings are problematic for two key reasons. First, the static approach to individual's

multiple identities – one in which identity is viewed as unchanging and of the most interest

between-persons – ignores the situational information that might affect individual's experiences

when two or more identities are simultaneously enacted. Specifically, studies adopting a static

approach to multiple identities tend to focus on the degree of interrelationship among identities

(e.g., conflict or enhancement) or the relationship between the person-level mean of these

constructs and other variables (e.g., well-being and performance). While this approach has

various advantages, including easier data collection and analyses, and more generalizable results

(Maertz & Boyar, 2011), it has serious limitations. Static, one-point in time snapshots of identity

might be inaccurate because they are based on individual's subjective recall of past events from

memory, which are also confounded with current in-process events (Maertz & Boyar, 2011).

Further, this approach ignores the influence of situationally relevant information and cues on the

individual's experience (Ramarajan, 2014). It is possible that two identities conflict with each

other in a specific situation, while enhance one another in a situation with different features and

elements. Therefore, failure to recognize the variation in identities and their interrelationships

across situations can limit our understanding of how multiple identities influence important employee outcomes.

Second, an individual's self-concept reflects a complex entity consisting of multiple identities, and understanding the effects of self-concept on employee outcomes requires an expansive set of an individual's identities to be considered. Further, individuals differ in which identities they consider central to their sense of self, and they can have identities that become more or less salient depending on situational cues, thereby more or less important across situations. However, studies to date on multiple identities seldom ask participants to report on their full spectrum of identities (e.g., Brook et al., 2008; Linville, 1985, 1987). Focusing on a limited, predefined set of identities might ignore the effects of more central or salient identities possibly excluded from investigation. Therefore, I argue that a more dynamic and comprehensive approach to the interrelationships among individual's identities is required to better understand the complex effects of "who a person is" on employee outcomes, as well as the process underlying these effects.

Accordingly, the objective of the current research is to understand how individuals experience the intersection between their identities across multiple situations and how such experiences influence their emotions and subsequent behaviors. To this end, I propose an episodic perspective on individual's multiple identities, suggesting that over time and across various situations, people might experience the intersection between two or more of their identities differently. I achieve this objective by introducing the concept of an *identity coactivation episode*, in which two or more identities are simultaneously coactivated, or enacted in a given moment. For example, talking about family vacation plans with a coworker reflects a coactivation episode that can occur at work, in which possible coactivated identities include

relational identity with the coworker and spouse or mother identities. I explore the concept of identity coactivation episode by identifying its key characteristics, and examining how individuals cognitively evaluate each episode. Further, I discuss various emotional experiences, namely happiness, gratitude, pride, sadness, guilt, shame, anxiety, and anger that may be experienced following the cognitive evaluation of the episode. Since emotional outcomes following an event depend on individual goals in the context and whether they are satisfied or thwarted, I identify individuals' key goals in the coactivation episode (Fleeson & Cantor, 1995; Lazarus, 1994), structured in a hierarchy of importance, relying on the identity development literature (e.g., Vignoles et al., 2006). Further, I identify situation-level (i.e., episode's characteristics) and person-level (need strength, identity centrality, and identity level) characteristics that influence the episode's goal hierarchy, and hence the strength of emotional experience. Finally, I discuss selected key behavioral outcomes, namely helping behaviors, deviant behaviors, and engagement that result from these emotional experiences following an identity coactivation episode.

While such a perspective can be applied to any set of identities, I believe this framework is most applicable to identities that are clearly distinguished from one another. For example, an individual might highly value two identities: (a) a relational identity with a coworker and (b) a team identity. However, if the two identities are always coactivated simultaneously, the individual might have difficulty distinguishing between the two as separate identities. Therefore, throughout this manuscript, I focus on *mega* identity coactivation episodes, which are coactivated identities that are clearly differentiated. Further, following Sluss and Ashforth (2007), I distinguish between identity and identification. I treat identity as the content and meaning of a self-aspect, while identification is referred to as the extent to which an identity is

self-defining and important to the individual (i.e., identity centrality). An individual might possess an identity (e.g., subordinate) but not assume the subordinate identity to be important to the sense of self (low identification).

Through my exploration of identity coactivation episodes, I make a number of key contributions to the literature. First and foremost, I move beyond the static, between-persons approach to individual's multiple identities and recognize that situational attributes can contribute to how two or more identities are experienced simultaneously, and how those experiences may vary day-to-day within-persons across various identity events. Contextual and situational attributes play a critical role in how simultaneous enactment of multiple identities is experienced (Ramarajan, 2014). For example, Cheng, Sanchez-Burks, and Lee (2008) found that the compatibility between two identities increases individual performance only if the task at hand is relevant to both identities, highlighting the importance of situational and contextual characteristics to the simultaneous experience and enactment of multiple identities. In recognizing the role of situational factors, I draw on the work-nonwork permeability literature (e.g., Ashforth, Kreiner, & Fugate, 2000; Clark, 2000; Nippert-Eng, 1996) to define *actors* and *demands* as two key characteristics of an identity coactivation episode that influence employee experiences during the episode. Further, expanding on tenets from the identity development literature (e.g., Vignoles, Regalia, Manzi, Golledge, & Scabini, 2006), I argue that an individual's paramount goal in any identity coactivation episode is to satisfy the identification motives (i.e., self-esteem, efficacy, belongingness, and distinctiveness) associated with each of the coactivated identities that will influence the cognitive evaluation of the episode, hence resulting in specific emotions. Further, I argue that the relative importance of these motives in an episode depends on both situational characteristics (actors and demands) and person-level factors

(i.e., centrality of coactivated identities, level of coactivated identities, and individual need strength).

Second, taking an episodic perspective on the interface between multiple identities allows for new theorizing on the role of emotions in understanding *why* individuals behave in a certain way following an experience of conflict or enhancement within an identity coactivation episode. Considering episodes as analogous to events (Morgeson, Mitchell, & Liu, 2015), I draw on appraisal theories of emotions (e.g., Frijda, 1987; Lazarus, 1991a, 1991b, 1994; Roseman, 1991; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) to argue how differing emotional experiences (e.g., happiness, sadness, anger, anxiety, etc.) result from individual's evaluations of an identity coactivation episode—dependent on whether that evaluation is congruent or incongruent with their goals in the episode and who is the responsible party. Further, considering the valence of emotions, approach/avoidance motivations, and action tendencies, I identify various behaviorally-oriented employee outcomes following an emotion-generating identity coactivation episode. These behaviors include engagement, helping behaviors, approach- and avoidance-oriented deviant behaviors.

Third, an episodic approach to individual's multiple identities suggests that different identities might become coactivated at different times, providing an opportunity to investigate the effect of a broader set of identities as they are differentially coactivated across a number of coactivation episodes, rather than only focusing on a single pair of identities. Of course, adopting an episodic perspective requires a fundamentally different design and methodology, such as experience sampling methodology (ESM) to adequately investigate a multitude of interrelationships among a broad set of identities that may become coactivated day-to-day. For example, an individual might experience an identity coactivation episode during the workday, in

which team identity and occupational identity are coactivated during a work meeting. The same individual may experience another identity coactivation episode in the evening, in which spousal identity and the relational identity with his/her supervisor are coactivated when an email from the supervisor is received at home. Therefore, this perspective and its associated methodological approach allows us to examine the breadth of multiple identity coactivation episodes beyond a single pair of identities and helps move the literature toward viewing multiple identities holistically, through the lens of the individual as a whole—thus, a truly person-centered approach to identity.

Fourth, an episodic view of multiple identities contributes to the advancement of a dynamic approach to identity development and enactment. While extensive research has examined how a single identity is constructed, developed, and changes over time (e.g., Alvesson, 1994; Coupland, 2001; Covaleski, Dirsmith, Heian, & Samuel, 1998; Ibarra, 1999; Ibarra & Barbulescu, 2010; Lord & Hall, 2005), research on how such development occurs over time while also considering the interrelationship and interplay among identities is rare (Miscenko & Day, 2016; see Sluss, Ployhart, Cobb, & Ashforth, 2012 for an exception). Ignoring the effect of interrelationships among identities on identity development is problematic given economic globalization, declining job security, increasing workforce diversity, and the spread of communication technology (Ramarajan, 2014; Ramarajan & Reid, 2013). Such factors contribute to blurring boundaries within and between employee's work and life domains, leading to frequent simultaneous experience and enactment of multiple identities across different situations. In addition to addressing how employees likely experience and enact multiple identities simultaneously, this episodic approach to individual's multiple identities allows for the possibility that individuals differentially experience two identities in different situations and at

different points in time. Investigating changes in such experiences over time informs us of how identities develop in relation to one another from day-to-day.

Finally, focusing on identity coactivation episodes substantially contributes to the literature on the work-nonwork interface. Although the work-nonwork literature has recently advocated more of an episodic lens for understanding the relationship between work and nonwork domains, particularly in terms of conflict and enrichment (Maertz & Boyar, 2011; Shockley & Allen, 2013, 2015), the limited studies to date have primarily focused on the interface between work and *family*. Scholars have long called for research that moves beyond individual's family roles and include other aspects of the nonwork domain (Fisher, Bulger, & Smith, 2009), such as one's personal life (Wilson & Baumann, 2015) and other life domains of single individuals (Casper, Weltman, & Kwesiga, 2007). Investigating identity coactivation episodes allows not only for more inclusion of individual's nonwork identities other than family but also allows for the possibility to differentiate among various work-related identities that exist, such as organizational identity, team identity, and coworker relational identity. This is important because although the nonwork domain is commonly acknowledged to contain more than just the family role, the literature seldom takes a fine-grained approach to the work domain. Thus, examining identity coactivation episodes throughout the day, and from day-to-day, allows for both work and nonwork distinctions that provide a more comprehensive view of how individuals most likely experience the full spectrum of the interface between their work and nonwork.

In the sections that follow, I first define an identity coactivation episode by providing a theoretical support on why individuals can experience multiple identities simultaneously. Further, drawing on the identity development literature (e.g., Vignoles et al., 2006), I identify a set of key

goals that arise in an identity coactivation episode, including self-esteem, efficacy, belongingness, and distinctiveness, that constitute an individual's goal hierarchy in the episode. Moreover, I theoretically describe the key characteristics of the episode (i.e., actors and demands) that can influence the person's experience by affecting the episode's goal hierarchy. Drawing on appraisal theories of emotions (e.g., Frijda, 1987; Lazarus, 1991a, 1991b, 1994; Roseman, 1991; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), I then describe how these goals and associated identity motives might be (dis)satisfied depending on the elements of a coactivated identity. Following this theoretical discussion on how identity coactivation episodes unfold, I transition to the measurable aspects of coactivation episodes that are of interest. Specifically, I formulate hypotheses for the identity motives within the goal hierarchy regarding the emotions that are elicited if the motives are (dis)satisfied because of elements of another identity during coactivation episodes, as well as the specific boundary conditions and subsequent workplace behaviors relevant to these episodes. Figure 1 summarizes the overarching theoretical model for the current research, Figure 2 summarizes all the tested relationships, and my entire set of hypotheses can be found in Appendix A.

EPISODES OF INDIVIDUAL'S MULTIPLE IDENTITIES: AN IDENTITY COACTIVATION PERSPECTIVE

As mentioned earlier, an individual's self-concept consists of multiple identities. While both identity theory and social identity theory primarily focus on activation of one identity at a time through the assumptions of salience hierarchy and functional antagonism, respectively (Stryker & Burke, 2000; Tajfel & Turner, 1986), the logic of associative networks in cognitive psychology suggests that multiple identities, which correspond to knowledge nodes in memory, can be simultaneously coactivated (Ashforth & Johnson, 2001; Blader, 2007; McConnell, 2011;

Ramarajan & Rothbard, 2009). Specifically, the associative network model of memory (Anderson, 1976; Anderson & Bower, 1973; Rogers, 1981) suggests that information, including knowledge about the self and identities, can be represented as nodes in memory (Greenwald & Pratkanis, 1984; Kihlstrom, Beer, & Klein, 2003). Fanning out from each identity node is various attributes (McConnell, 2011) or episodic and semantic knowledge (Kihlstrom et al., 2003) relevant to the identity, which can be shared among different identities. Accordingly, different parts of the self-aspect stored in memory can be activated simultaneously at any point in time. This perspective moves beyond the concept of a *single self-concept* toward a *working*, *online*, or *active* self-concept (Markus & Wurf, 1987; Oyserman, Elmore, & Smith, 2012; Wheeler, DeMarree, & Petty, 2007), suggesting that although not all aspects of the self, or identities, are active in memory continuously, the activation of multiple, specific identities can often occur simultaneously depending on the situational clues and accessibility of the self-aspect in memory. Supporting this idea, Markus and Wurf (1987) defined working self-concept as a "subset of [self-] representations which is accessible at a given moment" (p. 314) and argued that social circumstances and individual motivational states result in more or less automatic activation of self-representations. Furthermore, one of the tenets espoused in the self-complexity literature (e.g., Linville, 1985, 1987) is that the self operates as an associative network stored in memory, and that feelings and emotions generated in an active identity might spillover to other identities if the identities are associated within the same overarching network, thus implying that multiple identities can coexist through simultaneous activation.

Similarly, scholars have suggested the possibility of an identity coactivation episode through the concept of simultaneously salient identities (Allport, 1954; Brown & Hewstone, 2005; Dovidio, Gaertner, Pearson, & Riek, 2005; Fitzsimmons, 2013; Gaertner, Dovidio,

Anastasio, Bachman, & Rust, 1993; Riketta, 2002; Yip, 2009). Identity salience refers to significance of a specific identity in a given context (Oakes, 1987). Accordingly, depending on the characteristics of a given situation, multiple identities might become salient. For example, Gaertner and colleagues (1993) proposed the common ingroup identity model as a strategy to reduce intergroup bias. The model emphasizes the role of 'dual identity', which refers to simultaneous salience of subgroup identity and the superordinate identity.

Using an experience sampling methodology on a sample of Chinese-American college students, Yip (2009) found that students were more likely to experience simultaneous salience of their Chinese and American identities when they were with their families. Similarly, Fitzsimmons (2013) argued that cultural identity and organizational identity can be simultaneously salient depending on the organizational idealogy or whether an organizational culture adopts a color blindness ideology toward individual differences or acknowledges and celebrates individual differences within the organization. Accordingly, features of the context may give rise to the experience of simultanesously salient identities or identity coactivation episode.

Drawing from the aforementioned literature, I define an identity coactivation episode as *a momentary occurrence in which multiple identities are simultaneously triggered and occupied*. For example, talking about family vacation plans with a coworker reflects a coactivation episode that can occur at work, in which possible coactivated identities include relational identity with the coworker (work identity) and spouse or mother identities (nonwork identity). Receiving an email from a supervisor while with friends at dinner is an example of a coactivation episode occurring outside of work, in which possible coactivated identities include organizational identity and relational identity with the supervisor (work identity), as well as relational identity

with the current set of friends (nonwork identity). Similarly, having a conversation with coworkers of similar racial background might be considered a coactivation episode if situational cues elevate activation of one's racial identity in addition to, perhaps, one's team identity. It should be noted that coactivation does not mean that the identities are equally activated. One identity might be fully activated behaviorally by engaging in tasks related to that identity, while another identity might be partially activated through cognition (i.e., thinking about the identity). In addition, although coactivation episodes can include more than two identities simultaneously, I only focus on the coactivation of two identities in developing my theoretical framework for the purpose of simplification. However, similar arguments can be used when three or more identities are active at the same time.

Although any pair of identities within an individual's self-concept can be coactivated in a given episode, the occurrence of a specific coactivation episode would depend on the recency of, frequency of, similarity between, and applicability of situational cues to the coactivated identities. Since identities are represented as knowledge nodes in memory, their accessibility depends on how frequently and recently they were activated, as well as the relevance of situational cues to the meaning of the identities (Higgins, 1987; Linville, 1987). Importantly, the recency argument suggests that however recently an identity was activated influences the likelihood of its accessibility in the future. Supporting this, experimental research on self-affirmation theory (Sherman & Cohen, 2006; Steele, 1988) suggests that priming an important but irrelevant aspect of one's life increases the likelihood for activation of and reflection on the primed self-aspect during a threat to another aspect of the self – implicitly assuming the possibility of coactivation episodes. Extending these ideas, I argue that the recency and frequency of coactivation of two identities increases the likelihood of experiencing *daily*

coactivation of disparate identities. Further, chronic self-identity or self-concept orientation (Cooper & Thatcher, 2010; R. E. Johnson, Chang, & Yang, 2010; Johnson, Selenta, & Lord, 2006), defined as "on-average activation of the individual, relational, and collective levels" (Johnson et al., 2010: 230) of self, suggests that the more frequently a specific level of self-concept is activated, the more chronically accessible it becomes. Therefore, the more frequently an identity is activated, such as daily, the more easily it becomes accessible and activated in variety of situations, including coactivation episodes.

Additionally, greater similarity and overlap between two distinct identities also increases the likelihood of coactivation between two identities because similar identities have stronger cognitive association, and activation of one would result in activation of the other[1] (Ashforth & Johnson, 2001; Higgins, 1996). While similarity between two identities is related to the frequency of coactivation (i.e., the more similar two identities are, the more frequently the identities will be coactivated), frequency of coactivation does not necessarily mean that the identities are similar. For example, gender and professional identity might be coactivated frequently because of gender stereotypes in a profession, and therefore increase the likelihood of future coactivation, but it does not mean that the two identities are similar in nature.

Situational cues can also result in coactivation of identities. Such activation has been shown in studies where researchers *prime* the salience of an identity (e.g., Cadsby, Servátka, & Song, 2013; Leavitt, Reynolds, Barnes, Schilpzand, & Hannah, 2012; LeBoeuf et al., 2010). Although studies rarely focus on priming multiple identities (e.g., Rydell, McConnell, & Beilock, 2009), the limited research focused on priming a single identity at least suggests that it

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[1] It should be noted that while very similar identities, or sub-identities, are likely to be coactivated, my framework of identity coactivation episodes is more pertinent to identities that the individual can clearly distinguish from one another.

is possible to prime two identities simultaneously. For example, Cheng, Sanchez-Burks, and Lee (2008) found that higher compatibility between two identities results in higher levels of creativity only when the task engaged in draws on knowledge from both identities. These results suggest that situational cues can operate to activate multiple identities and identity-relevant knowledge simultaneously, that then may subsequently enhance employee outcomes. Taken together, the aforementioned ideas come together to suggest that the daily experience of coactivation episodes is likely to occur when frequency, recency, similarity, and situational relevance are present for two identities. While I acknowledge the importance of these structural features in giving rise to the likelihood of a coactivation episode occurring, my primary focus of interest is on the phenomenological experience of the coactivation episode itself (rather than what predicts a coactivation episode). As such, I next turn to the characteristics of the episode itself that play a key role in defining a person's experience during a coactivation episode.

Defining Characteristics of an Identity Coactivation Episode

Identity coactivation episodes can in some ways be thought of as instances of identity permeability, although there are also some key differences. Permeability refers to the extent to which elements of one identity domain (i.e., behaviors, thoughts, or physical objects) enter into another domain (Ashforth et al., 2000; Clark, 2000; Nippert-Eng, 1996), suggesting that an identity becomes activated cognitively or behaviorally while another identity is also actively occupied. Although for any coactivation episode to occur, some degree of integration and permeability is required, not all instances of permeability can be considered a coactivation episode. For example, one dimension of boundary permeability is the entrance of symbolic objects from one domain to the other (e.g., family picture in workplace). While a family photo might activate an individual's family identity at work while another work-related identity is

active, such coactivation does not occur unless the individual is at least consciously thinking about his/her family identity to some extent. In addition, the permeability literature emphasizes the directionality of permeability (e.g., work-to-family or family-to-work) as a key component. In a coactivation episode, however, no directionality is assumed (nor relevant). Directionality of permeability assumes that when elements of one identity enters another, it is more likely to experience conflict or enrichment in the same direction. For example, having to work at home after working hours is a type of permeability in the direction of work-to-home, which is more likely to result in work-to-nonwork conflict (Ashforth et al., 2000; Bulger, Matthews, & Hoffman, 2007). In an identity coactivation episode, simply having two identities coactivated does not necessarily mean one identity is intruding on another, rather meaning is achieved based on an individual's evaluations regarding what the situational goals are and how one identity can help or block satisfaction of goals within another identity. It is only after this evaluation that a perception of the direction of influence can materialize. Therefore, the coactivation episode itself is considered a neutral state in terms of directionality.

Since coactivation of multiple identities occurs only if the identities are at least somewhat integrated and permeable (Ramarajan & Rothbard, 2009), I rely on boundary theory to define "actors" and "demands" as two defining dimensions of a coactivation episode. In line with the recent focus on relational others in determining work-family balance (Wayne, Butts, Casper, & Allen, 2017), actors refer to whether any person from one or more activated identity domains is present with the focal individual in the coactivation episode. This dimension plays a critical role in an identity coactivation episode since individual's boundaries between their identities are constructed not only based on their preferences but also based on negotiations with people in their identity domains (i.e."border keeping" according to Clark, 2000; Kreiner, Hollensbe, &

Sheep, 2009). Such co-construction of boundaries between identities would influence what kinds of behaviors are appropriate in a specific coactivation episode if border keepers are present with the focal individual. For example, Clark (2000) provides evidence that one of the main sources of work-family conflict is disagreement over appropriate work and home boundaries between employees and their supervisor and/or spouse. Extending this work, Kreiner and colleagues (2009) identified five dimensions of boundary incongruence, four of which refer to actors in various identity domains: family member, superior, subordinate, and client. Accordingly, perceptions of boundary violation depend on whether individual's boundary preferences match the actual boundary co-constructed by actors in the other identity domain.

Further, presence of actors influences an individual's goals in the situation. For example, using an experience sampling methodology, Brandstätter (1983) found that housewives more frequently reported satisfaction of the affiliation motive when other persons were present than when alone. In addition, in a study by Fleeson and Cantor (1995), respondents reported higher relevance of 'getting along with others' in social situations compared to academic situations. Later in the manuscript, I will discuss in more detail how presence of actors might influence an individual's goal hierarchy in an identity coactivation episode, and hence how the episode is perceived and experienced.

In line with the job demand-resource model (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001), I define demands as whether one or more activated identities require any physical or mental effort by the individual (Demerouti et al., 2001; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004), or the degree to which either of the coactivated identities "contains stimuli that peremptorily require attention and response" (Jones & Fletcher, 1996: 34). For example, let's assume an identity coactivation episode in which an employee receives a call from his/her spouse while at

work. In this coactivation episode, the employee's spouse identity pressures him/her to engage in a conversation with the spouse while the job and/or organizational identity pressures him/her to engage in work-related activities (e.g., preparing for an afternoon meeting), suggesting that both coactivated identities pose demands on the employee. However, a coactivated identity does not necessarily *have* to impose demands. For example, if an individual is socializing with friends from work after hours, organizational identity might be coactivated along with relational identity with friends; however, the organizational identity does not impose any demand on the individual to perform or be engaged in a specific task or work responsibility.

Demands are critical in any coactivation episode because they influence a person's goals in the episode. Specifically, when faced with a task, individuals are inclined to satisfactorily complete the task to enhance their feeling of efficacy, competence, and control. For example, Fleeson and Cantor (1995) found that respondents reported higher relevance of the goal to do well academically when they were physically in an academic situation, including in classrooms or when studying. However, in an identity coactivation episode, in which one of the coactivated identities poses a demanding task on the individual, the elements of the other identity might help *or* hinder the individual's performance on that task. For example, specific knowledge in an identity domain might enhance the individual's efficiency in another identity domain or it might restrict creativity in that other domain. Therefore, the existence of demands in an identity coactivation episode can positively or negatively influence an individual's experience of that episode. Further, individuals have a limited amount of resources (i.e., time, attention, and energy), and involvement in one identity demand may constrain an individual's involvement in another identities' demands (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Staines, 1980; Tenbrunsel, Brett, Maoz, Stroh, & Reilly, 1995). Therefore, if both identities pose some demands on the individual in an

identity coactivation episode, that individual is less likely to be involved in and perform well on both tasks, resulting in a negative experience of the episode.

While demands are more likely to exist when actors are present in an identity coactivation episode, the two dimensions do not necessarily coincide. For example, presence of actors (e.g., kids in the workplace) might only communicate behavioral norms (e.g., the way an individual is expected to speak) without posing any demands or tasks on the individual. Further, no one might be physically present with an individual in a coactivation episode while still posing multiple demands across identities that may require time and involvement.

Goals and Goal Hierarchy in an Identity Coactivation Episode

The identity construction literature suggests that individuals affiliate with a specific identity because it satisfies one or more of their motives for identification, including self-esteem, distinctiveness, belongingness, and efficacy (Ashforth, 2001; Vignoles et al., 2006). Specifically, the more an identity satisfy such motives, the higher the identification with that identity (Ashforth, 2001). Although other motives such as continuity and meaning have also been identified as the basis for identity construction, I only focus on the aforementioned motives because they are the most relevant motives in identity enactment within a coactivation episode.

The *self-esteem motive* refers to "the motivation to maintain and enhance a positive conception of one self" (Gecas, 1982: 20). While self-esteem can be enhanced through various self-evaluation routes (Dauenbeimer, Stablberg, Spreemann, & Sedikides, 2002; Sedikides & Strube, 1997), the ultimate goal or motivation is to enhance how one views himself/herself. The *belongingness motive* refers to the desire to form and maintain lasting, positive, and significant interpersonal relationships. Further, belongingness is considered one of the fundamental human needs which motivate individuals and direct their emotion and cognition (Baumeister & Leary,

1995), and it can be categorized into personalized and depersonalized subdimensions (Mael & Ashforth, 2001). Personalized belongingness stems from interpersonal attachment (Abrams & Hogg, 2006) and is related to the need for affiliation (Riketta, 2008), while depersonalized belongingness refers to the desire to be part of a community that shares similar goals, values, interests, or beliefs (Ashforth, 2001; Mael & Ashforth, 2001). The *distinctiveness motive* refers to the desire to differentiate oneself from others (Vignoles, Chryssochoou, & Breakwell, 2000). Although the distinctiveness motive has been argued to be culture-specific and originated from the Western value of individualism (Snyder & Fromkin, 1980; Triandis, 1995), recent studies suggest that the distinctiveness motive is also important in collectivist cultures; although different cultures emphasize different sources of distinctiveness (i.e., position, difference, and separateness; Becker et al., 2012; Vignoles et al., 2000). Finally, the *efficacy motive* refers to the desire to enhance and maintain feelings of competence, capability, and control (Vignoles et al., 2006). According to the efficacy principle, individuals strive to sustain an identity structure, characterized with competence and control, and an inability to sustain such a structure results in feelings of isolation and weakness (Breakwell, 1993).

Although these identity motives have primarily been discussed in terms of identity creation or when a new identity is added to the set of an individual's identities, satisfaction of these motives within each identity over time can also influence subsequent salience and enactment of an identity in the moment (Vignoles et al., 2006), and individuals strive to achieve associated identity motives when enacting an identity. Therefore, I argue that when an identity is activated, an individual's goal in that situation is to satisfy identity-relevant motives. Thus, in a coactivation episode, an individual's goal is to best satisfy the motives associated with all simultaneously coactivated identities.

While achievement of identity motives when a single identity is activated likely do not pose inconsistent goals for an individual because these motives are experienced consistent with the associated overarching identity (Ashforth, 2001), the same experience may not hold in a coactivation episode. Even if two coactivated identities satisfy the same set of motives, it does not necessarily mean that satisfaction of one identity's motives is qualitatively consistent with the satisfaction of the motives for the other coactivated identity. For example, in a coactivation episode, in which the main function of both coactivated identities is to provide a sense of belongingness, if the behavioral requirements of an identity that need to be enacted to provide a sense of belongingness within the identity domain are different and conflicting with those of the other coactivated identity, satisfaction of belongingness within one identity domain might result in reduced feelings of belongingness in the other identity domain.

Although research suggests that *within*-identity motives are experienced simultaneously and are highly interrelated and complementary (Ashforth, 2001; Vignoles et al., 2006), different types and levels of identities (which can occur across identities) might satisfy these motives to varying degrees. For example, personal identities are more likely to satisfy the distinctiveness motive, whereas collective identities are more likely to satisfy the belongingness motive (Vignoles et al., 2006). In addition, various types of personal identifications (threat-focused, opportunity-focused, and closeness-focused) have been posited to satisfy different personal goals (i.e., needs) such as uncertainty reduction, self-enhancement, and belongingness, respectively (Ashforth, Schinoff, & Rogers, 2016). Therefore, depending on the situation and characteristics of coactivated identities, an individual might have a specific hierarchy of goals to accomplish. Accordingly, the higher an identity motive in the hierarchy of goals, the stronger the effect of satisfaction (or dissatisfaction) of that motive on subsequent emotional experiences. After the

following discussion of how individuals evaluate an identity coactivation episode, and the triggered subsequent emotional experiences, I will discuss four factors (i.e., level of coactivated identities, dimensions of the coactivation episode, centrality of coactivated identities to the sense of self, and individual need strength) that may affect the relative importance of motives within an episode's goal hierarchy and their effect on the intensity of subsequent emotional experience.

EVALUATION OF AN IDENTITY COACTIVATION EPISODE

How individuals emotionally experience a coactivation episode depends on how they cognitively evaluate and interpret the episode. Therefore, I adopt an appraisal theory of emotions (Frijda, 1987; Lazarus, 1991a, 1991b, 1994; Roseman, 1991; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) lens to examine such evaluation and subsequent emotional experiences. According to appraisal theory of emotions, emotional and affective experiences are the result of an individual's appraisal and interpretation of a given situation or event in terms of whether it is congruent or incongruent with that individual's goals in the situation and the ability to cope with incongruent events and goals (Lazarus, 1994; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Importantly, this theory also emphasizes the importance of the within-person experience across emotion-generating events (Beal, Weiss, Barros, & MacDermid, 2005; Weiss & Beal, 2005; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). The cognitive evaluation of an event takes place in two phases. In the primary appraisal phase, individuals evaluate the relevance of the event to their goals and well-being in positive or negative terms (i.e., goal congruent versus incongruent). In the secondary appraisal phase, individuals evaluate the event in more details in terms of its consequences, attributions, and coping potential.

Appraisal theory of emotions is an appropriate lens to examine coactivation episodes since episodes of identity coactivation are analogous to momentary events. Events can occur when entities, including individuals, teams, organizations, and environments collide (Morgeson

et al., 2015). When these entities are individual's identities, I argue that an identity coactivation episode occurs. The degree to which a coactivation episode results in emotional experience depends on how individuals cognitively evaluate the episode in terms of its relevance to their goals and/or overall well-being. In the primary appraisal phase, positive evaluation of an episode (goal congruence) results in positive emotions, whereas negative evaluation (goal incongruence) results in negative emotions. The specific nature of positive and negative emotions depends on the secondary evaluation of the event in terms of attribution of responsibility, or who is believed to be responsible for the goal attainment or goal impediment.

In the following sections, I first discuss the primary appraisal phase in which the episode is evaluated based on its relevance to attainment or impediment of coactivation episode goals (i.e., satisfaction or dissatisfaction of coactivated identities' motives). Then, I focus on the secondary appraisal phase and posit which emotions are more likely to be experienced during an identity coactivation episode. Finally, I derive a series of hypotheses for person- and situation-level factors (i.e., dimensions of coactivation episode, level of coactivated identities, centrality of coactivated identities to the sense of self, and individual need strength) that might influence the intensity of one's experienced emotions resulting from the coactivation episode.

Primary Appraisal Phase: Goal Congruence and Incongruence

As discussed earlier, individuals attempt to satisfy the identity motives of both coactivated identities in any coactivation episode. However, satisfaction of the identity motives associated with one coactivated identity might be diminished or enhanced depending on the aspects of the other coactivated identity, namely the aspects of identity core, identity content, and identity behavior (Ashforth, Harrison, & Corley, 2008). *Identity core* involves cognitive (I am 'A'), evaluative ('A' is important to me), and affective (I feel about 'A') elements of an identity.

Identity content involves values, beliefs, goals, knowledge, skills, and abilities associated with an identity. *Identity behavior* refers to a set of behaviors that are likely to result from identification with an identity. I argue that in the primary appraisal phase, if individuals perceive that the dimensions of one identity (e.g., identity behavior) help them satisfy identity motives of the other coactivated identity, they are more likely to perceive the episode as goal congruent. On the other hand, if they perceive that some aspect of one identity (e.g., identity content) results in dissatisfaction of the other identity's motives, they are more likely to perceive the episode as goal incongruent.

Furthermore, since individuals tend to have multiple goals to achieve in any coactivation episode, and hence there exists a hierarchy of goals based on their importance to the individual, it is possible that the elements of one identity help satisfy the identity motive(s) associated with the other identity, while the elements of the latter identity impede satisfaction of the identity motive(s) associated with the former. In such cases, I argue that the higher an identity motive is in the goal hierarchy, and hence the more important, the stronger the emotional reaction to the satisfaction or dissatisfaction of the identity motive.

Below, I examine how satisfaction of identity motives associated with an identity can be enhanced or diminished because of elements (i.e., identity core, identity content, and identity behavior) of another identity in an identity coactivation episode. While this effect is bidirectional (i.e., each identity can enhance or frustrate motives associated with the other identity), I only discuss such effects in one direction. Importantly, if satisfaction or dissatisfaction in both directions occurs, I acknowledge that multiple emotions might be experienced. It should also be noted that the focus of this section is to provide theoretical and empirical support for *how* the elements of an identity can influence satisfaction of identity motives associated with another

identity. However, since it is beyond the scope of this dissertation to provide a comprehensive list of antecedents as to *why* such an influence might occur, I do not provide any hypothesis in this section. Table 1 summarizes various mechanisms mentioned below that explain how the elements of an identity may influence motives of another identity.

Self-esteem. Satisfaction of the self-esteem motive associated with one identity might be enhanced or diminished because of the identity elements (i.e., core, content, and behavior) of another simultaneously coactivated identity. While self-esteem can be conceptualized as an individual's global judgement about their self-worth (global self-esteem), individuals also form domain-specific self-esteem associated with each of their self-representations or identities (Rosenberg, Schooler, Schoenbach, & Rosenberg, 1995; Woike & Baumgardner, 1993). Further, in addition to conceptualizing global and specific self-esteem as trait variables, both can be considered state variables that fluctuate momentarily depending on the situation (Crocker & Wolfe, 2001). Thus, I refer to self-esteem as a state level judgment of self-worth in a specific domain (e.g., a coactivated identity), which fluctuates from one's level of domain-specific trait self-esteem depending on situational factors (i.e., the elements of another coactivated identity).

Since self-esteem can be constructed based on an individual's own evaluation and the approval of other people (Franks & Marolla, 1976), in a coactivation episode, the satisfaction of the self-esteem motive of an identity can be enhanced or diminished by the elements of another identity in two important ways. First, through the process of reflected appraisal, individuals reflect on what others in an identity domain would think of their other coactivated identity, influencing their self-esteem within the latter identity. The process of reflected appraisal, or the looking-glass self (Cooley, 1956; Mead, 1934), posits that others' views and evaluations of us and our perception of such evaluations partly determine our self-concept, self-evaluation, and

self-worth. In other words, we learn to see ourselves as a result of social interaction with

significant others and how they see us. Therefore, self-esteem, as part of self-evaluation, is partly

based on the perception of how significant others appraise and respond to an individual's identity

(Gecas, 1982).

Literature on stereotype threat also informs us how the reflected appraisal process occurs

in a coactivation episode. The self-esteem motive associated with one's identity might be

negatively influenced by another identity in terms of stereotype threat regarding gender and

ethnic identities (Spencer, Steele, & Quinn, 1999; Steele, 1997; Steele & Aronson, 1995), gender

and professional identities (Miller, 2004), and pregnancy and professional identities (Ladge,

Clair, & Greenberg, 2012; Little, Major, Hinojosa, & Nelson, 2015). For example, a study by

Ladge and colleagues (2012) on identity transition of pregnant women in professional jobs

suggests that pregnant women reflect on what their coworkers think of them if they disclose their

pregnancy, and they might follow a rejection strategy in identity transition, ranging from hiding

pregnancy to taking additional responsibilities in order to protect their professional identity.

Thus, the satisfaction of the self-esteem motive associated with one identity (e.g., professional

identity) in a coactivation episode might be threatened if it is perceived that coworkers have a

negative view of one's identity (e.g., mother identity). Various studies have also documented that

people strategically hide or enact their social identities and employ social identity-based

impression management strategies to offset negative stereotyping (Roberts, 2005) or leverage

their identity's positive attributes to enhance/maintain self-esteem (Anderson, 1999; Bell, 1990;

Branscombe & Ellemers, 1998; Deaux & Ethier, 1998; Ely, 1995; Miller & Kaiser, 2001).

Second, satisfaction of the self-esteem motive of one identity can be enhanced or

diminished because of elements of another identity due to an individual's self-evaluation of

his/her other coactivated identity (Tesser, 1998). I argue that the identity core (e.g., identity affect) of an identity is one of the main factors that might enhance or diminish satisfaction of the self-esteem motive pertaining to another identity. Specifically, identity affect, which is the emotional significance attached to an identity (Ashforth et al., 2008; Tajfel, 1978), reflects whether an individual evaluates an identity positively or negatively (Ashforth et al., 2008; Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994). Such positive or negative emotional evaluation in an identity domain might enhance or diminish satisfaction of the self-esteem motive in another coactivated identity by affecting identity elements of the other coactivated identity. For example, negative evaluation of an identity in a coactivation episode can result in a negative evaluation of the coactivated identity and diminish satisfaction of the self-esteem motive within the latter identity. Such a type of coactivation episode corresponds with the concept of negative (positive) affective spillover in the work-nonwork literature, a mechanism through which work and family domains influence one another to generate similarities between the two domains in terms of affect, values, skills, and behaviors (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). Therefore, work-nonwork affective spillover can be viewed in terms of a coactivation episode, in which positive (or negative) emotional experiences in one identity domain enhance (or impede) satisfaction of the self-esteem motive associated with the other coactivated identity and are experienced as goal congruent (or incongruent).

Belongingness. The belongingness motive of an identity can also be satisfied or thwarted depending on elements of another coactivated identity. Because perception of similarity in terms of goals, values, interests, beliefs, and behaviors is at the core of the experience of belongingness (Ashforth, 2001; Mael & Ashforth, 2001), identity content (i.e., values, beliefs, goals, knowledge, skills, and abilities) and identity behavior dimensions of a coactivated identity can

enhance or impede the satisfaction of the belongingness motive within another coactivated identity depending on whether the values, beliefs, goals, and behaviors are conflicting or consistent with those of another identity. Throughout Miller's (2004) qualitative work on the experience of women engineers in the oil industry, underlying frustrations of the belongingness motive are apparent, ranging from just being different to being too emotional or not willing to attend golf tournaments. Other studies on the experience of women in engineering also document dissatisfaction of women's belongingness motives because of their gender identity (e.g., Bailyn, 1987; Dasgupta, 2011; Hatmaker, 2013; Settles, 2004). Hatmaker (2013), for example, argued that to be accepted depends on how much a person is perceived to be similar or complies with norms, and therefore, women engineers engage in various impression management and coping strategies to appear that they are similar and they belong.

Literature on invisible stigmatized identities in the workplace also supports the idea that elements of an identity can result in dissatisfaction of the belongingness motives within another identity (e.g., Clair, Beatty, Maclean, Clair, & Maclean, 2005; Corrigan & Penn, 1999; Crawford, 1996; W E Douglas Creed, DeJordy, & Lok, 2010; McLaughlin, Bell, & Stringer, 2004; Pachankis, 2007; Ragins, 2008; Ragins, Singh, & Cornwell, 2007). For example, Ragins and colleagues (Ragins, 2008; Ragins et al., 2007) argued that individuals with stigmatized identities face social isolation in the workplace and having supportive supervisors and coworkers provides a safe haven for them to disclose their stigmatized identities. From a coactivation episode perspective, in which, for example, sexual orientation identity and relational identity with the supervisor are activated, having a supportive and inclusive supervisor would enhance the satisfaction of the belongingness motive. On the other hand, a disapproving supervisor would

distort belongingness satisfaction and result in heightened feelings of fear and anxiety (Ragins et al., 2007).

In addition, various studies suggest that enacting certain aspects of an identity that do not fit within another identity domain might result in feelings of exclusion and rejection (Creed & Scully, 2011; Reid, 2015; Roberts & Roberts, 2007). For example, not complying with organizational norms and others' expected professional identity because of family responsibilities and behaviors might reduce feeling of belongingness. A quote from a qualitative study on expected versus experienced professional identity of consultants by Reid (2015) suggests that people may be excluded from a professional identity if they do not comply with the behavioral norms:

> "I took a two-week paternity leave. […] Then one of the partners said to me, 'You have a choice to make: Are you going to be a professional or are you going to just be an average person in your field? If you are going to be a professional then that means… nothing can be as important to you as your work.'" (p. 1007)

Distinctiveness. Satisfaction of the distinctiveness motive of an identity might also be enhanced or diminished depending on the elements of another coactivated identity—identity content in particular. An example of when satisfaction of the distinctiveness motive is enhanced can be seen in arguments of optimal distinctiveness theory (ODT; Brewer, 1991, 1993, 2007), which suggest that individuals strive to achieve a balance between assimilation and differentiation and will identify more strongly with social identities that can provide such a balance. Although ODT was first proposed to explain varying identification with different social groups, the theory has been applied to other levels of the self as well (e.g., Brewer & Weber, 1994; Kreiner, Hollensbe, & Sheep, 2006; Ormiston, 2015). For example, Brewer and Weber

(1994) argued that membership in sufficiently large and inclusive groups would satisfy an individual's need for belongingness and activates their need to be distinct from other members, resulting in activation of personal identities and the process of interpersonal comparison with in-groups. Such a process could be viewed as an identity coactivation episode, in which an individual's social identity and personal identity are active simultaneously. Consequently, if the interpersonal comparison with in-group(s) based on the content of the activated personal identity results in feelings of distinctiveness from other group members, the coactivated identity (i.e., personal identity) enhances the satisfaction of the distinctiveness motive in the activated social identity.

On the relationship between objective and perceived diversity within teams, Ormiston (2015) has also argued that when team members are too similar in terms of salient attributes or identities (gender/racial identity or functional identity), the satisfaction of the distinctiveness motive might be thwarted because of the shared gender/racial/functional identity within the team. Such arguments can be viewed as an identity coactivation episode in which team identity and gender identity are coactive, and the satisfaction of the distinctiveness motive is diminished when gender identity is not distinct from the prototypical member of the team. In other words, when all team members are female and gender and team identities are coactivated, an individual's motive to see him/herself as distinct and unique from teammates may not be satisfied because the content of gender identity overlaps extensively, or almost entirely, with that of team identity. Further, the literature on organizational mergers contends that individuals are more likely to identify with the new organization if that new organizational identity allows them to preserve their distinctiveness (Riketta, 2002; Riketta & Nienaber, 2007; Van Leeuwen & Van Knippenberg, 2003). Thus, when the new and old organizational identities are coactive, if the

new identity is perceived as not acknowledging the old identity nor treats individuals as distinct, the satisfaction of the distinctiveness motive may be diminished.

Efficacy. An identity's efficacy motive can also be (dis)satisfied because of the dimensions of another coactivated identity. Identity affect (i.e., emotional experiences that are elements of identity core) in one identity can satisfy or dissatisfy, depending on the emotion valence, feelings of efficacy in another identity domain, especially when a task is involved. Positive emotional experiences can enhance individual performance, and hence help satisfy the efficacy motive and feelings of effectiveness, while negative emotions can impede performance, and hence dissatisfy the efficacy motive. Such emotional experiences have received a great deal of attention in work-family literature through the concepts of strain-based conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985) and affective enrichment (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Strain-based conflict suggests that individuals experience conflict between their work and family domains when emotionally-based strain (anxiety, depression, fatigue, etc.) produced in one domain impedes their performance, and hence the satisfaction of efficacy motive, in another domain (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Similarly, affective enrichment occurs when affect produced in one domain enhances an individual's performance, and hence helps satisfy the efficacy motive, in another domain (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Looking at these constructs from an identity coactivation perspective, instances of strain-based conflict and affective enrichment can be thought of as an identity coactivation episode in which a work-related identity and nonwork-related identity are coactive. If performance within one identity is impeded because of affective experiences within another domain (e.g., cannot concentrate on a task because of experienced anger as a result of an argument with the spouse), the satisfaction of the efficacy motive within the work-related identity is diminished because of the affect experienced in the nonwork identity. On the other

hand, if the emotional experience within an identity domain (e.g., feeling proud about a child's success), results in higher motivation, task engagement, or performance in another identity domain, satisfaction of the efficacy motive is enhanced.

In addition, identity content (i.e., skills and knowledge) can enhance satisfaction of the efficacy motive in another identity when it is relevant to the tasks of the other coactivated identity. For example, Cheng and colleuges (2008) found that integration of gender and engineering identities as well as Asian and American identities resulted in higher innovative performance because the respondents' knowledge and skills within one identity domain (e.g., gender) helped them be more innovative in another domain (e.g., designing a product targeted to women). Theoretically, the occurrence of instrumental work-family enrichment (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) also aligns with the idea of identity enhancement in a coactivation episode, such that skills and resources gained in one identity domain transfer to the another identity domain, enhance performance, and hence enhance the satisfaction of the efficacy motive in the other domain.

Behavioral elements of an identity can also enhance/frustrate the efficacy need of another identity. Conflicting behaviors might diminish the satisfaction of the efficacy motive in a coactivation episode. For example, societal norms for being a good mother have been identified as a factor that pregnant women consider when constructing their new professional identity (Cuddy, Fiske, & Glick, 2004; Ladge et al., 2012), and behavioral expectations of their professional identity can also affect their feeling of efficacy as a mother. However, such influence is not limited to women. As one male employee puts it: "… I don't want to be raising a family, you know, while traveling or working 15-hour days" (Reid, 2015: 1003). Thus, behavioral expectations within an identity domain can impede the satisfaction of the efficacy

motive of another identity for men too. Such tension has also been documented in managing the work-nonwork interface for priests (Kreiner et al., 2006, 2009), which also aligns with the idea of behavior-based work-family conflict in which "[b]ehavior required in one role makes it difficult to fulfill requirements of another role" (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985: 78).

Primary Appraisal and Emotional Experience. While the preceding sections focused on providing theoretical and empirical support for how an identity might contribute to the satisfaction of the identity motives associated with another identity in an identity coactivation episode, this current section focuses on measurable aspects of the episode and hypothesizes about the consequences of such experiences following the primary appraisal of an episode. Although the primary appraisal phase is not the only factor that influences emotional experiences, and other factors within the secondary appraisal phase should also be considered when identifying discrete emotions (e.g., attribution of responsibility), certain emotions, such as happiness, sadness, and anxiety result mainly from an individual's evaluation of whether their goals have been achieved or frustrated (regardless of who bears the responsibility).

There is ample empirical evidence suggesting that sadness and happiness are purely outcome-dependent and might be experienced without any attribution (Smith, Haynes, Lazarus, & Pope, 1993; Weiner, 1985; Weiss, Suckow, & Cropanzano, 1999). Specifically, when something that is valued is gained or lost, happiness and sadness, respectively, are experienced regardless of attribution. It should also be noted that although some scholars treat sadness and happiness as polar opposites and mutually exclusive (e.g., Russell & Carroll, 1999), I treat sadness and happiness as emotions that can be experienced simultaneously, aligned with more recent evidence suggesting that mixed emotions of happiness and sadness can co-occur (Ersner-Hershfield, Mikels, Sullivan, & Carstensen, 2008; Larsen & Green, 2013; Larsen, McGraw, &

Cacioppo, 2001). For example, Larsen and colleagues (Larsen & Green, 2013; Larsen et al., 2001) found that although the majority of participants reported feeling of either happy or sad, there are some situations (e.g., watching the movie *Life is beautiful* or meaningful endings) can elicit both emotions. Such conceptualization of happiness and sadness (and positive and negative emotions in general) is particularly appropriate for an identity coactivation episode since there is a goal hierarchy that the individual is striving to achieve. Accordingly, while some goals might be satisfied and result in positive emotions such as happiness, other goals might be frustrated and result in negative emotion, sadness. Thus, individuals might experience mixed feelings when motives are satisfied.

Specifically, I argue that in an identity coactivation episode, sadness occurs as a result of the contribution of one identity to the dissatisfaction of one or more (or a combination of) self-esteem, belongingness, distinctiveness, and efficacy motives of another identity; whereas, happiness occurs when the satisfaction of these motives is enhanced due to another identity. The main reason for such feelings of sadness or happiness is that self-esteem, efficacy, belongingness, and distinctiveness motives are considered fundamental human needs, and hence are valued highly be individuals. Therefore, when an identity contributes to the (dis)satisfaction of the motives associated with another identity, individuals are likely to experience that they have gained (lost) something of value and feel happy (sad) as a result. Empirical studies support this argument. For example, Vignoles and colleagues (2006) found that satisfaction of identity motives for an identity, including self-esteem, belongingness, distinctiveness, and efficacy, was positively related to happiness, as well as centrality of that identity for the sense of self. Further, Reis and colleagues found that feelings of being efficacious and connected result in the experience of happiness (Reis, Sheldon, Gable, Roscoe, & Ryan, 2000). Larsen (1974) also

found motive frustration was related to sadness for the participants who were oriented toward approval seeking (e.g., belongingness). In other studies, self-esteem fully mediated the relationship between narcissism and lower sadness. (Sedikides, Rudich, Gregg, Kumashiro, & Rusbult, 2004).

Anxiety, on the other hand, is experienced as a result of a threat to ego-identity or to the personal meaning and structure in which a person is invested, regardless of whether someone is to blame (Lazarus, 1994). Accordingly, when an identity contributes to the dissatisfaction of identity motives associated with another identity, I contend that individuals are also likely to experience anxiety because the episode is threatening to their ego-identity (e.g., efficacy) or the meaning structure that they are invested (e.g., belongingness). Empirical support for the effect of low self-esteem and efficacy on the experience of anxiety and avoidance-oriented behaviors is well established in the literature (Chen, Gully, & Eden, 2004; Egloff & Krohne, 1996; Greenberg et al., 1992; Lerner & Keltner, 2000, 2001; Nummenmaa & Niemi, 2004). Low self-esteem, for example, has been linked to higher social anxiety (Greenwald, Bellezza, & Banaji, 1988; Riggio, Throckmorton, & Depaola, 1990), and higher state anxiety (Chen et al., 2004), and high self-esteem serves anxiety-buffering function (Greenberg et al., 1992). Similarly, lower self-efficacy and frustration of competence and autonomy needs have been linked to more worrying before taking an exam (Blair, O'Neil Jr., & Price, 1999) and increased levels of anxiety (Deci et al., 2001). Therefore, in an identity coactivation episode, when satisfaction of self-esteem and efficacy motives of an identity is threatened because of elements of another identity, individuals are more likely to experience anxiety. For example, in a diverse team with an unequal ratio of ingroup/outgroup, minorities' perception of control, and hence their efficacy motive, might be

threatened and result in anxiety (Garcia-Prieto, Bellard, & Schneider, 2003; Vanman & Miller, 1993).

Belongingness and distinctiveness motives, on the other hand, correspond with meaning structures regarding whether a person feels distinct from others (distinctiveness) or is affiliated with others (belongingness). Threat to such meaning structures, regardless of the cause, should also result in the experience of anxiety. This argument is in line with various studies on intrinsic need satisfaction, suggesting that impaired satisfaction of relatedness needs is related to anxiety and depressive symptoms (Baard, Deci, & Ryan, 2004; Baumeister & Tice, 1990; Deci et al., 2001; Leary, 1990; Mathes, Adams, & Davies, 1985). Further, ostracism has also been linked to feelings of threat to the belonging need and the experience of sadness (Williams, 2007; Williams, Shore, & Grahe, 1998).

The aforementioned ideas on motive satisfaction in relation to sadness, happiness, and anxiety form the basis for my first set of hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1a: Contribution of an identity to the satisfaction of the identity motives of

another identity is positively related to feelings of happiness.

Hypothesis 1b: Contribution of an identity to the satisfaction of the identity motives of

another identity is negatively related to feelings of sadness.

Hypothesis 1c: Contribution of an identity to the satisfaction of the identity motives of

another identity is negatively related to feelings of anxiety.

Secondary Appraisal and Emotional Experience

While the primary appraisal phase concerns the relevance of an episode to the individual's goals (Lazarus, 1994; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) and may result in attribution-independent emotions such as happiness, sadness, and anxiety, other attribution-dependent

emotions, such as anger, guilt, shame, pride, and gratitude, might also follow an identity coactivation episode. However, the nature of the relationship with these emotions depends on the individual's evaluation in terms of the secondary appraisal phase. Although various appraisal theories of emotions propose different dimensions to be evaluated in the secondary phase (e.g., outcome certainty, agency, etc.), I focus on one of the major dimensions proposed by Lazarus (1991a, 1991b, 1994): attribution. In the following sections, I discuss how this dimension is assessed and how such evaluation influences the emotional experiences of an identity coactivation episode.

All people have an innate tendency to understand causes of behaviors and outcomes to make sense of their surroundings (Heider, 1958), which ultimately influences their emotional and behavioral responses (Weiner, 1985). Internal attribution of a cause is often followed by self-focused emotions, such as pride, guilt, and shame, whereas external attribution of a cause is often followed by other-focused emotions such as anger and appreciation (Harvey, Madison, Martinko, Crook, & Crook, 2014; Weiner, 1985). To attribute a cause, however, the mere evaluation of who bears the responsibility is not enough, but rather the individual should believe the responsible party had control over his/her actions for the occurrence of the negative or positive outcomes (Lazarus, 1994). Therefore, someone is not externally blamed for frustration of a goal (low goal satisfaction) if it is believed that his/her action was an accident or was not controllable. In appraisal theories of emotion, other terms, such as agency (Ellsworth & Smith, 1988a; Roseman, 1991; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985), accountability (Smith & Lazarus, 1993), and responsibility (Frijda, 1987) have also been used to refer to attribution.

Accordingly, in an identity coactivation episode, in which satisfaction of one or more identification motives is diminished or enhanced because of elements of another identity,

individuals strive to understand what caused the goal (in)congruence and the party to attribute the blame/credit. Although one might argue that the cause would always be assessed as internal since elements of one's identity would enhance/thwart the satisfaction of identity motives of another identity for *the same* individual, I argue that attribution might also be external in cases where the elements of the opposing/enhancing identity have not been internalized and are imposed on the individual during the coactivation episode. For example, in a coactivation episode, reduction in satisfaction of the efficacy motive as a parent because of the behavioral requirement of a 15-hour workday within the professional identity can be attributed to the incongruence between expected and experienced professional identity (Reid, 2015), suggesting that attributes of the professional identity have not been fully internalized. I argue that in such cases, individuals are more likely to attribute the cause of goal (in)congruence to external forces (e.g., the partner in relational identity, or the collective group in general).

The process of reflected appraisal (Cooley, 1956; Gecas, 1982; Mead, 1934) can also be a case in which noninternalized identity elements, such as identity stereotypes, are imposed upon the individual and can result in external attribution. For example, when the self-esteem of an individual with a stigmatized identity, such as a homosexual identity, is threatened because of negative views of other people and through the process of reflected appraisal, he/she is more likely to blame others for frustration of the self-esteem motive because it is the negative view of others that results in low self-esteem rather than internalized values and attributes of his/her own homosexual identity.

Anger. Threat to any identity motive associated with an identity because of elements of another identity in a coactivation episode will usually be followed by the experience of negatively-valenced emotions (e.g., Kernis, Cornell, Sun, Berry, & Harlow, 1993; Rhodewalt,

Madrian, & Cheney, 1998). However, the exact nature of the resulting negative discrete emotions depends on the individual's evaluation regarding the attribution of responsibility. I argue that when the attribution is external, anger is the most likely emotional experience. Anger is usually experienced when what is at stake is the individual's self- and social-esteem aspect of ego-identity and someone is to blame for the goal frustration (Lazarus, 1994). Therefore, anger is the most likely emotional experience when an individual believes someone else is to blame for an attack on their ego-identity (Lazarus, 1994).

External attribution for diminished satisfaction of the self-esteem motive suggests that the individual perceives the coactivation episode to be insulting and he/she has been treated as lesser than what he/she thinks of himself/herself. For example, if a supervisor makes negative remarks about an employee's racial identity when the employee positively identifies with his/her race, the employee is likely to feel insulted by their supervisor and experience anger as a result. Empirical studies also suggest that threatened egotism is related to aggression, hostility, and failure to self-regulate (Bushman & Baumeister, 1998), especially for those with a high level of self-esteem (Baumeister, Heatherton, & Tice, 1993; Baumeister, Smart, & Boden, 1996), suggesting that when satisfaction of the self-esteem motive is threatened in an identity coactivation episode, individuals are likely to experience anger.

When satisfaction of the belongingness motive is threatened because of elements of another identity and attribution is external, individuals feel they have been excluded from a valued group or relationship and blame someone else for the exclusion. In such cases, people are more likely to experience anger. For example, if an individual is socially excluded from his/her team because of their sexual orientation identity, anger is likely to result if the individual blames a teammate for their exclusion. Empirical studies on social exclusion support this idea. For

example, interpersonal rejection has been linked to feelings of anger and aggressive behaviors (Leary, Twenge, & Quinlivan, 2006), particularly when individuals reported high rejection sensitivity (Ayduk, Gyurak, & Luerssen, 2008). Further, studies show that ostracism is linked to feelings of isolation and result in anger and anti-social behaviors (Chow, Tiedens, & Govan, 2008; Zadro, Williams, & Richardson, 2004).

In addition, when satisfaction of the efficacy motive of an identity is thwarted in an identity coactivation episode because of elements of another identity and the attribution is external, individuals are more likely to perceive someone else's actions as an insult to their efficacy, and subsequently experience anger. For example, in a coactivation episode in which occupational identity of a scientist and organizational identity are coactive, the scientist might experience lower satisfaction of the efficacy motive within the scientist identity because the organization prohibits common scientist identity behaviors of sharing knowledge and information with other scientists outside the organization (Stryker & Macke, 1978). In such episodes, scientists are more likely to experience anger if they attribute blame to an external entity (e.g., the organization) for low satisfaction of their efficacy motive within their scientist identity. Literature on work-family conflict also supports the idea. For example, Judge, Ilies, and Scott (2006) found that experience of work-to-family conflict is associated with anger and hostility at work.

Taken together, these arguments suggest that when the satisfaction of an identity motive associated with an identity is threatened by another identity and someone external is to blame for the threat (i.e., external attribution), individuals are more likely to experience anger because they believe someone is responsible for an insult or threat to the meaning structure the individual is invested in. Thus, I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 2: Attribution moderates the negative relationship between the contribution of an identity to the satisfaction of the identity motives of another identity and feelings of anger, such that the relationship is stronger when attribution is external versus internal.

Guilt and Shame. As mentioned above, threat to the satisfaction of any identity motive associated with an identity because of elements of another identity in a coactivation episode will usually be followed by the experience of negatively-valenced emotions. However, the exact nature of the resulting negative discrete emotions depends on the individual's evaluation regarding the attribution of responsibility. In contrast to anger, I argue that when the attribution is internal, guilt or shame are the most likely emotional experiences. While very similar, shame and guilt are distinct emotions and result from different appraisal patterns (Lazarus, 1994; Tracy & Robins, 2006). Specifically, guilt is more likely to be experienced when an individual feels he/she has violated an internal or external norm or moral value, while shame is more likely to be experienced when the individual has failed to live up to their ego-ideal (Lazarus, 1994). Furthermore, shame is more likely to be experienced when an individual believes he/she did not have control over the outcome, whereas guilt is experienced when the outcome is controllable and the individual could have done something to avoid the negative outcome (Tracy & Robins, 2006).

Accordingly, in an identity coactivation episode, when satisfaction of the identity motives of an identity is threatened because of elements of another identity, feelings of shame and guilt are experienced. For example, in case of the self-esteem motive, in an identity coactivation episode in which relational identity with supervisor and smoker identity are coactive, individuals are likely to experience shame if the supervisor has a negative view of smokers because the smoker identity is likely not a strong positive identity of the individual. Empirical studies also

suggest that when self-esteem is threatened and the individual is believed to be responsible, self-relevant emotions such as shame are the most likely emotional experience (Brown & Dutton, 1995; Brown & Marshall, 2001). In addition, losses in the experience of self-esteem have been argued to be linked to self-conscious emotions such as shame (Leary, Tambor, Terdal, & Downs, 1995).

Similar arguments can be made for the efficacy motive. For example, if an individual fails to attend to their spouse's important life event because of their work responsibilities, his/her satisfaction with the efficacy motive as a spouse (e.g., a good spouse should be supportive) has been threatened because of his/her job identity, and guilt is likely experienced because the individual has violated a norm or moral value. Various studies on the work-nonwork interface document such feelings of guilt after experiencing work-to-family conflict (Glavin, Schieman, & Reid, 2011; Judge et al., 2006; Livingston & Judge, 2008). For example, Livingston and Judge (2008) found that gender role orientation moderated the relationship between the experience of work-family conflict and guilt, and hence frustration of the efficacy motive in one domain (e.g., family) because of another domain (e.g., work) and the resulting experience of guilt. Specifically, they found that those with a traditional orientation experienced more guilt when they experienced family-to-work conflict while those with an egalitarian orientation experienced more guilt when they experienced work-to-family conflict. As such, perceptions of norm violation increased the likelihood of guilt. On the other hand, individuals are more likely to experience shame when the satisfaction of the efficacy motive associated with an identity has been threatened by elements of another identity when they perceive they have failed to live up to their own ideal aspirations. For example, Brown and Dutton (1995) found that individuals were more

likely to experience shame and embarrassment after failure on a task, which is an ideal aspiration that individual strive to achieve.

Similarly, when the cause of the threat to the meaning structure (i.e., satisfaction of belongingness and distinctiveness motives) is attributed internally, guilt may also be experienced because individuals think that they are responsible for a moral transgression (Lazarus, 1994). For example, if an individual feels he/she has been excluded from their team because of his/her involvement in behaviors attributed to another identity, and attribution is internal, the individual is more likely to experience guilt because of the feeling that he/she has done something wrong, which could have been avoided. Together, these ideas lead to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3: Attribution moderates the negative relationship between the contribution of an identity to the satisfaction of the identity motives of another identity and feelings of (a) shame and (b) guilt, such that the relationships are stronger when attribution is internal versus external.

Gratitude. Enhancement to the satisfaction of any identity motive associated with an identity because of elements of another identity in a coactivation episode is generally followed by the experience of positively-valenced emotions. However, the exact nature of certain resulting discrete emotions depends on attribution of responsibility. I argue that when the attribution is external, gratitude is the most likely emotional experience. People usually experience gratitude when someone affirms any or all aspects of ego-identity (Lazarus, 1994) or when someone is credited for a positive outcome that is important to the self (Ellsworth & Smith, 1988a; Lazarus, 1994). Accordingly, in a coactivation episode, when credit is given to someone else for the enhancement in satisfaction of the identity motives, the person credited has helped the beneficiary affirm their coactivated identity, increase effectiveness within the other identity

domain, or heighten perceived inclusion within their identity domain, and therefore, gratitude should follow. For example, when a supervisor is credited for enhancement in the satisfaction self-esteem motive because of his/her positive remarks about an individual's other identity (e.g., cultural identity) and affirming that identity, satisfaction of self-esteem is enhanced and the individual is likely to experience gratitude toward the supervisor. Similarly, when a coworker is credited for helping the individual feel distinct and distinguished as a teammate because of their coactivated personal identity, if the coworker is given the credit, the individual is likely to experience gratitude toward that coworker. Thus, regardless of the target, a heightened sense of gratitude should occur. Accordingly, I hypothesize:

> *Hypothesis 4:* Attribution moderates the positive relationship between the contribution of an identity to the satisfaction of the identity motives of another identity and feelings of gratitude, such that the relationship is stronger when attribution is external versus internal.

Pride. As discussed above, enhancement to the satisfaction of any identity motive associated with an identity because of elements of another identity in a coactivation episode should be followed by the experience of positively-valenced emotions in general. However, the exact nature of certain resulting discrete emotions positive in nature depends on attribution of responsibility. Specifically, I argue that when attribution is internal, pride is the most likely emotional experience. Pride is a type of self-relevant emotion which is more likely to be experienced when self- or social-esteem is at stake and the individual credits the goal attainment internally (Brown & Dutton, 1995; Brown & Marshall, 2001; Lazarus, 1994). As Lazarus (1994) explains, pride is experienced with "enhancement of one's ego-identity by taking credit for a valued object or achievement, either our own or that of someone or group with whom we

identify" (p. 271). Therefore, when the individual takes credit for the enhancement of any identity motive in a coactivation episode, he or she is more likely to feel proud of himself/herself because the person recognizes him/her own self for the attainment of a positive outcome (i.e., satisfaction of identity motives).

Regarding specific motives, when satisfaction of the self-esteem motive is enhanced because of elements of another identity, and attribution is internal, pride is likely experienced because the individual credits him/herself for enhancement of his/her ego-identity. Various empirical studies support this argument. For example, increased self-esteem has been linked to experience of pride (Leary et al., 1995; Scheff, Retzinger, & Ryan, 1989). Genuine self-esteem has also been linked to feelings of authentic pride (Tracy, Cheng, Robins, & Trzesniewski, 2009).

Similar arguments can also be made for belongingness and distinctiveness motives. For example, if an employee's distinctiveness motive as a team member is enhanced because of a personal identity (e.g., intelligent), the employee is more likely to attribute the enhancement of the distinctiveness motive within his/her team identity internally, hence the experience of pride. Further, various empirical studies suggest that feelings of belongingness and distinctiveness are positively related to pride. For example, the acculturation and adjustment literature suggests that a feeling of belonging is related to pride in one's ethnicity (Nicassio, 1983; Persky, 2005; Phinney, 1990). Similarly, Leszczensky and colleagues found that optimal level of distinctiveness within groups is related to an individual's ethnic pride (Leszczensky, Flache, Stark, & Munniksma, in press). Pride has also been associated with an increased sense of similarity to others (Oveis, Horberg, & Keltner, 2010), which helps satisfy the belongingness motive. Studies have also documented that consumers experience pride when they purchase unique products, suggesting that satisfaction of the distinctiveness motive results in the

experience of pride. Accordingly, in an identity coactivation episode, in which elements of an identity help satisfy belongingness and distinctiveness motives associated with the other identity, individuals should experience pride.

As previously mentioned, pride is a self-conscious emotion that is experienced when a positive outcome, relevant to the self and ego-identity, is attributed internally (Brown & Dutton, 1995; Brown & Marshall, 2001; Lazarus, 1994). In general, pride is the most common emotional experience after successful completion of a task and the satisfaction of the efficacy motive (Brown & Dutton, 1995). Therefore, when the individual takes credit for the satisfaction of his/her efficacy motive in a coactivation episode, he or she is more likely to feel proud of himself/herself. For example, multiracial individuals are more likely to experience pride if they perceive the behaviors associated with their racial identities as compatible (Cheng & Lee, 2009), supposedly because their differing identities increase effectiveness in various situations via satisfaction of their efficacy motives. Altogether, these arguments suggest that when satisfaction of an identity motive is enhanced because of elements of another identity and the attribution is internal, pride is the most likely emotional experience. As such, I hypothesize:

> *Hypothesis 5:* Attribution moderates the positive relationship between the contribution of
> an identity to the satisfaction of the identity motives of another identity and feelings of
> pride, such that the relationship is stronger when attribution is internal versus external.

Goal Hierarchy and Intensity of Emotional Experience

As discussed earlier, individuals have a personally-derived hierarchy of identity motives (i.e., self-esteem, belongingness, distinctiveness, and efficacy) associated with each coactivated identity in any identity coactivation episode. Accordingly, each motive associated with an identity moves up or down in the goal hierarchy depending on individual-level characteristics

and situational features that may be activated in specific coactivation episode. The higher an identity motive within the goal hierarchy of the episode, the more important it is to the individual, and hence its (dis)satisfaction has stronger influence on one's emotional experience. As such, I identify four factors that might influence goal hierarchy and subsequent emotional experience in the context of an identity coactivation episode: (a) level of coactivated identities, (b) dimensions of coactivation episode (i.e., actors and demands), (c) centrality of coactivated identities to the sense of self, and (d) individual need strength.

Level of coactivated identities. Although the various identification motives of an identity are correlated and usually experienced simultaneously, each identity satisfies these motives to a varying degree (Ashforth, 2001). As an example, a relational identity derived from a friendship is more likely to satisfy the belongingness motive rather than the distinctiveness motive, whereas a personal identity is more likely to satisfy the distinctiveness motive. One factor that influences which motives are more important and more likely to be experienced in the enactment of a particular identity during a coactivation episode is the *level of the identity*. According to past research, each identity level has a different source of self-worth and motivation (Brewer & Gardner, 1996; Cooper & Thatcher, 2010; Leavitt & Sluss, 2015). Identity has often been categorized into three levels (or selves): individual, relational, and collective (Ashforth et al., 2008; Brewer & Gardner, 1996). The collective level of the self involves defining aspects of the self based on group membership or social categories (Brewer & Gardner, 1996; Jackson, Colquitt, Wesson, & Zapata-Phelan, 2006). The relational self refers to defining aspects of the self in terms of dyadic relationships with significant others (Andersen & Chen, 2002; Brewer & Gardner, 1996; Sluss & Ashforth, 2007). The individual level of the self (i.e.,

personal identities), on the other hand, refers to defining the self in terms of unique attributes compared to others (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Brewer & Gardner, 1996).

I posit that the level associated with coactivated identities may influence the goal hierarchy, such that identity level influences how identity motives are structured in terms of the importance within an identity domain because various identity levels have different sources of self-worth and motivate individual behaviors differently. Specifically, individuals with collective identities evaluate their self-worth based on their ability to adhere to group norms and values (Brewer & Gardner, 1996), and, as such, have higher self-esteem if the group is successful and has higher social standing relative to other groups (R. E. Johnson et al., 2010). Therefore, when a collective identity (e.g., your extended family) is salient, individuals are motivated to behave in ways consistent with the group's norms and goals, suggesting that satisfaction of the belongingness motive (i.e., depersonalized belongingness) is more important than other motives when enacting collective identities (Cooper & Thatcher, 2010; Leavitt & Sluss, 2015).

Alternatively, the self-worth of individuals at the relational level of the self is a function of reflected appraisal, appropriate role behavior, and the quality of the specified relationship (Andersen & Chen, 2002; Brewer & Gardner, 1996). In addition, people are motivated to enhance the well-being of their relationship partner (e.g., the spouse; Johnson et al., 2010, 2006). Altogether, these ideas suggest that satisfaction of the belongingness motive (i.e., personalized belongingness) is more important in identity enactment of relational identities compared to other identities (Cooper & Thatcher, 2010; Leavitt & Sluss, 2015). Supporting this idea, people with an interdependent sense of self (e.g., relationalists) have been found to value belongingness, family, harmonious relationships, and fitting in (Gardner, Gabriel, & Lee, 1999; Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Therefore, when a relational level of self is salient, self-evaluation is derived from the

ability of the individual to live up to the relationship's expectations in an attempt to demonstrate fidelity to the relationship partner (Leavitt & Sluss, 2015; Sluss & Ashforth, 2007).

The basis of self-evaluation for the individual level of the self rather than the collective or relational levels, on the other hand, is an individual's traits when compared to other relevant people or in-groups (Brewer & Gardner, 1996). Self-worth is enhanced when individuals have a positive evaluation of their traits compared to others, suggesting that satisfaction of distinctiveness and efficacy motives are more important in enactment of individual-level identities (Cooper & Thatcher, 2010; Leavitt & Sluss, 2015). In addition, people with an independent sense of self (e.g., individualists) value freedom, independence, uniqueness, and self-expression (Gardner et al., 1999; Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Therefore, I contend that in an identity coactivation episode, when an individual-level identity is salient, self-evaluation is derived from the individual's ability to differentiate himself/herself from others in the coactivation episode and their relative performance within that domain. Thus, satisfaction of distinctiveness and efficacy motives are more paramount for identities at the individual level.

Importantly, numerous studies support these aforementioned arguments. For example, Vignoles and colleagues (Easterbrook & Vignoles, 2012; Vignoles et al., 2006) demonstrate that mean ratings of identity motives differ across levels of self-representation. Specifically, they found that distinctiveness and self-esteem motives were rated higher for individual characteristics (individual self) compared to personal relationships (relational self) and group membership (collective self), whereas belongingness was rated higher for personal relationships than for individual characteristics and group membership (Vignoles et al., 2006). Easterbrook and Vignoles (2012) found that self-esteem, belongingness, and efficacy predicted changes in individual's identification with interpersonal groups, such as friendship groups, whereas self-

esteem and distinctiveness predicted changes in individual's identification with social categories, such as religion, race, and gender. Accordingly, I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 6a: Identity level moderates the relationship between the contribution of an identity to the satisfaction of the belongingness motive of another identity and felt emotions, such that the relationship is stronger when the focal identity is at the collective or relational level versus when it is at the individual level.

Hypothesis 6b: Identity level moderates the relationship between the contribution of an identity to the satisfaction of the efficacy and distinctiveness motives of another identity and felt emotions, such that the relationship is stronger when the focal identity is at the individual level versus when it is at the relational or collective level.

Dimensions of a coactivation episode. Actors and demands dimensions of an identity coactivation episode may also influence the importance of identity motives within one's hierarchy of goals during an episode. As mentioned earlier, the presence of actors, or border keepers, within an identity domain communicates behavioral norms and expectations to an individual. Such communication of norms and expectations might give rise to the need to satisfy the belongingness motive, both personalized and depersonalized, within the identity domain especially when the relationship with the actor is in a qualifying stage and the actor is in a position of power compared to the individual. Sheldon and Bettencourt (2002), for example, found that in a group context, group inclusion was the most important psychological need to be satisfied. Brandstätter (1983) also found that respondents reported higher frequency, and higher satisfaction of the belongingness motive, when other people were present with them. Therefore, for example, if an actor from the collective level of self is present (e.g., someone with the same racial identity), individuals are more motivated to behave in ways compatible with norms and

expectations that signal similarity and satisfy their belongingness need within the same identity

domain. On the other hand, if an actor from the relational level of self is present with the

individual (e.g., a supervisor), individuals are motivated to behave consistent with norms and

expectations to maintain a quality relationship and satisfy their personalized belongingness need

within the relational identity. Therefore, in a coactivation episode in which actors from the

domain of any coactivated identity, either relational level or collective level, are present,

satisfaction of the belongingness need within that identity would be higher in the goal hierarchy

of the coactivation episode, and hence its satisfaction or frustration results in stronger emotional

experience.

> *Hypothesis 7:* Actors moderate the relationship between the contribution of an identity to
>
> the satisfaction of the belongingness motive of another identity and felt emotions, such
>
> that the relationship is stronger when an actor from the focal domain is present versus
>
> when an actor from that domain is not present.

The demand dimension of a coactivation episode, on the other hand, might give rise to

the importance of the efficacy motive, or feelings of competence, control, and power, during the

episode. Specifically, an individual's feeling of efficacy is a function of how much control and

power the individual has and how effective and competent the individual is in responding to

demands and task requirements of the episode. Various conceptions of the efficacy motive

suggest that efficacy is a fundamental human motive and individuals strive to feel in control and

be a master of their environment (Haidt & Rodin, 1999). For example, White's (1959) and

Harter's (1978) formulation of effectance motivation (i.e., a motivation for competence, mastery,

control, and feeling of efficacy) suggests that individuals have an innate "instinct to master" their

environment. Further, since one of the main determinants of efficacy is "enactive mastery" or

personal achievement (Bandura, 1977), when confronted with a demand or task, individuals

strive to effectively master that task in order to satisfy feelings of competence and efficacy.

Therefore, in an identity coactivation episode in which one of the coactivated identities poses a

demand on an individual, satisfaction of the efficacy motive associated with the demanding

identity would be higher in the hierarchy of goals. The higher a motive in the hierarchy of goals,

the stronger the effect of its (dis)satisfaction on subsequent emotions. Thus, the extent to which

the other identity contributes to the satisfaction of the efficacy motive of the focal identity when

demands are involved, the resulting emotions are likely stronger.

> *Hypothesis 8:* Demands moderate the relationship between the contribution of an identity
>
> to the satisfaction of the efficacy motive of another identity and felt emotions, such that
>
> the relationship is stronger when demands are higher within the focal identity versus
>
> when demands are lower.

Identity centrality of coactivated identities. The degree of importance assigned to

coactivated identities in an identity coactivation episode may also influence goal hierarchy

because the satisfaction of associated identity motives derived from more significant, or

important, identity (relative to less significant identities) are more central to an individual's sense

of self-worth (Leavitt & Sluss, 2015). Although individuals have a general sense of identity

importance (e.g., identification and identity centrality; Ashforth, 2001), the evaluation can vary

across situations in that less important identities may become more salient depending on

situational cues (identity salience; Oakes, 1987). Also, the more central or salient an identity is to

the sense of self, the stronger its effect on an individual's behaviors and his/her motivation to

satisfy identity-relevant motives (e.g., Leavitt, Reynolds, Barnes, Schilpzand, & Hannah, 2012).

Accordingly, in an identity coactivation episode, when one coactivated identity is notably more

important than the other identity, individuals are more likely to strive to satisfy the set of identity

motives associated with the highest saliency identity because that identity is more self-defining.

For example, in an identity coactivation episode in which a national and professional identity are

coactivated, if the national identity is more central to the sense of self, the individual is more

likely to strive to satisfy identity motives underlying the national identity (e.g., the belongingness

motive) than those associated with professional identity. Therefore, I argue that the identity

motives associated with the more central or salient coactivated identity are higher in the goal

hierarchy of a coactivation episode.

> *Hypothesis 9:* Identity centrality moderates the relationship between the contribution of
>
> an identity to the satisfaction of the identity motives of another identity and felt emotions,
>
> such that the relationship is stronger when identity centrality is higher (versus lower) for
>
> the focal identity.

Individual need strength. While self-esteem, distinctiveness, belongingness, and

efficacy motives have been identified as fundamental human needs (Ashforth, 2001; Bandura,

1977; Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Brewer, 1991; Gecas, 1982; Steele, 1988), individuals differ in

the general strength and importance placed on these motives (Leary, Kelly, Cottrell, &

Schreindorfer, 2013; Snyder & Fromkin, 1980). Therefore, I argue that the stronger a motive is to

the individual in general, the higher the need is in the hierarchy of goals during a coactivation

episode because individuals are more motivated to satisfy those overarching needs. Various

studies support this argument. For example, studies show that people with a high level of need to

belong are more likely to affiliate with an identity based on its social attributes (Leary et al.,

2013), attend to situational social cues (Van Bavel, Swencionis, O'Connor, & Cunningham,

2012), misinterpret events in an attempt to feel socially accepted (Carvallo & Pelham, 2006), and

exhibit strong negative emotional responses to social exclusion and rejection (Leary et al., 2013).

On the other hand, people with a high level of distinctiveness need are more likely to describe

themselves as distinct and unique (Snyder & Fromkin, 1980) and purchase unusual, self-defining

products (Lynn & Harris, 1997; Tian, Bearden, & Hunter, 2001). Further, individuals differ in the

strength of their needs for autonomy, competence, and achievement that correspond with the

efficacy motive. Individuals with a high level of need for achievement maintain high standards

and set more difficult goals (Campbell, 1982; Phillips & Gully, 1997), and they try harder to

achieve their goals (Matsui, Okada, & Kakuyama, 1982). Altogether, this suggests that

individuals differ in terms of strength of these motives at the person-level, and they are more

motivated to satisfy a motive during a coactivation episode if they have a stronger general need

to satisfy it. Therefore, in terms of goal hierarchy, the stronger an individual's overall need to

satisfy a specific identification motive, the higher the motive is in the goal hierarchy of a

coactivation episode.

> *Hypothesis 10a:* Need strength moderates the relationship between the contribution of an
>
> identity to the satisfaction of the belongingness motive of another identity and felt
>
> emotions, such that the relationship is stronger for those higher in need for belongingness
>
> versus those lower in need for belongingness.
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> *Hypothesis 10b:* Need strength moderates the relationship between the contribution of an
>
> identity to the satisfaction of the distinctiveness motive of another identity and felt
>
> emotions, such that the relationship is stronger for those higher in need for distinctiveness
>
> versus those lower in need for distinctiveness.
>
> *Hypothesis 10c:* Need strength moderates the relationship between the contribution of an
>
> identity to the satisfaction of the efficacy motive of another identity and emotions, such

that the relationship is stronger for those higher in need for efficacy versus those lower in need for efficacy.

CONSEQUENCES OF IDENTITY COACTIVATION EPISODE

Thus far, I have discussed how individual's evaluations of an identity coactivation episode can result in various emotional experiences. Concentrating only on emotions-generating identity coactivation episodes, I now direct my focus to the consequences associated with these episodes. Behavioral outcomes immediately following an emotion-generating identity coactivation episode depend on the nature of emotional experience. While one of the most common approaches utilized to understand outcomes of an emotion-generating event is to distinguish emotions based on their valence or hedonic tone (positive versus negative emotion; Watson, Wiese, Vaidya, & Tellegen, 1999), such a distinction may mask important differences between emotions with the same valence. As an alternative, incorporating an approach-avoidance framework of emotions (in addition to valence) can better help distinguish between emotional experiences. The approach-avoidance framework posits that humans have a tendency to approach positive experiences and avoid negative ones, and most phenomena can be categorized as approach or avoidance depending on whether they facilitate approach or avoidance motivations and behaviors (Elliot, 1999; Elliot & Church, 1997).

Although positive and negative emotions have been traditionally categorized as approach and avoidance motivations, respectively, more recently scholars have found that not all negatively-valenced emotions can be classified as having underlying avoidance motivations (Carver & Harmon-Jones, 2009; Lerner & Keltner, 2001; Raghunathan & Pham, 1999). For example, while both anger and anxiety are categorized as having negative valence, there are distinct action tendencies associated with each: anger's action tendency is to fight (approach),

whereas anxiety's action tendency is to flight/free (avoid; Lazarus, 1994; Lerner & Keltner, 2001). Further, the approach-avoidance framework suggests that different emotions solicit distinct action tendencies: approach emotions (e.g., anger, guilt, and pride) are more likely to motivate people to approach others, whereas avoidance emotions (e.g., anxiety, sadness, and shame) are more likely to motivate people to withdraw from others. Therefore, in the following sections, I examine consequences of identity coactivation episodes based on not only the valence but also the approach-avoidance nature of discrete emotions experienced during identity coactivation.

Approach-Oriented Deviant Behaviors

If an individual experiences anger following an identity coactivation episode, he/she might engage in approach-oriented deviant behaviors, defined as behaviors that harm others and involve approaching or interacting with others in a hostile way (Ferris, Yan, Lim, Chen, & Fatimah, 2016). Anger is an approach emotion (Lerner & Keltner, 2001), and those who experience this emotion are more likely to approach others with aggressive and defensive intentions in an effort to make up for the goal frustration and negatively-valenced emotions they are experiencing (Frijda, 1987; Lazarus, 1994; Roseman, 2008; Roseman, Wiest, & Swartz, 1994). For example, if an individual's self-esteem associated with sexual orientation identity has been frustrated because of a demeaning comment by his/her coworker, he/she is more likely to engage in approach-oriented deviant behaviors to those around him/her, such as insulting others or starting arguments when unprompted. The role of anger in instigating aggressive behaviors toward coworkers has been clearly established in the literature (Allcorn, 1994; Douglas et al., 2008; D. L. Ferris et al., 2016; Glomb, 2002; Neuman & Baron, 1998; Oh & Farh, in press). For example, anger has been linked to aggression (Felson, 1982; Porath & Pearson, 2012), incivility

(Andersson & Pearson, 1999), bullying (Samnani, Singh, & Ezzedeen, 2013), and interpersonal deviance (Le Roy, Bastounis, & Minibas-Poussard, 2012). More recently, anger, as an approach emotion, has been linked to approach-oriented counterproductive behavior toward fellow employees as a result of abusive supervision (Ferris et al., 2016; Oh & Farh, in press) and interpersonal injustice (Le Roy et al., 2012). Importantly, experiencing anger does not have to result in approach-oriented behaviors only targeted toward the person(s) attributed blame for the felt emotion. Anger at times might be directed toward innocent targets because of reduced personal resources and increased exhaustion. For example, Liu and colleagues (2015) found that employees who experienced family-to-work conflict at work were more likely to engage in aggressive behaviors toward their supervisor and peers. These ideas together suggest that when individuals experience anger in an identity coactivation episode, in which an identity's motives have been frustrated because of elements of another coactivated identity, they are more likely to engage in outward deviant behaviors as a result of those negative, approach-oriented emotions tied to goal frustration from the coactivation episode.

Hypothesis 11: Anger experienced in an identity coactivation episode is positively related

to approach-oriented deviant behaviors.

Avoidance-Oriented Deviant Behaviors

Experiencing anxiety or shame in an identity coactivation episode is likely to result in avoidance-oriented deviant behaviors, defined as behaviors that involve removing or minimizing interactions with others or social situations (Ferris et al., 2016). In contrast to anger, anxiety is a negative avoidance emotion, in which the dominant action tendency is to flee the situation, escape harm, and avoid contact with other people (Frijda, 1987; Lazarus, 1994; Roseman, 2008). Avoidance-motivation associated with anxiety serves as a defensive mechanism that preserves

the self from a negative stimuli or threat (Ferris et al., 2016; Lerner & Keltner, 2001). This suggests that anxiety will instigate avoidance-oriented deviant behaviors, such as ignoring others, refusing to speak to others, and physically withdrawing from them. Empirical findings support this argument. For example, anxiety has been linked to less risky choices and withdrawal behaviors (Carver & White, 1994; Lerner & Keltner, 2001). Porath and Pearson (2012) found that those who experience fear and anxiety when faced with workplace incivility are more likely to withdraw from the situation by being absent. Further, fear and anxiety experienced as a result of workplace ostracism (Ferris et al., 2016), abusive supervision (Oh & Farh, in press), and informational injustice (Le Roy et al., 2012) have been linked to passivity and avoidance-oriented counterproductive work behaviors. Thus, in the context of an identity coactivation episode, in which an identity's motives are frustrated because of elements of another identity, I argue that experienced anxiety should result in avoidance action tendencies and subsequently, avoidance-oriented deviant behaviors. For example, if an employee experiences anxiety because of being excluded from his/her workgroup because of his/her sexual orientation identity (frustration of the belonging motive of team identity), he/she is more likely to draw inward and avoid not only his/her coworkers but also others in the workplace (i.e., clients, support staff, etc.).

Similarly, shame is an avoidance-oriented emotion experienced when the person has failed to live up to their standards and there is little that can be done about it (Lazarus, 1994). Those who experience shame feel isolated, powerless, worthless, and inferior to others (Tangney, Miller, Flicker, & Barlow, 1996; Tangney, Stuewig, & Mashek, 2007), and thus, are more inclined to hide from others for the fear of having to admit what they have done (Tangney et al., 1996; Wicker, Payne, & Morgan, 1983). Frijda, Kuipers, and ter Schure (1989) and Wicker and

colleagues (1983) found that participants were more likely to report a desire to hide and disappear when they experienced shame. Therefore, in the context of an identity coactivation episode, when shame is experienced, employees are more likely to engage in avoidance behaviors. For example, if shame is experienced as a result of the frustrated efficacy motive associated with spouse identity due to behavioral requirements of an occupational identity (e.g., long working hours), individuals are more likely to withdraw from their spousal role at home (e.g., being distracted and nonresponsive) in an attempt to hide their shame and inability to fulfill their responsibilities (Ilies, Pater, Lim, & Binnewies, 2012; Repetti, 1989). Therefore, I predict that anxiety or shame that occurs in an identity coactivation episode will be followed by avoidance-oriented deviant behaviors.

Hypothesis 12: (a) Anxiety and (b) shame experienced in an identity coactivation episode are positively related to avoidance-oriented deviant behaviors.

Prosocial Behaviors

Next, I argue that experiencing guilt, affection, or gratitude following an identity coactivation episode increases the likelihood of prosocial behaviors. Although guilt and affection/gratitude are different in terms of their hedonic tone, all foster approach-oriented motivations (Roseman, 2008; Tangney et al., 1996; Wicker et al., 1983) and likely result in approach-oriented behaviors such as helping. Unlike affection and gratitude, guilt is a negatively-valenced emotion that motivates approach behavior in an attempt to make amends. Specifically, guilt is experienced when the person feels he/she violated a social/relationship norm, has done something wrong, and is blameworthy for his/her actions (Ilies, Peng, Savani, & Dimotakis, 2013; Lazarus, 1994). Research has found that feeling guilt as a result of counter-normative behaviors results in subsequent helping behaviors (e.g., organizational citizenship

behaviors and cooperative behaviors) to repair and make up for the harm caused toward others (Ilies et al., 2013; Ketelaar & Au, 2003). In addition to motivating individuals to approach others to apologize, make relational amends, and make up for their wrongdoing (Lazarus, 1994; Morris & Keltner, 2000; Tangney et al., 1996, 2007), feelings of guilt also result in approach behaviors toward other people in general to create a balance in one's moral equilibrium and keep a consistent level of moral standing (Klotz & Bolino, 2013). For example, Dalal, Lam, Weiss, Welch, and Hulin (2009) found that within individuals, counterproductive behaviors were positively related to citizenship behavior toward coworkers, suggesting that people attempt to create balance in their moral self-regard by engaging in helping behaviors toward people around them when they feel guilty. Accordingly, in an identity coactivation episode in which frustration of identity motives associated with an identity results in experience of guilt, individuals are more likely to engage in helping behaviors toward people around them to assuage their guilt and feel good about themselves.

Similarly, feelings of affection and gratitude likely result in prosocial and helping behaviors because these feelings, according to broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions (Fredrickson, 1998, 2004), broaden and expand individual's thought–action repertoire to find creative ways to be kind and helpful to other people (Fredrickson, 2013). Gratitude, in particular, is a moral emotion like guilt which is experienced when an individual believes that he/she is the beneficiary of another's moral actions, thereby motivating the individual to socially reciprocate the favor by helping not only the benefactor, but also others around him/her, including strangers (Bartlett & DeSteno, 2006; McCullough, Kilpatrick, Emmons, & Larson, 2001). Extending this theorizing and empirical research to an identity coactivation episode, when satisfaction of an identity motive because of elements of another coactivated identity result in experience of

affection/gratitude, individuals should be more likely to engage in prosocial behaviors toward those around him/her because these emotions broaden action repertoire "to creatively consider new ways to be kind and generous oneself" (Fredrickson, 2013: 4).

> *Hypothesis 13:* (a) Guilt and (b) gratitude experienced in an identity coactivation episode are positively related to prosocial behaviors.

Engagement

The experience of happiness and pride following an identity coactivation episode increases individual's level of engagement in tasks in hand. Happiness and pride are approach-oriented emotions, and when experienced, individuals strive to make them last longer (Lazarus, 1994; Roseman, 2008). Experience of pride after an accomplishment motivates and energizes people to direct their behaviors to engage further in goals and courses of action to make the felt success last longer (Higgins et al., 2001; McClelland, Atkinson, Clark, & Lowell, 1953; Williams & DeSteno, 2008). Further, when they experience pride, people are more likely to fantasize about greater accomplishments (Fredrickson, 2013), and thereby, are more likely to engage in tasks in order to achieve greater success and satisfaction. Similarly, happiness is an approach-oriented emotion with common action tendencies of expansive thinking and involvement (Fredrickson, 2013). Studies suggest that joy and happiness increases holistic processing and attentional flexibility (K. J. Johnson, Waugh, & Fredrickson, 2010). Therefore, in an identity coactivation episode, when individuals experience happiness or pride because of enhancement of an identity's motive due to the elements of a coactivated identity, individuals are more likely to strongly engage in their current work or nonwork role. For example, when an individual's efficacy motive within their occupational identity is enhanced because of their knowledge within their racial identity (e.g., effectively predicting consumer behavior of a racial group), and hence

are proud of themselves, they are more likely to engage further in their work tasks in an attempt to enhance a sense of accomplishment and heightened efficacy.

Hypothesis 14: (a) Happiness and (b) pride experienced in an identity coactivation episode are positively related to engagement.

The experience of sadness, on the other hand, due to an identity coactivation episode should decrease an individual's level of engagement in identity-relevant tasks. Specifically, sadness is experienced when something valuable has been lost, the loss is certain, and nothing can be done to recover the loss (Lazarus, 1994). Therefore, sadness is followed by inaction, disengagement, and "feeling like doing nothing" (Roseman, 2008: 355). Therefore, I predict that the experience of sadness in an identity coactivation episode will be followed by disengagement from the task at hand and thus lower engagement.

Hypothesis 15: Sadness experienced in an identity coactivation episode is negatively related to engagement.

METHOD

I tested my hypotheses in the context of work-nonwork interface. As previously mentioned, my perspective on identity coactivation episodes is most useful in understanding *mega* identity coactivation episodes, in which the coactivated identities are clearly differentiated and distinguishable by the individual. Accordingly, the context of the work-nonwork interface provides the best opportunity to understand identity coactivation episodes. In this context, an identity coactivation episode exists when one identity from the work domain (e.g., organizational identity, occupational identity, relational identity with coworkers/supervisor, etc.) and another identity from the nonwork domain (e.g., gender identity, family role identity, religion identity, etc.) are simultaneously coactivated. Therefore, an identity coactivation episode might occur

when an individual is outside of the work environment (e.g., at home), in which situational cues give rise to the salience of nonwork identities (e.g., spouse), but he/she is simultaneously engaged in work-related tasks, conversations, or thoughts. In addition, an individual might experience a work-nonwork identity coactivation episode when he/she is physically located in the workplace, in which situational cues give rise to the salience of work-related identities (e.g., organizational identity) but he/she is simultaneously engaged in nonwork-related tasks, conversation, or thoughts. Importantly, such an approach provides an opportunity to empirically examine the validity of the identity coactivation framework as it pertains to *both* work and nonwork outcomes, and thus contributes to the accumulating episodic perspective of the work-nonwork interface.

Research Design

This research utilized a modified version of the day reconstruction method (DRM; Kahneman, Krueger, Schkade, Schwarz, & Stone, 2004) to examine the hypotheses. DRM is designed for the reconstruction of daily affective experience by combining elements of experience sampling methodology (ESM) and time diaries (Bakker, Demerouti, Oerlemans, & Sonnentag, 2013; Kahneman et al., 2004). While ESM is a useful method for understanding dynamic or transient phenomenon, including affect, over time (Fisher & To, 2012), such affective experiences should be measured when an individual is experiencing the emotion. This is because affective experiences are fleeting, are not available for introspection, and cannot be accurately measured when the feeling has dissipated (Bakker et al., 2013). By combining elements of ESM and daily diaries, DRM reconstructs the daily experiences by asking respondents to report on the details of what they have done throughout the day so that they can draw on episodic memory to recover such experiences. Through such reconstruction, individuals

reexperience their emotions, and therefore, can report on them with reasonable accuracy (Kahneman et al., 2004).

Accordingly, this dissertation utilized a modified version of DRM, in which the respondents were given a list of possible work-nonwork identity coactivation episodes, and were instructed to select each that has occurred to them while they have been at work (afternoon survey) or since they left work (evening survey). The respondents were then instructed to choose one of these events that had the most personal significance, and reported on the details of the event. Further, through various questions pertaining the characteristics of the situation (e.g., who was present, what they were expected to do, etc.), the respondents reconstructed the affective experience to be able to accurately report on their emotional experiences.

Data and Procedures

Participants completed an initial online, opt-in survey that assessed their eligibility to participate in the study and their person-level characteristics. To be eligible to participate in the study, respondents had to be (a) working at least 30 hours per week and (b) have regular face-to-face interaction with their coworkers (e.g. working at the office at least 3 days a week). After establishing respondent's eligibility, the online survey assessed additional questions on person-level characteristics (identities, identity centrality and level of satisfaction of the four identity motives for each reported identity, individual need strength, demographics, and background variables). This process resulted in 205 employees who were eligible to participate in the study. Following the initial opt-in survey, eligible participants were asked to complete two online surveys per day for ten days over two weeks (excluding weekends): one in the afternoon and one in the evening. Participants were compensated up to $60 depending on the number of daily surveys they completed.

The afternoon and evening surveys were parallel surveys with items targeted to the geographical domain (i.e., work or nonwork) the individual experienced the identity coactivation episode. For example, the afternoon survey asked questions regarding the experience of a coactivation episode when the respondent was at work (and a nonwork identity was also activated) with behavioral outcomes specific to the work domain (e.g., organizational citizenship behavior, counterproductive work behavior, and engagement). The evening survey, on the other hand, pertained to experiencing an identity coactivation episode outside of work (with a work identity also activated). Thus, respondents reported on nonwork behavioral outcomes. The opt-in survey, afternoon daily survey, and evening daily survey are shown in Appendices B, C, and D, respectively.

Participants were included in the analysis if they reported having an identity coactivation episode at least once in the afternoon or evening surveys. Accordingly, the final sample included 162 employees with 726 reports of a coactivation episode (average of 4.48 episodes per employee) in the afternoon survey, and 146 employees with 551 reports of a coactivation episode (average of 3.77 per employee) in the evening survey. For the afternoon survey, 75.3% of participants were female and 46.3% were married or living with a partner. 71.9% of participants did not have any children, and the average number of kids for the rest was 2.02. Average age of the participants was 31.26 ($SD = 8.85$). On average, participants worked 41.33 ($SD = 5.72$) hours per week and had been with their organization 4.20 ($SD = 4.98$) years. In terms of racial background, 64.8% were Caucasian, 9.3% were Asian American, 8.6% were Africa American, and 6.2% were Hispanic.

For the evening survey, 74% of participants were female and 44.5% were married or living with a partner. 71.9% of participants did not have any children, and the average number of

kids for the rest was 2.02. Average age of the participants was 31.28 (SD = 9.16). On average, participants worked 41.43 (SD = 5.63) hours per week and had been with their organization 4.10 (SD = 4.77) years. In terms of racial background, 67.8% were Caucasian, 8.2% were Asian American, 6.2% were Africa American, and 6.2% were Hispanic.

Analytic Strategy

The data was analyzed using multilevel modeling in Mplus 7.4 (Muthén & Muthén, n.d.), in which daily coactivation episodes (level 1 variables) were nested within individuals (level 2 variables). Multilevel analysis is an appropriate analytical technique because the nonindependence of the data should be considered. Accordingly, episode-level variables, including level of satisfaction of the identity motives associated with coactivated identities, presence of task, presence of actors, identity centrality, identity level, emotional experience, and behavioral outcomes were included as level 1 variables. Further, person-level variables, including positive and negative affect, individual need strength, and demographic variables were included as level 2 variables, mainly as control variable or as cross-level moderators.

Following past recommendations (Enders & Tofighi, 2007; Hofmann & Gavin, 1998), level 1 predictors were group-mean centered in order to remove between-person variation for unbiased estimation of slopes. All level 2 predictors were grand-mean centered (Enders & Tofighi, 2007; Hofmann & Gavin, 1998). To test the hypotheses, multi-level path models were created using composites of multi-item measures. Further, separate models were constructed for each motive (i.e., esteem, efficacy, belongingness, and distinctiveness) for computational simplicity. Multilevel moderated mediation and multilevel mediation were also conducted using procedures described by Bauer, Preacher, and Gil (2006). Monte Carlo bootstrapping with 20,000 simulated parameters was used to correct for bias in indirect and conditional indirect

effect sizes (Preacher & Selig, 2012). Further, 90% confidence interval was used to examine the significant of these effect sizes following Preacher, Zyphur, and Zhang (2010).

Measures

Between-person survey: identity elements and level. Self-concept attributes (identities) were measured using the twenty statement test (TST; Kuhn & McPartland, 1954). The original scale asks respondents to specify 20 elements of their identities by completing the sentence "I am …". I adapted this scale by asking for 12 elements of self-concept to avoid response fatigue. Other studies on self-concept have also limited the number of elements to the maximum of 12 (e.g., Becker et al., 2012; Brook et al., 2008; Vignoles et al., 2002a; Vignoles, Chryssochoou, & Breakwell, 2002b; Vignoles et al., 2006) since respondents typically do not list more than 12 elements when asked to report on their identities (Brook et al., 2008). Further, I adapted the scale by asking the respondents to specify six identity elements from their work domain (e.g., organizational identity, occupational identity, relational identity with coworkers/supervisor, etc.), and six identity elements from nonwork domain (e.g., gender identity, family role identity, religion identity, etc.) to examine the identity coactivation episode in the context of work-nonwork interface.

A total of 693 work and 792 nonwork identities were reported by participants in the opt-in survey – average of 4.1 work and 4.6 nonwork identities per employee. Further, 29 and 188 additional work and nonwork identities, respectively, were added by participants during the daily surveys. To extract the level (i.e., individual, relational, and collective) of each identity element, I coded each element as a collective, relational, or individual identity. Accordingly, for work-related identities, 73.3% of reported identities were coded as collective level, 17.7% were coded as individual level, and 8.9% were coded as relational level identities. Within nonwork identities,

69% of reported identities were coded as collective level, 23.9% were coded as individual level, and 7.1% were coded as relational level identities.

Between-person survey: identity centrality. Centrality of each identity element to the individual's self-concept was measured with four items adapted from an 8-item scale of black identity centrality (Sellers, Rowley, Chavous, Shelton, & Smith, 1997). The respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree with items such as "Being [IDENTITY] is an important reflection of who I am" on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree). The four items removed from the scale mainly tap into the sense of belongingness within black community, and therefore, were removed to avoid confounding with satisfaction of belongingness motive (α = .93 for both work and nonwork identities).

Between-person survey: general level of identity motive satisfaction. A 1-item measure (Easterbrook & Vignoles, 2012; Vignoles et al., 2006) was used to measure general satisfaction of each identity motive (i.e., self-esteem, efficacy, belongingness, and distinctiveness) for each of the identities reported by the participants. The respondents were asked to indicate how satisfied they generally feel about the following statements on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = very dissatisfied; 5 = very satisfied): "The degree to which being [IDENTITY] makes you view yourself positively" (self-esteem), "The degree to which being [IDENTITY] makes you feel effective or competent" (efficacy), "The degree to which being [IDENTITY] gives you a sense that you belong" (belongingness), and "The degree to which being [IDENTITY] makes you feel distinguished and distinct from other people" (distinctiveness).

Between-person survey: individual need strength. Belongingness need was measured using the 5 items from a 10-item measure of need to belong (Leary et al., 2013) on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree). Sample items include "I try hard not to

do things that will make people avoid or reject me", and "I want other people to accept me" (α = .78). Distinctiveness need was measured with a 4-item measure adapted from self-attributed need for uniqueness (SANU; Lynn & Harris, 1997) on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree). Sample items include "I prefer being different from other people" and "Being distinctive is important to me" (α = .87). Need for achievement was measure using 5 items adapted from need for achievement scale developed by Eisenberger, Jones, Stinglhamber, Shanock, and Randall (2005) on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree). The original scale, with 9 items, was developed to measure need for achievement at work setting. Therefore, any reference to job/work in the items were removed to create a more general scale to measure need for achievement across various life domain. Sample items include "I am always looking for opportunities to improve my skills" and "I enjoy situations where I am personally responsible for finding solutions to problems" (α = .79).

Between-person survey: demographic and control variables. Respondents were asked for various demographic information, including gender, age, race, education, tenure, occupation, industry, average working hours per week, whether they are married or living with a partner, and number of children (at home). In addition, trait positive and negative affectivity were measured as control variables. These constructs were measured using the shortened version of PANAS (Mackinnon et al., 1999; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988) on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = not at all; 5 = extremely). The reliability was calculated as .81 for positive affectivity and .87 for negative affectivity.

Daily afternoon and evening surveys: experience of an identity coactivation episode. Each survey asked respondents to report whether an identity coactivation episode had happened while they were at work (afternoon survey) or since they left work (evening survey).

Accordingly, the afternoon survey provided respondents a list of events that could happen at work and may result in simultaneous experience of identities across the work and nonwork domains. These events included whether they (1) read a nonwork-related email, (2) sent a nonwork-related email, (3) received a nonwork-related text/phone call, (4) texted or called someone from outside work, (5) engaged in nonwork-related tasks, (6) thought about nonwork-related events, (7) spoke about nonwork-related events with someone from work (e.g., coworkers), (8) posted nonwork-related content on social media, or (9) viewed a nonwork-related post on social media.

The evening survey, on the other hand, pertained to the experience of a coactivation episode outside working environment. Accordingly, the list of possible events that might result in work-nonwork coactivation episode included whether they (1) read a work-related email, (2) sent a work-related email, (3) received a work-related text/phone call, (4) texted or called someone from work, (5) engaged in work-related tasks, (6) thought about work-related events, (7) spoke about work-related events with someone outside work (e.g., friends), (8) posted work-related content on social media, or (9) viewed a work-related post on social media. For both surveys, the respondents were instructed to select any of the events that had happened to them while at work (afternoon survey) or outside of work (evening survey). The respondents were then instructed to choose one event with the most personal significance to them, to briefly describe the event, and to respond to the remaining questions considering the chosen event.

Daily afternoon and evening surveys: identifying coactivated identities in the episode. Respondents were provided with the list of identities they provided in the initial survey, and were asked to choose the two identities (one from work and one from nonwork) that were the most prominent in the chosen situation. The respondents were also given the option to add an

additional identity, if none of the listed identities were relevant to the situation. If respondents

added a new identity, the centrality and satisfaction of identity motives were assessed using the

same scales as the opt-in survey. The list also included a "none" option in order to give an exit

option to the respondents if they did not experience a work-nonwork identity coactivation

episode. If respondents chose this option, they responded to a set of filler questions so that they

will not be enticed to complete a shorter set of questions day-to-day.

     Daily afternoon and evening surveys: presence of actors or demands. Respondents

were provided with a list of possible actors (i.e., spouse, kids, friends, supervisor, coworkers,

subordinates, and others-please specify) to choose who was present at the time of identity

coactivation episode. For each actor present, the respondents were asked to specify to which

identity the actor was related. One question (i.e., "As [IDENTITY], were you expected to

complete a task or duty?"), for each coactivated identity were used to measure whether demands

related to the work or nonwork identities were involved within the coactivation episode (yes/no

response). If respondents selected "yes" for either of the identities, they were asked to briefly

describe the nature of the task.

     Daily afternoon and evening surveys: identity motives satisfaction. The items

previously used in measuring the general level of identity motive satisfaction on the between-

person survey were adapted to measure the degree of satisfaction of identity motives within an

episode. For example, for measuring the satisfaction of self-esteem motive, the respondents were

asked, thinking about the event they described, to indicate the degree to which they were

satisfied with the item, "The degree to which being [IDENTITY#1] made you view yourself

positively", on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = very dissatisfied; 5 = very satisfied) for each

coactivated identity. Further, since the identity coactivation framework is based how one identity

might enhance or diminish the satisfaction of these motives, one item for each coactivated

identity measured participants' satisfaction with how much one identity contributed to the

satisfaction of identity motive of another identity. For example, to measure contribution of one

identity to the satisfaction of self-esteem motive of another identity, the respondents were asked,

thinking about the event they described, to indicate the degree to which they were satisfied with

the statement, "The degree to which being [IDENTITY#2] contributed to viewing yourself

positively as [IDENTITY#1]", on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = very dissatisfied; 5 = very

satisfied). Therefore, this resulted in four questions for each identity motive (i.e., self-esteem,

efficacy, belongingness, and distinctiveness) across each identity.

Daily afternoon and evening surveys: attribution of responsibility. Attribution of

responsibility was measured using four items adapted from the human agency scale (Ellsworth &

Smith, 1988b). The respondents were asked to indicate to what extent they felt the following

statements on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = not at all; 5 = a great deal): "Someone or something

other than myself was responsible for having brought about the events that occurred in this

situation?" (other-responsibility), "Someone other than myself was controlling what was

happening in this situation?" (other-control), "I was responsible for having brought about the

events that occurred in this situation" (reverse-coded, self-responsibility), and "I had control over

what was happening in this situation" (reverse-coded, self-control). Higher scores on the scale

represent external blame/credit, and lower scores represent internal blame/credit. The results of a

multilevel confirmatory factor analysis, however, indicated that the two of the items did not load

properly on the a priori factor at the between-level (standardized loadings = .20 and .05 in the

afternoon and .46 and .29 in the evening). Accordingly, only two items ("I was responsible for

having brought about the events that occurred in this situation (r)" and "I had control over what

was happening in this situation (r)") were used to measure attribution. The average reliability for items was calculated as .76 and .74 for afternoon and evening surveys, respectively.

Daily afternoon and evening surveys: emotional experience. Emotions following an identity coactivation episode were measured using items from modified Differential Emotion Scale (mDES; Fredrickson, Tugade, Waugh, & Larkin, 2003). The mDES utilizes a cluster of adjectives for a given emotion at once and requires respondents to give a single rating for each emotion. Three adjectives per emotion were used to measure emotions: Anger (angry, irritated, or annoyed), anxiety (stressed, nervous, or anxious), sadness (sad, downhearted, or unhappy), guilt (guilty, repentant, or blameworthy), shame (ashamed, humiliated, or disgraced), happiness (joyful, happy, or glad), gratitude (grateful, appreciative, and thankful), pride (proud, confident, or self-assured), and affection (love, closeness, or affection). The respondents were asked to think about the way they felt during the event, and indicate to what extent they felt each cluster of emotions on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = not at all; 5 = extremely).

Daily afternoon and evening surveys: deviant behavior. As mentioned earlier, each survey asked questions regarding behavioral outcomes targeted to the domain the respondent was currently located. Therefore, the afternoon survey measured avoidance- and approach-oriented counterproductive work behavior (CWB), while the evening survey measured deviant behaviors outside of work. Approach-oriented CWB was measured with four items adapted from Johnson, Venus, Lanaj, Mao, and Chang (2012), which was also used by Barnes, Lucianetti, Bhave, and Christian (2015) in daily surveys. Respondents were asked to think about their behaviors since the event, and indicate to what extent they engaged in behaviors such as "yelled or swore at someone at work" and "made fun of someone at work" on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = almost never; 5 = very often). The results of the multilevel confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) indicated

that one item ("Made fun of someone at work") did not load sufficiently on the factor (standardized loading = .32) and was removed from the analysis. The average reliability for the remaining items was calculated as .73. Avoidance-oriented CWB was measured with three items adapted from Ferris and colleagues (2016), with the same instruction and scale anchor. A sample item is "avoided my coworkers" (average α across days = .92).

Approach-oriented deviant behaviors in the nonwork domain were measured on the evening survey using four items adapted from the family undermining scale (Restubog, Scott, & Zagenczyk, 2011) on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = almost never; 5 = very often). Sample items include "insulted someone from my personal life", and "Criticized someone from my personal life" (average α across days = .78). Avoidance-oriented deviant behaviors in the nonwork domain was assessed with three items from Ferris and colleagues (2016)'s measure of avoidance CWB, adapted to target one's personal life. Sample item includes "withdrew from people in my personal life" (average α across days = .91).

Daily afternoon and evening surveys: prosocial behavior. Prosocial behaviors at work was measured using a 4-item daily organizational citizenship behavior (OCB; Johnson, Lanaj, & Barnes, 2014) on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = almost never; 5 = very often). A sample item is "took time to advise, help, or mentor someone at work" (average α across days = .86). The same items were adapted to measure prosocial behavior in the nonwork domain (e.g., "Gave someone encouragement or appreciation outside of the workplace"; average α across days = .85).

Daily afternoon and evening surveys: engagement. Engagement at work was measured using the 3-item engagement at work scale on a 5-point Likert scale (Christian, Eisenkraft, & Kapadia, 2015), which is a shortened, daily version of Rich, Lepine, and Crawford's (2010) 18-item measure of physical engagement ("exerted my full effort on my job"), emotional

engagement ("was enthusiastic in my job"), and cognitive engagement ("was absorbed by my job"; average α across days = .83). The evening survey measured engagement in the nonwork domain using adapted versions of the same items (e.g., "was enthusiastic about my personal activities"; average α across days = .82).

Preliminary Analysis

Several preliminary analyses were conducted before hypothesis testing. First, percentage of variance for each construct at level 1 (within-person constructs) were calculated to ensure the use of multi-level modeling is warranted. As shown in Table 2, the percentage of variance for these constructs ranges between 49.5% and 81.4% for afternoon, and 50.2% and 83.3% for evening, suggesting that there is considerable within-person variation for these constructs and the use of multi-level analysis is warranted.

Additionally, multi-level confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to examine the interrelations of the constructs across the two levels of analysis. Specifically, a model was specified for the afternoon and the evening that included all multi-item measures at level 1 (i.e., attribution, work identity centrality, nonwork identity centrality, helping behavior, approach- and avoidance-oriented deviant behaviors, and engagement) specified as having within and between factor structures. Further, individual need strength (effectiveness, belongingness, and distinctiveness) and trait positive and negative affectivity were included at between-person level of analysis. The results indicated that one item for approach-oriented deviant behavior in the afternoon ("Made fun of someone at work") did not load sufficiently on the intended factor, and hence was removed from the analysis. In addition, two items from attribution scale did not load properly on the intended constructs for both afternoon and evening, and were removed from analysis. Further, item variances for one item in engagement scale ("Exerted my full effort in my

job/personal life"), one item in helping behavior ("Lent a compassionate ear when someone in my personal life had a problem"), and one item in attribution ("I had control over what was happening in this situation") were fixed to zero to ensure model identification. This model exhibited good fit to the data for both afternoon ($\chi^2_{(1179)}$ = 1749.74, CFI = .941, RMSEA = .026, SRMR$_{within}$ = .027, SRMR$_{between}$ = .073) and evening ($\chi^2_{(1266)}$ = 8423.18, CFI = .923, RMSEA = .030, SRMR$_{within}$ = .039, SRMR$_{between}$ = .081), and all the remaining items highly, and significantly, loaded on their respective factor structure (standardized loadings ranged from .606 to .998 in the afternoon and from .625 to .995 in the evening), supporting the a priori factor structure of the constructs. Accordingly, composites were created for these constructs to specify the path models and test the hypotheses.

RESULTS

Table 3 reports descriptive statistics for the afternoon and evening, and Table 4 provides a summary of supported hypotheses. Figures 3 through 10 provides the results of the models specified to test the hypotheses 1-5 and 12-15. Hypothesis 1 proposed that contribution of an identity to the satisfaction of the identity motives of another identity is positively related to feelings of happiness (H1a) and negatively related to feelings of sadness (H1b), and anxiety (H1c). The results indicated that in the afternoon, nonwork-to-work efficacy satisfaction was positively related to happiness (b = .21, p = .002). In the evening, nonwork-to-work esteem satisfaction was positively related to happiness (b = .30, p = .01) and work-to-nonwork efficacy (b = .27, p = .01) and distinctiveness (b = .28, p = .01) motives satisfaction were positively related to happiness, providing partial support for Hypothesis 1a. Further, the results indicated that although there was no significant effect of motive satisfaction on sadness in the afternoon, satisfaction of the belongingness motive in both directions (i.e., work-to-nonwork: b = -.25, p <

.001; nonwork-to-work: b = -.28, p = .02), and work-to-nonwork satisfaction of efficacy (b = -

.20, p = .01) and distinctiveness (b = -.27, p = .001) motives in the evening were negatively

relate to the experience of sadness, providing partial support for Hypothesis 1b. The results also

indicated that in the afternoon, nonwork-to-work esteem and efficacy satisfaction were

negatively related to the experience of anxiety (esteem: b = -.15, p =.04; efficacy: b = -.12, p =

.04). Similarly, in the evening, nonwork-to-work satisfaction of esteem and efficacy motives

were negatively related to the experience of anxiety (esteem: b = -.22, p =.02; efficacy: b = -.28,

p = .03). Altogether, these results provide partial support for Hypothesis 1c.

        Hypothesis 2 proposed that attribution moderates the negative relationship between the

contribution of an identity to the satisfaction of the identity motives of another identity and

feelings of anger, such that the relationship is stronger when attribution is external (high) versus

internal (low). The results indicated that although there were many significant effect of motives

satisfaction on anger, attribution only moderated one relationship: the effect of nonwork-to-work

satisfaction of efficacy motive on anger in the evening. Specifically, nonwork-to-work efficacy

motive satisfaction was not a significant predictor of anger (b = -.21, p = .09), while attribution

was positively related to anger (b = .29, p = .001). Further, the interaction between nonwork-to-

work efficacy motive satisfaction and attribution was significant and negative (b = -.24, p = .03).

To probe this interaction, the effect of nonwork-to-work efficacy motive satisfaction on anger

was examined at high (+1 SD) and low (-1 SD) levels of attribution. At low attribution (i.e.,

internal attribution), nonwork-to-work efficacy motive satisfaction was not a significant predictor

of anger (b = -.03, p =.84), while at high levels of attribution (external attribution), efficacy

satisfaction was negatively related to anger (b = -.40, p = .02). Figure 11 presents the interaction

plot. Providing partial support for Hypothesis 2, these results suggest that, while outside of work,

dissatisfaction of efficacy motive of a work identity due to a nonwork identity results in anger if attribution is external.

Hypothesis 3 predicted that attribution moderates the negative relationship between the contribution of an identity to the satisfaction of the identity motives of another identity and feelings of shame and guilt, such that the relationships are stronger when attribution is internal (low) versus external (high). The results indicated that although there were some direct effects of motives satisfaction on shame and guilt in the afternoon, attribution did not moderate any of the relationships. Hence, Hypothesis 3 was not supported. Hypothesis 4 proposed that attribution moderates the positive relationship between the contribution of an identity to the satisfaction of the identity motives of another identity and feelings of gratitude, such that the relationship is stronger when attribution is external (high) versus internal (low). The results indicated that attribution only moderated the relationship between nonwork-to-work esteem satisfaction and gratitude in the afternoon. Specifically, both nonwork-to-work esteem motive satisfaction ($b = .18$, $p = .03$) and attribution ($b = -.15$, $p = .004$) were significant predictors of gratitude. Further, the interaction between esteem satisfaction and attribution was significant and negative ($b = -.28$, $p = .01$). To probe this interaction, the effect of nonwork-to-work esteem satisfaction on gratitude was examined at high (+1 SD) and low (-1 SD) levels of attribution. At low attribution (i.e., internal attribution), nonwork-to-work esteem motive satisfaction was a significant and positive predictor of gratitude ($b = .45$, $p < .001$), while at high levels of attribution (external attribution), esteem satisfaction was not related to gratitude ($b = -.09$, $p = .50$). Figure 12 presents the interaction plot. Counter to expectations, these results suggest that, while at work, satisfaction of efficacy motive of a work identity due to a nonwork identity results in gratitude if attribution is internal. Therefore, Hypothesis 4 was not supported.

Hypothesis 5 proposed that attribution moderates the positive relationship between the contribution of an identity to the satisfaction of the identity motives of another identity and feelings of pride, such that the relationship is stronger when attribution is internal (low) versus external (high). Although the results indicated that motive satisfaction due to another identity was positively related to pride and attribution was negatively related to pride in most cases, the moderating effects of attribution on the relationship between motives satisfaction and pride were not significant. Therefore, Hypothesis 5 was not supported.

To test Hypotheses 6a and 6b, dummy variables of identity level of each coactivated identity and their interactions with motive satisfaction and attribution were added to models for belongingness (Figures 5 and 9) and efficacy (Figures 4 and 8). Hypothesis 6a indicated that identity level moderates the relationship between the contribution of an identity to the satisfaction of the belongingness motive of another identity and felt emotions, such that the relationship is stronger when the focal identity is at the collective or relational level versus when it is at the individual level. The results indicated that in the afternoon, collective work identity moderated the relationship between nonwork-to-work belongingness motive satisfaction and sadness ($b = -.33$, $p = .03$). Simple slope analysis was conducted to examine the nature of the interaction. The plot (Figure 13) indicated that while the effect of nonwork-to-work belongingness satisfaction on sadness was significantly different for collective and individual level identity, neither of the simple effects were significant ($b = -.09$, $p = .16$ for collective level and $b = .24$, $p = .13$ for individual level identities). The results also indicated that the three-way interaction between work-to-nonwork belongingness satisfaction, attribution, and nonwork identity level on anger was significant. Specifically, there was no effect of work-to-nonwork belongingness satisfaction on anger ($b = -.07$, $p = .53$) and significant effect of attribution ($b =$

.34, $p = .001$) and nonwork relational identity level ($b = .35$, $p = .01$). Although, none of the two-way interactions were significant, the effect of three-way interaction on anger was significant and negative ($b = -.45$, $p = .04$). Simple slope analysis (Figure 14) indicated that although the effect of belongingness satisfaction on anger was significantly different at the combinations of internal and external attribution and relational and individual nonwork identity, none of the simple slopes were significantly different from zero (relational identity and external attribution: $b = -.43$, $p = .13$; individual identity and external attribution: $b = .12$, $p = .53$; relational identity and internal attribution: $b = .21$, $p = .55$; and individual identity and internal attribution: $b = -.12$, $p = .42$).

In the evening, the results indicated that relational work identity moderated the relationship between nonwork-to-work belongingness motive satisfaction and sadness ($b = 1.43$, $p = .03$). Simple slope analysis was conducted to examine the nature of the interaction. The graphs (Figure 15) indicated that, counter to expectations, for relational identities, the effect of nonwork-to-work belongingness satisfaction on sadness was not significant ($b = .37$, $p = .28$), while for individual identities the relationship was negative and significant ($b = -1.06$, $p = .004$) Further, the three-way interaction among belongingness satisfaction (for both directions), attribution and relational identity level on shame was significant. Specifically, the three-way interaction in the nonwork-to-work direction was significant and positive ($b = .84$, $p = .01$) while the interaction in the work-to-nonwork direction was significant and negative ($b = -.66$, $p = .02$). Simple slope analysis and interaction plots (Figures 16 and 17) indicated that while the significant interaction terms suggest that the effect of motive satisfaction at each direction on shame are significantly different depending on attribution and level of coactivated identities, none of the simple slopes were significantly different than zero. Similarly, the three-way

interaction among nonwork-to-work belongingness satisfaction, attribution, and relational identity level on guilt was significant and positive ($b = 1.49$, $p = .03$), however, none of the simple slopes were significantly different from zero (Figure 18). Altogether, the results do not lend support for Hypothesis 6a.

      Hypothesis 6b predicted that identity level moderates the relationship between the contribution of an identity to the satisfaction of the efficacy and distinctiveness motives of another identity and felt emotions, such that the relationship is stronger when the focal identity is at the individual level versus when it is at the relational or collective level. The results indicated that for efficacy motive, the interactions among motive satisfaction, attribution and identity level on anger and shame were significant in the afternoon, as well as in the evening. Specifically, in the afternoon, the interaction among nonwork-to-work efficacy motive satisfaction, attribution, and relational work identity on anger was significant and negative ($b = -.81$, $p < .001$). Simple slope analysis (Figure 19) indicated that, counter to expectations, when attribution was external and a relational work identity was coactivated, there was a significant and negative effect of nonwork-to-work efficacy satisfaction on anger ($b = -1.32$, $p < .001$), whereas no significant effect was observed when attribution was external and an individual level work identity was coactivated ($b = -.33$, $p = .06$). The significant three-way interaction effect among nonwork-to-work efficacy satisfaction, attribution and relational work identity on shame ($b = -.87$, $p = .049$) was also probed to examine the nature of the interaction (Figure 20). The results indicated that, consistent with expectations, the effect of nonwork-to-work efficacy satisfaction on shame was not significant when attribution was internal and a relational work identity was coactivated ($b = .43$, $p = .14$), whereas there was a significant and negative effect when attribution was internal and an individual level work identity was coactivated ($b = -.35$, $p = .046$), suggesting that the

relationship between nonwork-to-work efficacy satisfaction is more strongly and negatively related to shame when attribution is internal and an individual level identity is coactivated.

Similar patterns were observed in the evening. Specifically, the significant three-way interaction among nonwork-to-work efficacy satisfaction, attribution, and relational work identity on anger (b = -1.53, p = .01) was probed to examine the nature of the interaction. Simple slope analysis (Figure 21) indicated that, counter to expectations, there was a significant and negative effect of nonwork-to-work efficacy satisfaction on anger when attribution was external and a relational work identity was coactivated (b = -1.11, p < .001), whereas no effect was found when attribution was external and an individual level identity was coactivated (b = -.06, p = .94). Further, although the three-way interactions among nonwork-to-work efficacy satisfaction, attribution, and relational work identity (b = -.61, p = .01) and nonwork-to-work efficacy satisfaction, attribution, and collective work identity (b = -.63, p = .01) on shame were significant, simple slope analysis (Figure 22) indicated that none of the simple effects were significantly different from zero. Similarly, although the interaction between work-to-nonwork efficacy satisfaction, attribution and nonwork collective identity on shame was significant (b = -.30, p = .03), none of the simple slopes were significantly different from zero (Figure 23).

With regard to distinctiveness motive, many significant three-way interactions effect on various emotions were found. Specifically, in the afternoon, the three-way interaction among nonwork-to-work distinctiveness satisfaction, attribution, and relational work identity on pride was significant (b = 1.73, p < .001). Simple slope analysis (Figure 24) indicated that, counter to expectations, there was a significant and positive effect of nonwork-to-work distinctiveness satisfaction on pride when attribution was external and a relational work identity was involved (b = 1.91, p < .001), a significant and positive effect when the attribution was external and an

individual level work identity was involved ($b = .64, p = .04$), and a significant and negative effect when attribution was internal and a relational work identity was involved ($b = -1.85, p = .01$). However, the effect was not significant when attribution was internal and an individual level work identity was involved ($b = .23, p = .33$).

In addition, the three-way interaction among nonwork-to-work distinctiveness satisfaction, attribution, and relational work identity on gratitude was significant ($b = 2.26, p < .001$). Simple slope analysis (Figure 25) indicated that, counter to the expectations, there was a significant and positive effect of nonwork-to-work distinctiveness satisfaction on gratitude when attribution was external and a relational work identity was involved ($b = 1.62, p < .001$), a significant and negative effect when the attribution was external and an individual level work identity was involved ($b = -.63, p = .01$), and a significant and negative effect when attribution was internal and a relational work identity was involved ($b = -1.96, p = .01$). However, the effect was not significant when attribution was internal and an individual level work identity was involved ($b = .17, p = .41$). Further, although the interaction among nonwork-to-work distinctiveness satisfaction, attribution, and collective work identity on guilt was significant ($b = -.21, p = .01$), none of the simple slopes were significantly different from zero (Figure 26).

In the evening, the two-way interaction between work-to-nonwork distinctiveness satisfaction and relational nonwork identity on anxiety was significant ($b = -.97, p = .048$). Simple slope analysis (Figure 27) indicated that, counter to the expectations, for relational nonwork identities, there was a significant and negative effect of work-to-nonwork distinctiveness satisfaction on anxiety ($b = -.84, p = .03$). However, for individual nonwork identities, there was no significant effect ($b = .71, p = .24$). Further, the three-way interaction among work-to-nonwork distinctiveness satisfaction and collective nonwork identity on gratitude

(b = -.89, p = .05) was right at the border of significance. Accordingly, simple slope analysis (Figure 28) indicated that when attribution was external there was significant effect of work-to-nonwork distinctiveness satisfaction for both collective (b = .41, p = .02) and individual (b = 1.01, p = .03) nonwork identities. However, no significant effects for either collective (b = .42, p = .09) nor individual (b = -.40, p = .38) nonwork identities were found when attribution was internal. These results are consistent with H6b that there is stronger relationship between work-to-nonwork distinctiveness satisfaction and gratitude when attribution is external and an individual level nonwork identity is involved. In addition, although the three-way interaction among work-to-nonwork distinctiveness satisfaction and collective nonwork identity on shame (b = -.68, p = .01) was significant, none of the simple slopes were significantly different than zero (Figure 29). Altogether, these results provide mixed support for Hypothesis 6b.

Hypothesis 7 predicted that actors moderate the relationship between the contribution of an identity to the satisfaction of the belongingness motive of another identity and felt emotions, such that the relationship is stronger when an actor from the focal domain is present versus when an actor from that domain is not present. To test this hypothesis, presence of actors related to work and nonwork identities and their interactions with attribution and motives were added to the belongingness models in Figure 5 and 9. The results indicated that presence of actors only moderated the relationship between nonwork-to-work belongingness satisfaction and anxiety while outside of work (b = -.84, p = .02). The plots (Figure 30) indicated that, as expected, when an actor related to the work identity was present with the individual, the effect of nonwork-to-work belongingness satisfaction on anxiety was significant and negative (b = -.64, p < .001). On the other hand, no significant relationship was found when no one related to the work identity

was present during the coactivation episode outside of work (b = -.04, p = .80). Accordingly, Hypothesis 7 was partially supported.

Hypothesis 8 proposed that demands moderate the relationship between the contribution of an identity to the satisfaction of the efficacy motive of another identity and felt emotions, such that the relationship is stronger when demands are higher within the focal identity versus when demands are lower. To test this hypothesis demands related to work and nonwork identities and their interactions with attribution and motives were added to the efficacy models in Figure 4 and 8. However, none of the interaction terms with demands were significant. Therefore, Hypothesis 8 was not supported.

Hypothesis 9 predicted that identity centrality moderates the relationship between the contribution of an identity to the satisfaction of the identity motives of another identity and felt emotions, such that the relationship is stronger when identity centrality is higher (versus lower) for the focal identity. To test this hypothesis, identity centrality of work and nonwork identities and their interactions with attribution and motives were added to the all the models in Figures 3 to 10. The results indicated that for esteem, none of the interaction terms on emotions in the afternoon or evening were significant. For the efficacy motive, the two-way interaction between work-to-nonwork efficacy satisfaction and nonwork identity centrality on sadness in the afternoon was significant (b = .17, p = .047). The interaction was probed and the results (Figure 31) indicated that, counter to expectations, the effect of work-to-nonwork efficacy satisfaction on sadness was negative and stronger for nonwork identities with low centrality (b = -.16, p = .02) compared to high centrality (b = .05, p = .59). In the evening, on the other hand, the three-way interaction between nonwork-to-work efficacy satisfaction, attribution, and work identity

centrality predicting gratitude was significant. However, simple slope analysis (Figure 32) indicated that none of the simple slopes were significantly different from zero.

For the distinctiveness motive, the results indicated that the two-way interaction between work-to-nonwork distinctiveness satisfaction and nonwork identity centrality predicting sadness in the afternoon was significant ($b = .20$, $p = .04$). The interaction was probed and the results (Figure 33) indicated that, counter to predictions, the effect of work-to-nonwork distinctiveness satisfaction on sadness was negative and stronger for nonwork identities with low centrality ($b = -.17$, $p = .046$) compared to high centrality ($b = .08$, $p = .47$). In addition, the results indicated that the three-way interaction among work-to-nonwork distinctiveness satisfaction, attribution, and nonwork identity centrality on pride was significant ($b = -.41$, $p = .01$). Simple slope analysis (Figure 34) indicated that, consistent with expectations, the effect of work-to-nonwork distinctiveness satisfaction on pride was only significant at high levels of nonwork identity centrality and when attribution was internal ($b = .40$, $p = .03$). Further, although the three-way interaction among nonwork-to-work distinctiveness satisfaction, attribution, and work identity centrality on anger was significant ($b = -.35$, $p = .03$), simple slope analysis (Figure 35) indicated that none of the simple slopes were significantly different from zero.

In the evening, the three-way interaction among work-to-nonwork distinctiveness satisfaction, attribution, and nonwork identity centrality predicting gratitude was significant ($b = -.54$, $p = .01$). Simple slope analysis (Figure 36) indicated that the effect of work-to-nonwork distinctiveness satisfaction on gratitude was positive and significant at high ($b = .36$, $p = .02$) or low ($b = .65$, $p < .001$) nonwork identity centrality and when attribution was external. However, no significant effect was found at high ($b = .35$, $p = .06$) or low ($b = -.02$, $p = .93$) nonwork identity centrality when attribution was internal. Comparing the simple slopes at high and low

nonwork identity centrality when attribution was external suggested that, counter to the expectations, the two effects were not significantly different from one another (Difference = .29, p = .08).

For the belongingness motive, the results of the afternoon indicated that the three-way interaction among work-to-nonwork belongingness satisfaction, attribution, and nonwork identity centrality predicting guilt was significant (b = -.13, p = .04). However, simple slope analysis (Figure 37) indicated that none of the simple slopes were significantly different from zero. In the evening, the results indicated that the three-way interaction among nonwork-to-work belongingness satisfaction, attribution, and work identity centrality on gratitude was significant (b = -.63, p = .04). The results of simple slope analysis (Figure 38) suggested that at high levels of work identity centrality and when attribution is internal, the effect of nonwork-to-work belongingness satisfaction on gratitude was positive and significant (b = .55, p = .03), and no significant effects were found at low levels of work identity centrality and when the attribution is internal (b = .04, p = .89), and at high (b = .04, p = .88) or low (b = .41, p = .08) levels of work centrality and when the attribution is external. Altogether, these results provide mixed support for Hypothesis 9.

Hypothesis 10a predicted that need strength moderates the relationship between the contribution of an identity to the satisfaction of the belongingness motive of another identity and felt emotions, such that the relationship is stronger for those higher in need for belongingness versus those lower in need for belongingness. To test this hypothesis, general need for belongingness was added as a between-level moderator to the belongingness models in Figure 5 and 9. The results indicated that in the afternoon, belongingness need moderated the within-level interaction effect of nonwork-to-work belongingness satisfaction and attribution predicting pride

(b = .14, p = .04). Simple slope analysis (Figure 39) indicated that the effect of nonwork-to-work belongingness satisfaction on pride was positive and significant at high levels of belongingness need and when attribution was external (b = .29, p = .001) and at low levels of belongingness need and when attribution was internal (b = .38, p = .02). No significant effect was found at low levels of belongingness need and when attribution was external (b = .16, p = .13) nor at high levels of belongingness need and when attribution was internal (b = .08, p = .63). Comparing simple slopes indicated that, counter to expectations, the effects at high and low levels of belongingness were not significantly different from one another within internal (Difference = .30, p = .29) or external (Difference = .14, p = .21) attribution. The results in the afternoon also indicated that belongingness need moderated the within-level interaction effect of attribution and belongingness satisfaction on anger at both directions (nonwork-to-work: b = -.14, p = .01; work-to-nonwork: b = .23, p = .03). The results of simple slope analysis for the nonwork-to-work direction (Figure 40) was similar to that of pride. Specifically, the effect of nonwork-to-work belongingness satisfaction on anger was negative and significant at high levels belongingness need and external attribution (b = -.15, p = .047) and at low levels of belongingness need when attribution was internal (b = -.28, p = .04), while no significant effect was found at low levels of belongingness need and external attribution (b = -.05, p = .54) or at high levels of belongingness need and internal attribution (b = .08, p = .53). Comparing simple slopes indicated that, counter to expectations, the effects at high and low levels of belongingness were not significantly different from one another within internal (Difference = .36, p = .11) or external (Difference = .10, p = .20) attribution. For the work-to-nonwork direction (Figure 41), none of the simple slopes were significantly different from zero. In the evening, need for belongingness was not a

significant moderator of the relationship between belongingness satisfaction and any of the emotions. Accordingly, Hypothesis 10a was not supported.

Hypothesis 10b predicted that need strength moderates the relationship between the contribution of an identity to the satisfaction of the distinctiveness motive of another identity and felt emotions, such that the relationship is stronger for those higher in need for distinctiveness versus those lower in need for distinctiveness. To test this hypothesis, general need for distinctiveness was added as a between-level moderator to the distinctiveness models in Figures 6 and 10. The results indicated that in the afternoon, distinctiveness need moderated the within-level interaction effect of nonwork-to-work distinctiveness satisfaction and attribution on shame ($b = .04$, $p = .02$). Simple slope analysis (Figure 42) indicated that when attribution was external, the effect of nonwork-to-work distinctiveness satisfaction on shame was significant at low levels of need for distinctiveness ($b = -.09$, $p = .04$) but not at high levels of need for distinctiveness ($b = -.02$, $p = .67$). Conversely, when attribution was internal, the effect of nonwork-to-work distinctiveness satisfaction on shame was significant at high levels of need for distinctiveness ($b = -.09$, $p = .02$) but not at low levels of need for distinctiveness ($b = -.02$, $p = .77$). However, the simple slopes were not significantly different from one another within internal (Difference = -.08, $p = .09$) and external (Difference = -.07, $p = .20$) attribution. Accordingly, Hypothesis 10b was not supported.

Hypothesis 10c indicated that need strength moderates the relationship between the contribution of an identity to the satisfaction of the efficacy motive of another identity and felt emotions, such that the relationship is stronger for those higher in need for efficacy versus those lower in need for efficacy. To test this hypothesis, general need for efficacy was added as a between-level moderator to the efficacy models in Figures 4 and 8. However, none of the

interaction effects in the afternoon or evening were significant; Hypothesis 10c was not

supported.

Hypothesis 11 predicted that anger experienced in an identity coactivation episode is

positively related to approach-oriented deviant behavior. Models in Figures 3 to 10 provide

inconsistent support for the hypothesis, differing by motives and time if the survey (i.e., the

afternoon vs. the evening). Specifically, in the afternoon, anger was significantly and positively

related to approach-oriented deviant behaviors for the esteem ($b = .05$, $p = .02$), belongingness (b

$= .05$, $p = .04$), and distinctiveness ($b = .05$, $p = .03$) motives. However, the effect of anger on

approach-oriented deviant behaviors in the evening was only significant for the esteem ($b = .09$,

$p = .04$) and distinctiveness ($b = .09$, $p = .04$) motives. These results provide mixed support for

Hypothesis 11.

Hypothesis 12 predicted that (a) anxiety and (b) shame experienced in an identity

coactivation episode are positively related to avoidance-oriented deviant behavior. The results

(Figures 3 to 10) indicated that the effect of shame on avoidance-oriented deviant behavior was

positive and significant across all motives for both the afternoon (esteem: $b = .14$, $p = .03$;

efficacy: $b = .17$, $p = .02$; belongingness: $b = .14$, $p = .02$; and distinctiveness: $b = .15$, $p = .03$)

and evening (esteem: $b = .29$, $p = .046$; efficacy: $b = .33$, $p = .001$; belongingness: $b = .29$, $p =$

$.01$; and distinctiveness: $b = .33$, $p = .01$). Therefore, the predicted effect for shame in Hypothesis

12b was fully supported. Moreover, for the effect of anxiety, significant positive effects were

observed in the afternoon (esteem: $b = .08$, $p = .01$; efficacy: $b = .08$, $p = .01$; belongingness: $b =$

$.07$, $p = .01$; and distinctiveness: $b = .08$, $p = .004$); however, no significant relationship was

observed in the evening (esteem: $b = .06$, $p = .27$; efficacy: $b = .07$, $p = .32$; belongingness: $b =$

.06, p = .25; and distinctiveness: b = .07, p = .51). Accordingly, these results provide mixed

support for Hypothesis 12a.

Hypothesis 13 predicted that (a) guilt and (b) gratitude experienced in an identity

coactivation episode are positively related to prosocial behavior. The results (Figure 3 to 10)

indicated that none of the effects of guilt on prosocial behavior were significant for either

afternoon (esteem: b = .05, p = .48; efficacy: b = .06, p = .64; belongingness: b = .06, p = .39;

and distinctiveness: b = .04, p = .50) or evening (esteem: b = .03, p = .78; efficacy: b = .02, p =

.86; belongingness: b = -.05, p = .65; and distinctiveness: b = -.05, p = .70). Therefore,

Hypothesis 13a was not supported. For the effect of gratitude, on the other hand, positive and

significant effects on prosocial behavior was found across all motives for both the afternoon

(esteem: b = .12, p < .001; efficacy: b = .12, p < .001; belongingness: b = .13, p < .001; and

distinctiveness: b = .13, p < .001) and the evening (esteem: b = .20, p = .001; efficacy: b = .21, p

< .001; belongingness: b = .23, p < .001; and distinctiveness: b = .22, p < .001). Thus,

Hypothesis 13b was fully supported.

Hypothesis 14 predicted that (a) happiness and (b) pride experienced in an identity

coactivation episode are positively related to engagement. The results indicated that while the

effect of happiness on engagement was positive and significant for all motives in the afternoon

(esteem: b = .08, p = .03; efficacy: b = .06, p = .048; belongingness: b = .07, p = .01; and

distinctiveness: b = .06, p = .03), no significant effect of happiness on engagement was observed

in the evening. For the effect of pride on engagement, positive and significant effects on

engagement was found for the models including belongingness (b = .07, p = .03) and

distinctiveness (b = .07, p = .02) in the afternoon, and for efficacy (b = .17, p = .01),

belongingness ($b = .19$, $p = .01$) and distinctiveness ($b = .18$, $p = .02$) in the evening.

Accordingly, mixed support was found for Hypothesis 14.

Hypothesis 15 predicted that sadness experienced in an identity coactivation episode is

negatively related to engagement. The results indicated that while the effect of sadness on

engagement was significant and negative for the models conducted for efficacy ($b = -.12$, $p =$

.01), belongingness ($b = -.11$, $p = .02$), and distinctiveness ($b = -.12$, $p = .01$) in the afternoon, no

significant effect was observed in the evening (esteem: $b = -.03$, $p = .65$; efficacy: $b = -.05$, $p =$

.41; belongingness: $b = -.05$, $p = .59$; and distinctiveness: $b = -.06$, $p = .43$). Accordingly, mixed

support was found for Hypothesis 15.

Supplemental Analyses

Because my predicted relations between motives and emotions coupled with emotions

and behavior imply a mediated process, supplemental analyses were conducted to formally

examine indirect effects of motive satisfaction on behavioral outcomes as mediated by emotions.

The results for indirect effects and conditional indirect effects are reported in Tables 5 and 6,

respectively. The results indicated that anxiety and happiness are the main mechanisms linking

motive satisfaction to behaviors (i.e., avoidance-oriented deviant behavior and engagement).

Specifically, the effect of nonwork-to-work esteem satisfaction (Est. = -.012, 90% CI: -.023, -

.002), nonwork-to-work efficacy satisfaction (Est. = -.009, 90% CI: -.018, -.001), and work-to-

nonwork belongingness satisfaction (Est. = -.009, 90% CI: -.021, -.0002) satisfaction on

avoidance-oriented deviant behavior were mediated through anxiety. Further, the effects of

nonwork-to-work esteem (Est. = .015, 90% CI: .0003, .032), efficacy (Est. = .013, 90% CI: .002,

.030), and belongingness (Est. = .010, 90% CI: .0003, .026) satisfaction on engagement were

mediated through happiness.

Moderated mediation analysis was also conducted to examine possible conditional indirect effects of motive satisfaction on behaviors (Table 6). Specifically, the significant three-way interactions among (a) work-to-nonwork distinctiveness satisfaction, attribution, and nonwork identity centrality on engagement via pride and among (b) nonwork-to-work efficacy satisfaction, attribution, and relational work identity on avoidance-oriented deviant behavior via shame were examined. Results indicated that the mediating effect of work-to-nonwork distinctiveness satisfaction on engagement via pride was only significant at high nonwork identity centrality and internal attribution (Est. = .032, 90% CI: .004, .066). In addition, the indirect effect of nonwork-to-work efficacy satisfaction on avoidance-oriented deviant behavior via shame was significant and negative only when a relational work identity was involved and attribution was external (Est. = -.176, 90% CI: -.446, -.002) or when an individual work identity was involved and attribution was internal (Est. = -.059, 90% CI: -.133, -.004).

Summary models. As part of the post hoc analyses, a comprehensive model was conducted to summarize the observed relationships separately in the afternoon and evening. For this purpose, composites of positive and negative emotions were constructed since the hypotheses regarding the proposed moderating effects of attribution in generation of discrete emotions were generally not supported. Accordingly, positive emotion was a composite created of happiness, gratitude, and pride scores. Further, negative emotion was constructed as a composite of anger, anxiety, shame and sadness for both afternoon and evening, separately.

One of the themes observed in the data was that items for motive satisfaction due to another identity (i.e., esteem, efficacy, belongingness, and distinctiveness) were highly correlated within each direction, which might suggest that individual motives are part of a higher order construct. To ensure that existence of two higher order constructs (work-to-nonwork and

nonwork-to-work) is supported in the data, a multilevel CFA was conducted, in which

satisfaction of each motive due to the other identity was set to load on its a priori construct, and

the two constructs were allowed to correlate with each other. The results indicated that the model

was a good fit to the data in the afternoon ($\chi^2_{(40)}$ = 157.76, CFI = .934, RMSEA = .064,

$SRMR_{within}$ = .056, $SRMR_{between}$ = .034), as well as the evening ($\chi^2_{(38)}$ = 103.23, CFI = .945,

RMSEA = .056, $SRMR_{within}$ = .050, $SRMR_{between}$ = .036). Further, in order to ensure that the two-

factor model fits the data, the model was compared to a one-factor model. The Setora-Bentler

loglikelihood ratio was used to compare the two models since the regular chi-square difference

testing cannot be used to compare multilevel models (Satorra, 2000). The results indicated that

the two-factor model was a better fit to the data for both afternoon ($\chi^2_{(2)}$ = 2855.95, $p < .001$)

and evening ($\chi^2_{(2)}$ = 1468.20, $p < .001$). Accordingly, composites of overall motive satisfaction

due to the other identity were constructed and were used for the rest of the analyses, keeping

models separate for the afternoon and the evening.

The models in Figure 43 provide the results of these summary post-hoc analyses. The

results indicated that in the afternoon, work-to-nonwork motive satisfaction was not related to

positive or negative emotions; however, nonwork-to-work motive satisfaction was significantly

related to both positive ($b = .30, p < .001$) and negative ($b = -.13, p = .03$) emotions. On the other

hand, in the evening, motive satisfaction in neither direction was related to negative emotions,

but they were significantly related to positive emotions (nonwork-to-work: $b = .38, p = .04$;

work-to-nonwork: $b = .30, p = .02$). Further, for both afternoon and evening, positive and

negative emotions were significant and positive predictors of positive (engagement and helping

behavior) and negative (approach- and avoidance-oriented deviant behaviors) outcomes,

respectively. Additional analyses were conducted to examine whether emotions mediate the

relationship between motive satisfaction and behavioral outcomes, and the results are reported Table 7. As indicated by the results, the indirect effects from nonwork-to-work motive satisfaction on engagement and helping behavior as outcomes were mediated by positive emotions in the afternoon. Further, negative emotions mediated the effect of nonwork-to-work motive satisfaction and approach- and avoidance-oriented deviant behavior. In the evening, on the other hand, motive satisfaction in both directions influenced engagement and helping behavior through positive emotions only.

Additional post-hoc analyses were conducted to examine boundary conditions. To achieve this, I chose the most viable moderators: presence of actors (from work or nonwork) and individual need strength. Figures 44 and 45 provide the results of the post-hoc analysis examining the moderating role of work and nonwork actors in the afternoon and evening, respectively. The results indicated that the work actor did not moderate the effect of motive satisfaction on positive and negative emotions in the afternoon. Nonwork actors, on the other hand, moderated the relationship between nonwork-to-work motive satisfaction and positive emotions ($b = .22$, $p = .04$) and the relationship between work-to-nonwork motive satisfaction and negative emotions ($b = .14$, $p = .03$) in the afternoon. Figure 46 and 47 represent the graphical plots of the interactions. Specifically, when nonwork actors were involved, there was a significant effect of nonwork-to-work motive satisfaction and positive emotions ($b = .52$, $p = .02$), whereas no significant effect was present when nonwork actors were not involved ($b = .08$, $p = .56$). In addition, although the interaction effect on the relationship between work-to-nonwork motive satisfaction was significant, the results indicated the simple slopes were not significant from zero when nonwork actors were involved ($b = .12$, $p = .40$) nor when they were not involved ($b = -.17$, $p = .06$).

In the evening, on the other hand, work actors moderated the effect of nonwork-to-work motive satisfaction on negative emotions ($b = -.27$, $p = .04$) and nonwork actors moderated the effect of work-to-nonwork motive satisfaction on negative emotions ($b = -.47$, $p < .001$). Simple slope analysis (Figure 48 and 49) indicated that, consistent with Hypothesis 7, the effect of nonwork-to-work motive satisfaction ($b = -.99$, $p < .001$) and work-to-nonwork motive satisfaction ($b = -.64$, $p = .001$) on negative emotions were negative and significant when an actor from work or nonwork domains, respectively, were involved. The effects were not significant (nonwork-to-work: $b = -.04$, $p = .84$; work-to-nonwork: $b = -.11$, $p = .66$) when actors were not involved.

Additional post-hoc analyses were conducted to examine the between-person moderating role of individual need strength. While between-person need strength did not moderate the relationship between motive satisfaction and emotions in the evening, multiple moderating effects were found for the afternoon. Figure 50 summarizes these findings. It should be noted that three separate models were specified to examine each need separately, but the results are summarized in one figure.

The results indicated that general belongingness need moderated the relationship between nonwork-to-work motive satisfaction and negative emotions ($b = .13$, $p = .03$). Simple slope analysis (Figure 51) indicated that, counter to what I would predict, there was a stronger negative relationship between nonwork-to-work motive satisfaction and negative emotion at low levels ($b = -.25$, $p = .004$) compared to high levels ($b = -.03$, $p = .66$) of belongingness need. Similarly, person-level efficacy need moderated the relationship between nonwork-to-work motive satisfaction and negative emotions ($b = .19$, $p = .047$). However, again, counter to expectations, there was a stronger negative relationship between nonwork-to-work motive satisfaction and

negative emotion at low levels ($b = -.25$, $p = .005$) compared to high levels ($b = -.05$, $p = .53$) of efficacy need (Figure 52).

The results also indicated that distinctiveness need moderates the relationship between nonwork-to-work ($b = -.23$, $p = .01$) and work-to-nonwork ($b = .24$, $p = .02$) motive satisfaction on positive emotions. Simple slope analysis (Figure 53) indicated that, counter to expectations, there was a stronger relationship between nonwork-to-work motive satisfaction and positive emotion at low levels ($b = .56$, $p < .001$) compared to high levels ($b = .14$, $p = .27$) of distinctiveness need. In addition, although there was a significant interaction effect of distinctiveness and work-to-nonwork motive satisfaction on positive emotions, simple slope analysis (Figure 54) indicated that the effects at high ($b = .27$, $p = .05$) and low ($b = -.16$, $p = .37$) levels of distinctiveness were not significantly different from zero.

DISCUSSION

Because demarcations and boundaries in employees' lives have exceedingly diminished due to globalization, declining job security, increasing workforce diversity, and the spread of communication technology, there has been increased interest in employee's multiple identities (Ramarajan, 2014; Ramarajan & Reid, 2013). While these studies extend our understanding of how multiple identities might interact to influence important employee outcomes, such as satisfaction, innovation and performance, judgement and decision-making, and well-being (Brook et al., 2008; Cheng et al., 2008; Leavitt et al., 2012; LeBoeuf et al., 2010; McQuillen et al., 2001; Settles et al., 2002; Spreitzer et al., 1979; Thoits, 1983, 1986), our understanding of such influences is limited because these studies have typically adopted a static approach to understanding the interrelationship among identities, and research has also rarely examined the interrelationship among more than two identities (Miscenko & Day, 2016; Ramarajan, 2014).

The current study extends this line of research by proposing a framework through which a continuum of identities, simultaneously occupied, can be studied from a dynamic viewpoint. Taking an episodic perspective, I treat the simultaneous experience of multiple identities as unique events with specific situational (actors and demands) and individual (identity centrality and level) properties and goals (esteem, efficacy, belongingness, and distinctiveness motives). Partially supporting my hypotheses, the results indicated that these episodes are evaluated based on whether they are (in)congruent with the episode's goals, which in turn generally result in the experience of positive (negative) emotions, and indirectly influence subsequent behaviors throughout the day. Further, presence of actors strengthened the effect of goal (i.e., motive) satisfaction on emotions and subsequent behaviors. Finally, counter to expectations, I found that individuals who have generally low need for belongingness, distinctiveness, and efficacy experience stronger emotions following motive (dis)satisfaction. Below, I discuss the implications of these results for future scholarship and practice.

Implications for Theory and Research

This study makes a number of key contributes to the growing body of literature on individual's multiple identities and work-nonwork interface. First, this study expands the identity development literature by suggesting that identities can positively and negatively contribute to one another, over time and across different situations, and such contributions will subsequently influence daily emotions and behaviors. The identity development literature suggests that individuals affiliate with a specific identity because it satisfies one or more of their motives for identification, including self-esteem, distinctiveness, belongingness, and efficacy (Ashforth, 2001; Vignoles et al., 2006). This study extends prior research by uncovering the complexities within self-aspects in contributing to the satisfaction of these motives. Specifically, my results

demonstrate that a nonwork identity can contribute to the motive satisfaction of a work identity, and when at work, such contributions result in positive and negative emotions. Further, I found that the contribution of a work or nonwork identity to the satisfaction of identity motives of the other identity results in the experience of positive emotions, when the episode is experienced outside of work. In addition, in contrast to prior research that suggests an identity's motives, while correlated, make a unique contribution to predicting current and/or future identity centrality, affect, and enactment (Vignoles et al., 2006), the findings of this study indicated that satisfaction of an identity's esteem, efficacy, distinctiveness, and belongingness motives due to another identity may form a single construct, suggesting that when an identity contributes to another identity, it helps (or hinders) the satisfaction of all motives simultaneously.

In addition, this study moves beyond a static, between-person approach to multiple identities by proposing an episodic framework to understand how employees experience multiple identities simultaneously and how those experiences may vary day-to-day, within-persons, and across various identity events. To date, studies have typically adopted a static approach to understanding the interrelationship among identities (Miscenko & Day, 2016; Ramarajan, 2014). Static, one-point in time snapshots of identities might be inaccurate because they are based on individual's subjective recall of past events from memory, which may also be confounded with current in-process events (Maertz & Boyar, 2011). Further, this approach ignores the influence of situationally relevant information and cues on the individual's experience (Ramarajan, 2014). Accordingly, through the introduction of identity coactivation episodes, I establish a framework that treats simultaneous experience of multiple identities as unique episodes with specific situational properties, from which meaning is drawn and through which goal (dis)satisfaction is evaluated. The findings suggested that, in contrast to what was expected, attribution did not

typically influence the degree of discrete emotions (e.g., anger versus shame) experienced. The unexpected findings may be due, in part, to the nature of goal satisfaction/frustration. Specifically, it may be the case that, since individual's own identities are involved, a certain attribution results from a certain contribution of an identity, irrespective of the situation. On the other hand, looking from a broader perspective of positive versus negative emotions, one of the main situational factors that influenced how employees emotionally react to the (dis)satisfaction of identity motives due to another identity was whether any work or nonwork actor was involved in the episode. Specifically, when at work, involvement of work-related actors (e.g., supervisor, coworkers, etc.) did not influence the relationship; however, involvement of nonwork-related actors (e.g., spouse, kids, friends, etc.) influenced the relationship, such that stronger positive emotion was found when a nonwork identity contributed to motive satisfaction of a work identity and a nonwork actor was involved in the episode. On the other hand, when outside of work, involvement of work- and nonwork-related actors resulted in stronger negative emotions due to nonwork-to-work and work-to-nonwork motive dissatisfaction, respectively. In other words, while motive dissatisfaction did not result in negative emotion outside of work in general, negative emotions were experienced if motive satisfaction was diminished and an actor was involved. Thus, although attribution may not play a key role in identity coactivating episodes, other contextual factors such as work and nonwork actors appear to be a critical component in terms of understanding felt emotions (and subsequent behaviors).

In addition to contributing to the dynamic view of multiple identities, these findings extend the literature on boundary theory. Research on boundary theory suggests that employees with more permeable boundaries between their work and life domains are more likely to experience work-life conflict, whereas less permeable boundaries are related to experience of

work-life enhancement (Bulger et al., 2007; Olson-Buchanan & Boswell, 2006). The results of this study, however, suggests that there might be more complexity to the influence of permeable boundaries. Specifically, I found that while both *positive* and *negative* emotions can be experienced when a nonwork identity contributes to a work identity at work, only *positive* emotions are generated when either a work or nonwork identity contributes to the other identity at home. These results imply that permeability of work identities into nonwork identities may not be experienced negatively in general. These findings run counter and challenge prior research on psychological detachment from work suggesting that higher psychological detachment from work enhances well-being because it can help restore lost resources due to work demands (Fritz, Yankelevich, Zarubin, & Barger, 2010; Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007). Specifically, it seems that psychological detachment may constrain the positive effects of work identities on nonwork identities. In addition, the finding that involvement of both work and nonwork actors heightens the experience of negative emotions when the episode is experienced outside of work suggests that psychological detachment may only be beneficial if actors are involved. Altogether, these findings add to the complexity of boundary theory, by suggesting that various situational and individual factors may operate to determine how permeation of multiple life domains is experienced and the personal benefits and/or consequences that result.

This study also contributes to the literature on multiple identities. Specifically, to date, the literature on multiple identities does not consider directionality when considering the interrelationships among identities. The findings of this study, however, suggest that directionality, in terms of how identities influence one another, does matter. Specifically, when at work, contribution of a work identity to the motive satisfaction of a nonwork identity does not generate positive or negative emotion, while such contribution in the other direction (nonwork-

to-work) is significantly related to both positive *and* negative emotions. On the other hand, when outside of work, contribution in both directions was related to positive emotions, but not related to negative emotions. Accordingly, this study challenges the assumption of non-directionality of the interrelationships among identities by demonstrating that in an identity coactivation episode, it can occur that one identity can negatively influence another but not vice versa. Therefore, incorporating the directionality in the various constructs in the literature on multiple identities can extend our understanding of when and under what conditions an identity may affect emotions and behaviors by influencing another identity. Identity conflict, for example, involves interference of two or more identities in terms of their meaning, norms, values, and demands (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Settles, 2004; Settles et al., 2002), without any consideration of directionality of the conflict. The findings of the multilevel confirmatory factor analysis for motive satisfaction provide initial support that identity conflict can be separated into two distinct but related constructs according to directionality. Such a fine-grained approach to study the interrelationships among identities can provide additional avenues to understand how multiple identities interact with one another to influence employee outcomes. For example, the findings of this study demonstrated that the geographical location of an identity coactivation episode influences whether a conflict between identities – and in which direction – is likely to be experienced. These findings are consistent with findings in the work-family literature. For example, Judge and colleagues (2006), using experience sampling methodology, found that work-to-family conflict experienced at work is more likely to lead to the experience of guilt at work, while family-to-work conflict experienced at home is more likely to result in hostility and anger at home. Accordingly, the literature on multiple identities can benefit from more fully integrating tenets of the work-family literature.

Further, although the mediating role of discrete emotions (e.g., anger, pride, shame, etc.) in the relationships between motives satisfaction and daily behaviors was not generally supported, adopting a broader positive versus negative emotions perspective, I found that motive satisfaction in both directions predicted employee behaviors at work and outside of work through the experience of positive and negative emotions. These supported indirect effects extends our understanding of the affective processes though which employee's multiple identities can affect employee outcomes—not only at work, but also in the nonwork domain. Although prior studies have examined the effect of multiple identities on various outcomes such as well-being (Brook et al., 2008; Settles et al., 2002; Spreitzer et al., 1979; Thoits, 1983, 1986), competitiveness (Cadsby et al., 2013), innovation and performance (Cheng et al., 2008; Das et al., 2008; Settles, 2004), and decision-making and judgement (Leavitt et al., 2012; LeBoeuf et al., 2010), they do not adequately explicate *how* these effects unfold. As such, this study is a substantial extension of prior research by illuminating an affective process through which employees' multiple identities influence their behaviors.

Additionally, the way in which identity coactivation episodes are operationalized and measured in this study provides new opportunities for us to examine a multitude of individual's multiple identities. An individual's self-concept reflects a complex entity consisting of multiple identities, and understanding the effects of self-concept on employee behaviors and outcomes requires an expansive set of an individual's identities to be considered. However, research on multiple identities has rarely examined the interrelationship among more than two identities. Further, studies seldom asked participants to report on their full spectrum of identities (see Brook et al., 2008; Linville, 1985, 1987; Vignoles et al., 2006 for some exceptions). Focusing on a limited, predefined set of identities might ignore the effects of more central, salient, or variable

identities possibly excluded from investigation. Accordingly, adopting a dynamic identity coactivation framework can extend our understanding of how individual's multiple identities influence one another to affect emotional and behavioral outcomes in a single coactivation episode or over time, and across multiple occurrences of identity coactivation episodes.

This study also contributes to the literature on the work-nonwork interface. Although the work-nonwork literature has recently advocated for an episodic lens in better understanding the relationship between work and nonwork domains, particularly in terms of conflict and enrichment (Maertz & Boyar, 2011; Shockley & Allen, 2013, 2015), the limited studies to date have primarily focused on the interface between work and *family*. Scholars have long called for research that moves beyond individual's family roles and include other aspects of the nonwork domain (Fisher et al., 2009), such as one's personal life (Wilson & Baumann, 2015) and other life domains of single individuals (Casper et al., 2007). Accordingly, by adapting the identity coactivation episode framework to the work-nonwork context, this study allowed not only for the inclusion of individual's nonwork identities other than family but also differentiated among various work-related identities.

Implications for Practice

The findings from this study have important implications for both managers and employees. For example, the findings provide support for positive effects of integrating nonwork identities into work – especially when these identities can enhance esteem, efficacy, distinctiveness, or belongingness motives associated with work identities. Accordingly, managers can help increase employee engagement and citizenship behaviors by encouraging integration strategies (Ramarajan & Reid, 2013) and authenticity at work (Cable, Gino, & Staats, 2013). Research suggests that organizational and supervisor inclusionary norms, coupled with

individual preference for integrating nonwork identities into work can lead to a variety of positive outcomes such as enhanced well-being, productivity, and higher quality leader-member exchange relationships (Creary, Caza, & Roberts, 2015; Ramarajan & Reid, 2013). Although such integrations may also increase the likelihood of motive frustration and subsequent negative emotions and behaviors, they can possibly be buffered by supportive supervisors. Specifically, supportive supervisors may help reduce the experience of motive frustration. For example, Ragins and colleagues (Ragins, 2008; Ragins et al., 2007) argued that individuals with stigmatized identities face social isolation in the workplace and having supportive supervisors and coworkers provides a safe haven for them to disclose their stigmatized identities.

My findings also suggest that there are potential benefits for employees and their families in the integration of work identities to domains outside of work (e.g., home). Specifically, the results suggested that motive dissatisfaction at both directions is not related to negative emotions, and subsequent deviant behavior outside of work, if work or nonwork actors are not involved. On the other hand, motive satisfaction at both directions leads to positive emotions, regardless of actor involvement. Accordingly, employees should only strive for psychological detachment when they are involved in activities with family and friends, and only when they anticipate a conflict between their identities. In addition, employees should take into account their preferences since individual differences may play a role in the magnitude of negative outcomes experienced. Specifically, my findings suggest that those with low general need for belongingness and efficacy are more prone to the negative effects of motive frustration. While counter intuitive, these results may be due, in part, to the involvement of individual's own identities to the satisfaction of these motives. For example, it is possible that those who have higher need for belongingness identify more strongly with identities that satisfy their

belongingness need within the identity most strongly, or help the satisfaction of the

belongingness motive of other identities. Accordingly, it is possible that the mean level of

belongingness satisfaction at both directions for those high in belongingness need is higher

compared to those with low belongingness need, which may result in weaker relationship with

negative emotions, when distorted. Consequently, it may be the case that those who have lower

need for belongingness or efficacy have identified with identities that are more likely to

negatively contribute to the satisfaction of belongingness and efficacy motives of other identities,

and thus, may benefit from segmenting their nonwork identities from work.

Limitations and Future Research

Despite the contributions of this study to the literature, there are some limitations inherent

in this study that should be noted. First, although the data was collected over a 10-day period and

multiple times per day, all the within-level variables were collected at the same point in time.

While this may be concerning, this practice is consistent with prior research in understanding

employees' response to emotional experience (e.g., Butts, Becker, & Boswell, 2015; Conroy,

Becker, & Menges, 2016; Rothbard & Wilk, 2011; Scott & Barnes, 2011; Trougakos, Beal,

Green, & Weiss, 2008) and also a necessity of this study since affective experiences are fleeting

and transitory phenomena and have strongest effects on behaviors at the moment they are

experienced. However, the results cannot eliminate concerns about causality. For example, it is

possible that individual's emotions (e.g., being angry) caused them to perceive one identity is

influencing another identity in a specific direction (e.g., reducing identity motive satisfaction).

Although, the use of day reconstruction method has limited such possibility. DRM is designed to

allow participants to reexperience the past in terms of their affective experiences, and through

such reconstruction they can report on their emotions and behaviors with reasonable accuracy

(Kahneman et al., 2004). DRM has been commonly used in the prior studies to examine individual's affective experiences (e.g., Bakker et al., 2013; Oerlemans & Bakker, 2014a, 2014b; Parker, Johnson, Collins, & Nguyen, 2013).

The use of single-source, self-reported data is another limitation of this study. The association observed in single-source, self-reported data may be vulnerable to common method bias. However, this concern has been minimized for multiple reasons. First, by adopting an experience sampling methodology and group-mean centering within-person variables, I have removed the between-person differences, and therefore, minimized the potential for common-method bias, social desirability, and response tendencies that are common in cross-sectional, single-source data. Second, it is doubtful that the observed within- and between-level moderating effects are due to common method bias (Evans, 1985; Siemsen, Roth, & Oliveira, 2010). In addition, self-reported data is appropriate when the constructs to be measured are employee experiences such as emotions. For the behavioral outcomes, on the other hand, some scholars have argued for the use of other-reported measures since others (e.g., coworkers) can provide a more accurate ratings of employee behaviors (Fox, Spector, Goh, & Bruursema, 2007; Stewart, Bing, Davison, Woehr, & McIntyre, 2009). This argument however, has received mixed support. For example, Allen, Barnard, Rush, and Russell (2000) found that different sources in reporting organizational citizenship behavior can provide different information. On the other hand, a recent meta-analysis on the difference between various sources of rating counterproductive work behavior suggests that other-reported measures accounted for little incremental predictive ability (Berry, Carpenter, & Barratt, 2012). Accordingly, future research should replicate the current study's findings using different sources of ratings for the outcomes.

Generalizability of the findings might be also an issue. The participants in this study were recruited through personal connections and ResearchMatch, a platform in which people can volunteer to become a research participant. Although the participants reported working in a wide range of industries, having various levels of education, and having different levels of managerial responsibilities, the results may not be generalizable to the broader population. For example, it is possible that those who have volunteered to participate in research studies are fundamentally different than the general population. Therefore, additional studies with different sample characteristics should be conducted to replicate these findings.

The findings of this study also provide fruitful avenues for future research. First, this study only focused on the consequences of an identity coactivation episode and how contribution of one identity to another is experienced emotionally, followed by domain-relevant behaviors. Accordingly, a possible avenue for future research is to examine the antecedents of an identity coactivation episode and the mechanisms through which identities can positively or negatively influence motive satisfaction of another identity. The results of the current study indicated that among the 179 participants who responded at least three times to the afternoon survey, 20 (11%) could not identify a single occurrence of a work-nonwork identity coactivation episode at work. Similarly, among the 170 who responded at least three times to the evening survey, 29 (17%) were not able to identify a single work-nonwork identity coactivation episode outside of work. These results may suggest that there are strong individual differences in terms of how work and nonwork identities are cognitively stored associated in memory, beyond merely preferences for integration and segmentation. Future research should also examine the identity-contingent factors that determine whether an identity contributes (either positively or negatively) to the motive satisfaction of another identity. As mentioned, these factors may include valence of the

identity affect, skills, knowledge, and stereotypes within an identity domain, and compatibility of behavioral norms and expectations, among others.

Future studies might also examine how identities – and identification with those identities – are developed and changed over time due to their effects and contributions on other identities. While extensive research has examined how a single identity is constructed, developed, and changes over time (e.g., Alvesson, 1994; Coupland, 2001; Covaleski, Dirsmith, Heian, & Samuel, 1998; Ibarra, 1999; Ibarra & Barbulescu, 2010; Lord & Hall, 2005), research on how such development occurs over time which considering the interrelationships and interplay among identities is rare (Miscenko & Day, 2016; see Sluss, Ployhart, Cobb, & Ashforth, 2012 for an exception). Accordingly, the identity coactivation framework in the current research can be used to advance a more dynamic approach to identity development. For example, centrality of an identity to one's sense of self might increase if, over time, that identity contributes positively to the satisfaction of identity motives of other identities. In addition, identity centrality might decrease if, over time, an identity frustrates other identities' motives.

Conclusion

The primary objective of this study was to introduce the concept of an identity coactivation episode, and to study the influence of individuals' multiple identities from a dynamic, within-person perspective. My findings demonstrate that identities can contribute to the (dis)satisfaction of another identity's motives, and such contributions relate to employee behaviors both at work and outside of work via their effect on positive and negative emotions. The results also indicated that situational factors, such as involvement of work and nonwork actors, influence this relationship in that the effects on emotions are stronger when actors are involved. Findings also highlighted the importance of the episode's geographical location in

determining how multiple identities are experienced, consistent with theory and findings in the work-nonwork literature. In summary, this research has adopted a fine-grained theoretical and empirical approach to examine an affective process model of coactivation episodes, through which multiple identities can influence employee behaviors, and in doing so it contributes to the growing body of literature on multiple identities, identity development, and work-nonwork interface.

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TABLES

Table 1

Summary of Mechanisms through which an Identity Coactivation Episode is Experienced

Mechanism/ Theory	Relevant Motives	Definition	Examples
Reflected Appraisal (Cooley, 1956; Mead, 1934) and Stereotype Threat	Self-esteem & Belongingness	Others' views and evaluations of us and our perception of such evaluations partly determine our self-concept, self-evaluation, and self-worth.	Negative view of coworkers about becoming pregnant (Ladge et al., 2012); Stereotype threat toward African-Americans and women at school (Spencer et al., 1999)
Self-evaluation and Affective Spillover (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000)	Self-esteem	Individual's own evaluation of their identities and emotional significance attached to an identity.	Influence of affect within an identity domain (e.g., shame) on self-esteem associated with another identity
Stereotype Inoculation (Dasgupta, 2011)	Belongingness	Minorities are more likely to leave a group if they feel they deviate from ingroup stereotype.	Women leave STEM fields (Dasgupta, 2011)
Stigmatized Identities	Self-esteem & Belongingness	Activation of a stigmatized identity can distort self-esteem or belongingness motive within another identity.	Social isolation of people with stigmatized identities (Ragins, 2008; Ragins et al., 2007)
Optimal Distinctiveness (Brewer, 1991, 1993, 2007)	Belongingness & Distinctiveness	Individuals strive to achieve a balance between assimilation and differentiation	Membership in sufficiently large and inclusive groups would satisfy individual's need for belongingness and activates their need to be distinct from other members (Brewer & Weber, 1994)
Strain- and Behavior-based Conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985)	Efficacy	Emotionally-based strain produced in one domain impedes their performance in another domain; Behavioral requirements in one domain impede performance in another domain.	Different behavioral requirements within occupational (e.g., scientist) and organizational identities (Stryker & Macke, 1978)
Affective and Instrumental Enrichment (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006)	Efficacy	Affect produced in one domain enhances an individual's performance in another domain; skills and resources gained in one domain enhance performance in another domain.	Higher creative performance of women engineers when designing products targeted to women (Cheng et al., 2008)

Table 2

Variance Decomposition for Within-Person Focal Variables

Variable	Within-Person Variance (σ^2)		Between-Person Variance (τ_{00})		Percentage of Total Variance Within-Person [a]	
	S1	S2	S1	S2	S1	S2
Esteem Satisfaction (N->W)	.53	.54	.25	.23	67.6%	70.2%
Esteem Satisfaction (W->N)	.51	.49	.26	.21	65.9%	70.2%
Efficacy Satisfaction (N->W)	.56	.55	.23	.21	70.7%	71.8%
Efficacy Satisfaction (W->N)	.52	.46	.23	.23	69.2%	66.7%
Belonging Satisfaction (N->W)	.52	.42	.19	.25	73.2%	63.4%
Belonging Satisfaction (W->N)	.43	.41	.26	.22	62.5%	65.0%
Distinctiveness Satisfaction (N->W)	.44	.42	.23	.19	65.8%	69.2%
Distinctiveness Satisfaction (W->N)	.40	.41	.26	.22	60.8%	65.7%
Attribution	1.21	.98	.28	.43	81.4%	69.7%
Happiness	1.26	.99	.56	.66	69.1%	60.0%
Pride	1.13	.98	.65	.63	63.4%	60.8%
Sadness	.61	.63	.23	.14	72.7%	82.2%
Anger	.68	.94	.23	.19	75.1%	83.3%
Gratitude	1.27	1.08	.60	.64	68.0%	62.7%
Guilt	.33	.35	.09	.15	79.4%	69.5%
Shame	.26	.26	.14	.08	66.1%	76.1%
Anxiety	.88	.97	.30	.34	74.3%	74.1%
Helping Behavior	.63	.71	.56	.71	52.8%	50.2%
Approach-Oriented Deviant Behavior	.10	.24	.10	.15	49.5%	61.7%
Avoidance-Oriented Deviant Behavior	.35	.36	.20	.20	64.5%	64.4%
Engagement	.54	.74	.45	.31	54.7%	70.5%

Note. [a] Based on the $\sigma^2 / (\sigma^2 + \tau_{00})$ formula. S1 = Afternoon, S2 = Evening, N->W: Nonwork-to-Work; W->N: Work-to-Nonwork.

Table 3

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations among Variables in the Study

Variable	Mean S1	Mean S2	SD S1	SD S2	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Level 1 (Within-Person)													
1 Task - Work Identity	.56	.60	.50	.49	--	.40***	.12**	.00	.21***	.14**	-.01	.01	-.02
2 Task - Nonwork Identity	.55	.52	.50	.50	.32***	--	.03	.14***	.11**	.08	.03	.04	.00
3 Actors - Work Identity	.42	.39	.49	.49	.08*	-.03	--	.25***	.07	.08	.01	-.03	.00
4 Actors - Nonwork Identity	.43	.52	.49	.50	-.02	.13***	.26***	--	-.04	-.04	-.01	.10*	.04
5 Work Identity Centrality	3.48	3.51	1.00	.96	.04	.15***	-.01	-.05	--	.34***	-.14**	-.10*	-.06
6 Nonwork Identity Centrality	4.15	4.28	.88	.74	.04	.02	.06	.02	.28***	--	-.07	-.02	.00
7 Relational Work Identity	.04	.04	.20	.20	-.03	-.09*	.05	-.02	-.11**	.00	--	-.46***	.02
8 Collective Work Identity	.82	.83	.39	.38	.05	.02	-.03	.00	-.20***	-.06	-.44***	--	.03
9 Relational Nonwork Identity	.12	.13	.33	.33	.05	-.06	.01	.09*	-.09*	.01	.04	.06	--
10 Collective Nonwork Identity	.72	.66	.45	.48	-.04	.10**	.01	.04	-.08*	-.08*	.03	.07	-.60***
11 Attribution	2.68	2.78	1.22	1.19	-.11**	.01	-.07	.01	.01	-.07	-.01	.00	.01
12 Esteem Sat. (N->W)	3.50	3.50	.89	.89	-.04	.01	.03	-.02	.29***	.27***	-.04	-.21***	-.13***
13 Esteem Sat. (W->N)	3.51	3.53	.88	.85	.00	.08*	.06	-.01	.37***	.22***	-.05	-.19***	-.13***
14 Efficacy Sat. (N->W)	3.43	3.51	.90	.88	-.02	.00	.02	.01	.30***	.27***	-.03	-.18***	-.16***
15 Efficacy Sat. (W->N)	3.48	3.49	.87	.85	-.02	.08*	.02	-.02	.33***	.19***	-.03	-.23***	-.13***
16 Belongingness Sat. (N->W)	3.41	3.43	.85	.83	-.01	.02	.11**	.02	.23***	.25***	.01	-.18***	-.14***
17 Belongingness Sat. (W->N)	3.38	3.36	.84	.80	-.03	.02	.07	-.03	.34***	.24***	-.06	-.18***	-.13***
18 Distinctiveness Sat. (N->W)	3.39	3.42	.82	.79	.03	.09*	.03	-.03	.29***	.27***	-.03	-.16***	-.07*
19 Distinctiveness Sat. (W->N)	3.39	3.43	.81	.80	.09*	.10**	.05	.00	.36***	.27***	-.04	-.15***	-.14***
20 Anger	1.49	1.74	.95	1.07	.00	.05	-.04	-.02	.06	-.04	-.02	-.04	.06
21 Shame	1.21	1.22	.63	.58	-.01	-.01	.03	-.06	.07	-.02	.00	-.07	-.01
22 Gratitude	2.66	2.43	1.37	1.33	.08*	.04	.10**	.03	.09*	.11**	-.02	.00	-.04
23 Guilt	1.26	1.31	.65	.71	.01	.04	.00	-.10**	.03	-.03	.03	-.05	.01
24 Happiness	2.76	2.33	1.34	1.29	.00	-.04	.13***	.05	.09*	.09*	-.01	-.01	-.09*
25 Pride	2.49	2.45	1.34	1.28	.06	-.01	.06	-.07	.17***	.16***	-.02	-.09*	-.04
26 Sadness	1.47	1.53	.92	.87	-.04	.03	-.03	-.04	.06	.01	.07	-.06	.04
27 Anxiety	1.90	2.12	1.09	1.15	.02	.08*	-.02	-.04	.00	-.03	.06	-.04	.00
28 Helping Behavior	2.63	2.72	1.09	1.21	.12***	.06	.08*	-.03	.19***	.15***	-.01	-.08*	-.05
29 Approach-Oriented Deviant Behavior	1.12	1.34	.43	.61	-.06	-.05	-.04	-.04	.08*	.01	.00	-.03	-.05
30 Avoidance-Oriented Deviant Behavior	1.40	1.42	.74	.73	.02	.05	-.02	-.02	.02	.00	.00	-.06	-.06
31 Engagement	3.20	3.23	.99	1.02	.04	-.02	.08*	.08*	.16***	.12**	-.06	.09*	.01
Level 2 (Between-Person)													
32 Belongingness Need	3.31	3.31	.83	.81	-.07	-.10	-.01	-.01	.05	.17*	.12	.05	.05
33 Distinctiveness Need	3.36	3.37	.90	.90	.01	.03	.08	-.04	.25**	.15	-.04	-.16*	-.07
34 Effectiveness Need	4.25	4.24	.57	.56	.14	.17*	.11	-.03	.27***	.22**	.00	-.06	-.06
35 Positive Affect	3.55	3.54	.72	.70	.19*	.18*	.08	-.06	.33***	.22**	.13	.01	-.01
36 Negative Affect	2.05	2.10	.79	.80	.06	.04	.04	.00	-.10	.02	.00	.04	.15

Variable	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
Level 1 (Within-Person)														
1 Task - Work Identity	.12	.01	.10*	.09*	.07	.10*	.12**	.12**	.08	.16***	.01	.00	.07	.01
2 Task - Nonwork Identity	.13	-.09*	.14**	.15***	.08	.12**	.11**	.12**	.12**	.16***	-.13**	-.08	.14***	-.03
3 Actors - Work Identity	.06	.07	.04	.13**	.02	.11**	.09*	.11**	.03	.12**	.07	.05	.05	.01
4 Actors - Nonwork Identity	.13	-.02	.04	-.01	-.07	-.03	.00	-.02	-.09*	.02	.03	-.07	.01	-.07
5 Work Identity Centrality	-	-.01	.22***	.29***	.26***	.33***	.28***	.29***	.26***	.32***	-.01	.02	.20***	-.05
6 Nonwork Identity Centrality	-	-.03	.26***	.18***	.25***	.21***	.24***	.19***	.29***	.20***	.05	-.09*	.08	-.02
7 Relational Work Identity	.03	-.01	-.10*	-.07	-.07	-.06	-.04	-.04	-.02	-.08	.03	.06	-.06	.15**
8 Collective Work Identity	.22	-.04	-.02	-.14**	-.06	-.11*	-.11*	-.11*	-.11*	-.03	.01	-.09	-.05	-.04
9 Relational Nonwork Identity	-	.04	-.08	-.07	-.05	-.01	-.13**	-.03	-.02	.00	.06	-.11*	-.11*	-.02
10 Collective Nonwork Identity	--	-.06	.09	.03	-.07	.03	.03	.06	-.04	.04	-.10*	-.02	.07	-.02
11 Attribution	.00	--	-.11**	-.07	-.09*	-.06	-.06	-.09*	-.10*	-.11**	.27***	.09*	-.29***	.04
12 Esteem Sat. (N->W)	-	-.08*	--	.47***	.68***	.47***	.59***	.50***	.50***	.49***	-.23***	-.21***	.32***	-.26***
13 Esteem Sat. (W->N)	.01	-.09*	.61***	--	.46***	.72***	.49***	.61***	.48***	.59***	-.19***	-.12**	.32***	-.13**
14 Efficacy Sat. (N->W)	-	-.09*	.78***	.56***	--	.50***	.66***	.48***	.60***	.50***	-.21***	-.05	.26***	-.19***
15 Efficacy Sat. (W->N)	.00	-.11**	.54***	.74***	.55***	--	.53***	.66***	.50***	.67***	-.21***	-.13**	.30***	-.14***
16 Belongingness Sat. (N->W)	.04	-.09*	.68***	.54***	.66***	.48***	--	.61***	.60***	.52***	-.18***	-.05	.23***	-.09*
17 Belongingness Sat. (W->N)	-	-.07	.59***	.63***	.55***	.58***	.65***	--	.49***	.66***	-.21***	-.13**	.27***	-.18***
18 Distinctiveness Sat. (N->W)	-	-.14***	.59***	.48***	.59***	.47***	.60***	.52***	--	.57***	-.14***	-.04	.28***	-.06
19 Distinctiveness Sat. (W->N)	.00	-.07	.55***	.66***	.58***	.63***	.49***	.66***	.61***	--	-.19***	-.04	.31***	-.11*
20 Anger	.01	.29***	-.07	-.06	-.11**	-.07	-.12**	-.04	-.07	-.01	--	.31***	-.30***	.25***
21 Shame	-	.09*	-.09*	-.01	-.08*	-.06	-.08*	-.02	-.06	-.03	.40***	--	-.09*	.42***
22 Gratitude	.00	-.17***	.29***	.21***	.26***	.20***	.24***	.19***	.16***	.16***	-.23***	-.08*	--	-.11***
23 Guilt	.03	.03	-.07	.03	-.06	-.01	-.04	.00	.03	.02	.23***	.49***	-.07	--
24 Happiness	.00	-.31***	.25***	.20***	.25***	.20***	.23***	.19***	.18***	.17***	-.32***	-.11**	.63***	-.12**
25 Pride	-	-.21***	.33***	.32***	.28***	.30***	.26***	.24***	.23***	.23***	-.12**	-.03	.61***	-.05
26 Sadness	.01	.29***	-.11**	-.08*	-.13***	-.08*	-.09*	-.04	-.09*	-.06	.55***	.43***	-.17***	.36***
27 Anxiety	.00	.22***	-.09*	-.03	-.09*	-.05	-.10**	-.04	-.04	.00	.54***	.39***	-.14***	.32***
28 Helping Behavior	.01	-.02	.25***	.22***	.24***	.23***	.21***	.25***	.19***	.25***	-.03	-.01	.30***	.02
29 Approach-Oriented Deviant B.	-	.05	.05	.07	.03	.00	.03	.03	.07	.02	.23***	.29***	.05	.21***
30 Avoidance-Oriented Deviant B.	.03	.14***	-.03	-.04	-.01	-.08*	-.03	-.05	.05	-.02	.28***	.26***	-.10**	.18***
31 Engagement	-	-.17***	.17***	.20***	.19***	.21***	.15***	.17***	.18***	.17***	-.15***	-.07	.26***	-.03
Level 2 (Between-Person)														
32 Belongingness Need	-	-.05	.05	-.04	-.03	-.05	.03	.00	.10	.05	.03	.02	.03	-.01
33 Distinctiveness Need	-	-.07	.27***	.27***	.31***	.19*	.19*	.26***	.30***	.31***	.06	.12	.11	.12
34 Effectiveness Need	-	-.12	.18*	.31***	.26***	.34***	.23**	.25**	.24**	.32***	-.08	-.02	.24**	.03
35 Positive Affect	-	-.12	.24**	.27***	.24**	.26***	.27***	.24**	.22**	.34***	-.04	.04	.38***	.02
36 Negative Affect	-	-.03	-.04	-.08	-.08	-.07	-.05	-.05	.01	-.02	.13	.12	.03	.08

Variable	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36
Level 1 (Within-Person)													
1 Task - Work Identity	.10*	.17***	-.01	.07	.16***	-.03	.00	.04	.07	.09	.15	.31***	.11
2 Task - Nonwork Identity	.17***	.16***	-.09*	-.06	.20***	-.02	.03	.12**	-.10	.04	.07	.13	-.09
3 Actors - Work Identity	.01	.08	.06	-.02	.07	.01	-.01	.06	-.09	.14	.17*	.30***	-.03
4 Actors - Nonwork Identity	.04	.04	-.02	-.04	.05	.02	-.04	.08	.00	-.06	-.01	-.06	-.12
5 Work Identity Centrality	.20***	.26***	-.04	-.03	.19***	-.05	.03	.08	.02	.17*	.30***	.27***	-.09
6 Nonwork Identity Centrality	.11*	.17***	-.02	.05	.17***	-.08	-.03	.13**	.05	.14	.29***	.21*	-.05
7 Relational Work Identity	-.09	-.08	.02	.04	-.02	-.02	.07	.04	.02	.02	-.10	-.05	.10
8 Collective Work Identity	-.03	-.03	.01	.02	-.08	-.06	-.03	.04	.12	-.08	.00	.04	.09
9 Relational Nonwork Identity	-.06	-.03	.06	.03	-.01	.06	-.01	.03	-.03	-.11	.05	.04	.06
10 Collective Nonwork Identity	.07	.01	-.11*	-.05	.06	-.02	.00	.01	.10	-.10	-.14	-.01	.07
11 Attribution	-.34***	-.33***	.18***	.11**	-.16***	.08	.06	-.19***	-.01	.02	.00	-.12	-.09
12 Esteem Sat. (N->W)	.36***	.39***	-.24***	-.25***	.28***	-.19***	-.17***	.25***	-.05	.17*	.26**	.19*	-.10
13 Esteem Sat. (W->N)	.31***	.36***	-.19***	-.21***	.26***	-.08	-.09*	.16***	-.13	.09	.27***	.24**	-.18*
14 Efficacy Sat. (N->W)	.28***	.31***	-.19***	-.22***	.26***	-.15***	-.13**	.18***	-.06	.20*	.25**	.18*	-.11
15 Efficacy Sat. (W->N)	.33***	.36***	-.22***	-.18***	.24***	-.04	-.08	.13**	-.09	.08	.23**	.23**	-.06
16 Belongingness Sat. (N->W)	.28***	.28***	-.19***	-.20***	.26***	-.10*	-.06	.17***	-.03	.16*	.14	.16	-.11
17 Belongingness Sat. (W->N)	.28***	.32***	-.26***	-.20***	.22***	-.11*	-.10*	.16***	-.18*	.08	.21*	.23**	-.11
18 Distinctiveness Sat. (N->W)	.28***	.30***	-.13**	-.13**	.30***	-.06	-.03	.19***	-.07	.21*	.25**	.17*	-.10
19 Distinctiveness Sat. (W->N)	.32***	.36***	-.21***	-.14***	.29***	-.05	-.03	.19***	-.13	.18*	.25**	.30***	-.04
20 Anger	-.32***	-.24***	.57***	.56***	-.10*	.23***	.24***	-.12**	.14	.02	.01	-.06	.26**
21 Shame	-.11**	-.09*	.46***	.33***	-.03	.36***	.37***	-.10*	.19*	.28***	.03	-.02	.31***
22 Gratitude	.73***	.70***	-.22***	-.19***	.38***	-.07	-.07	.29***	.01	.19*	.13	.35***	.07
23 Guilt	-.13**	-.12**	.37***	.33***	-.02	.34***	.36***	-.12**	.13	.15	.04	.01	.17*
24 Happiness	--	.73***	-.28***	-.21***	.39***	-.08	-.07	.24***	-.03	.09	.21*	.36***	.00
25 Pride	.62***	--	-.18***	-.15***	.40***	-.07	-.07	.28***	-.06	.11	.27**	.35***	.02
26 Sadness	-.36***	-.18***	--	.57***	-.03	.35***	.32***	-.10*	.19*	.13	.04	.08	.37***
27 Anxiety	-.29***	-.12**	.59***	--	-.05	.24***	.28***	-.10*	.16	.08	.01	-.05	.34***
28 Helping Behavior	.28***	.36***	-.10**	-.05	--	.07	.01	.40***	.04	.07	.13	.21*	.09
29 Approach-Oriented Deviant B.	.00	.09*	.22***	.13***	.07	--	.52***	-.10*	.19*	.15	.02	.00	.37***
30 Avoidance-Oriented Deviant B.	-.16***	-.02	.29***	.26***	-.01	.41***	--	-.17***	.26**	.09	.06	.04	.41***
31 Engagement	.28***	.26***	-.21***	-.14***	.26***	-.01	-.15***	--	.03	.10	.02	.17*	.03
Level 2 (Between-Person)													
32 Belongingness Need	.09	.06	.10	.12	.06	.10	.05	-.05	--	.07	-.05	.06	.37***
33 Distinctiveness Need	.12	.21**	.02	.11	.20*	.13	.21**	.03	.13	--	.30***	.16	.16
34 Effectiveness Need	.25**	.29***	-.13	.04	.24**	-.01	.03	.22**	-.05	.24**	--	.39***	-.04
35 Positive Affect	.33***	.30***	-.07	-.04	.29***	.04	-.10	.26***	.02	.14	.45***	--	-.02
36 Negative Affect	-.05	.06	.12	.22**	-.03	.17*	.12	-.03	.35***	.13	-.02	.00	--

Note. Below diagonal represents correlations in the afternoon (Level 1 *N* = 726; Level2 *N* = 162); Above diagonal represents correlations in the evening (Level 1 *N* = 551; Level 2 *N* = 146). S1 = afternoon, S2 = evening, W->N = contribution of work identity to the motive satisfaction of nonwork identity, N->W = contribution of nonwork identity to the motive satisfaction of work identity. *** *p* < .001 ** *p* < .01 * *p* < .05.

Table 4

Summary of Supported Hypotheses

	Esteem		Efficacy		Belongingness		Distinctiveness	
	S1	S2	S1	S2	S1	S2	S1	S2
H1a – Happiness	---	N->W ✓	N->W ✓	W->N ✓	---	---	---	W->N ✓
H1b – Sadness	---	---	---	W->N ✓	---	N->W ✓ W->N ✓	---	W->N ✓
H1c – Anxiety	N->W ✓	N->W ✓	N->W ✓	N->W ✓	---	---	---	---
H2 – Anger	---	---	---	N->W ✓	---	---	---	---
H3 – Shame & Guilt	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
H4 – Gratitude	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
H5 – Pride	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
H6a – Identity level					---	---		
H6b – Identity level			N->W ✓ Shame	---			---	W->N ✓ Gratitude
H7 – Actor					---	N->W ✓ Anxiety		
H8 – Demand			---	---				
H9 – Centrality	---	---	---	---	---	---	W->N ✓ Pride	---
H10a – Need for Belongingness					---	---		
H10b – Need for Distinctiveness							---	---
H10c – Need for Efficacy			---	---				
H11 – CWBP	✓	✓	---	---	✓	---	✓	✓
H12 – CWBV								
Shame	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Anxiety	✓	---	✓	---	✓	---	✓	---
H13 – OCB								
Gratitude	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Guilt	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
H14 – Engagement								
Happiness	✓	---	✓	---	✓	---	✓	---
Pride	---	---	---	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
H15 – Engagement								
Sadness	---	---	✓	---	✓	---	✓	---

Note. S1 = Afternoon; S2 = Evening; W->N = Contribution of a work identity to the motive satisfaction of a nonwork identity; N->W = Contribution of a nonwork identity to the motive satisfaction of a work identity.

✓ The hypothesis was supported for the specified motive, direction of contribution (if relevant), and emotion (if relevant).

--- Hypothesis was not supported.

Table 5

Indirect Effects from Multilevel Path Analysis

Indirect Effect	Estimate	90% CI
Nonwork-to-Work Esteem Satisfaction → CWBV (via Anxiety)	-.012*	[-.023, -.002]
Work-to-Nonwork Esteem Satisfaction → CWBV (via Anxiety)	-.001	[-.011, .009]
Nonwork-to-Work Efficacy Satisfaction → CWBV (via Anxiety)	-.009*	[-.018, -.001]
Work-to-Nonwork Efficacy Satisfaction → CWBV (via Anxiety)	-.004	[-.012, .005]
Nonwork-to-Work Belongingness Satisfaction → CWBV (via Anxiety)	-.005	[-.014, .003]
Work-to-Nonwork Belongingness Satisfaction → CWBV (via Anxiety)	-.009*	[-.021, -.0002]
Nonwork-to-Work Distinctiveness Satisfaction → CWBV (via Anxiety)	-.004	[-.021, .009]
Work-to-Nonwork Distinctiveness Satisfaction → CWBV (via Anxiety)	-.002	[-.019, .013]
Nonwork-to-Work Esteem Satisfaction → Engagement (via Happiness)	.015*	[.0003, .032]
Work-to-Nonwork Esteem Satisfaction → Engagement (via Happiness)	.005	[-.012, .031]
Nonwork-to-Work Efficacy Satisfaction → Engagement (via Happiness)	.013*	[.002, .030]
Work-to-Nonwork Efficacy Satisfaction → Engagement (via Happiness)	.006	[-.005, .022]
Nonwork-to-Work Belongingness Satisfaction → Engagement (via Happiness)	.010*	[.0003, .026]
Work-to-Nonwork Belongingness Satisfaction → Engagement (via Happiness)	.005	[-.007, .019]
Nonwork-to-Work Distinctiveness Satisfaction → Engagement (via Happiness)	.009	[.000, .021]
Work-to-Nonwork Distinctiveness Satisfaction → Engagement (via Happiness)	.008	[-.001, .022]
Nonwork-to-Work Efficacy Satisfaction → Engagement (via Sadness)	.013	[.000, .030]
Work-to-Nonwork Efficacy Satisfaction → Engagement (via Sadness)	.003	[-.009, .018]
Nonwork-to-Work Belongingness Satisfaction → Engagement (via Sadness)	.004	[-.005, .016]
Work-to-Nonwork Belongingness Satisfaction → Engagement (via Sadness)	.000	[-.010, .014]
Nonwork-to-Work Distinctiveness Satisfaction → Engagement (via Sadness)	.011	[-.003, .029]
Work-to-Nonwork Distinctiveness Satisfaction → Engagement (via Sadness)	-.005	[-.012, .021]

Note. CIs are based on 20,000 Monte Carlo bootstrap sample. CWBV = avoidance oriented deviant behavior.

* $p < .05$.

Table 6

Conditional Indirect Effects from Multilevel Path Analysis

Indirect Effect	Moderator	Estimate	90% CI
Work-to-Nonwork Distinctiveness Satisfaction → Engagement (via Pride)	External Att., High Centrality	-.017	[-.054, .009]
	External Att., Low Centrality	.016	[-.009, .045]
	Internal Att., High Centrality	.032*	[.004, .066]
	Internal Att., Low Centrality	-.014	[-.043, .011]
Nonwork-to-Work Efficacy Satisfaction → CWBV (via shame)	External Att., Relational Identity	-.176*	[-.446, -.002]
	External Att., Individual Identity	-.023	[-.069, .008]
	Internal Att., Relational Identity	.074	[-.007, .194]
	Internal Att., Individual Identity	-.059*	[-.133, -.004]

Note. CIs are based on 20,000 Monte Carlo bootstrap sample. CWBV = avoidance oriented deviant behavior.

* $p < .05$.

Table 7

Indirect Effects from the Summary Multilevel Path Analysis

Indirect Effect	Estimate	90% CI
Nonwork-to-Work Motive Satisfaction - Engagement (via Positive Emotions)	.050*	[.022, .084]
Nonwork-to-Work Motive Satisfaction - Prosocial Behavior (via Positive Emotions)	.059*	[.009, .057]
Nonwork-to-Work Motive Satisfaction - Approach-oriented deviant behavior (via Negative Emotions)	-.011*	[-.025, -.001]
Nonwork-to-Work Motive Satisfaction - Avoidance-oriented deviant behavior (via Negative Emotions)	-.035*	[-.064, -.008]
Nonwork-to-Work Motive Satisfaction - Engagement (via Positive Emotions)	.101*	[.017, .210]
Nonwork-to-Work Motive Satisfaction - Prosocial Behavior (via Positive Emotions)	.122*	[.023, .233]
Work-to-Nonwork Motive Satisfaction - Engagement (via Positive Emotions)	.081*	[.022, .146]
Work-to-Nonwork Motive Satisfaction - Prosocial Behavior (via Positive Emotions)	.097*	[.025, .181]

Note. CIs are based on 20,000 Monte Carlo bootstrap sample. CWBV = avoidance oriented deviant behavior.

* $p < .05$.

FIGURES
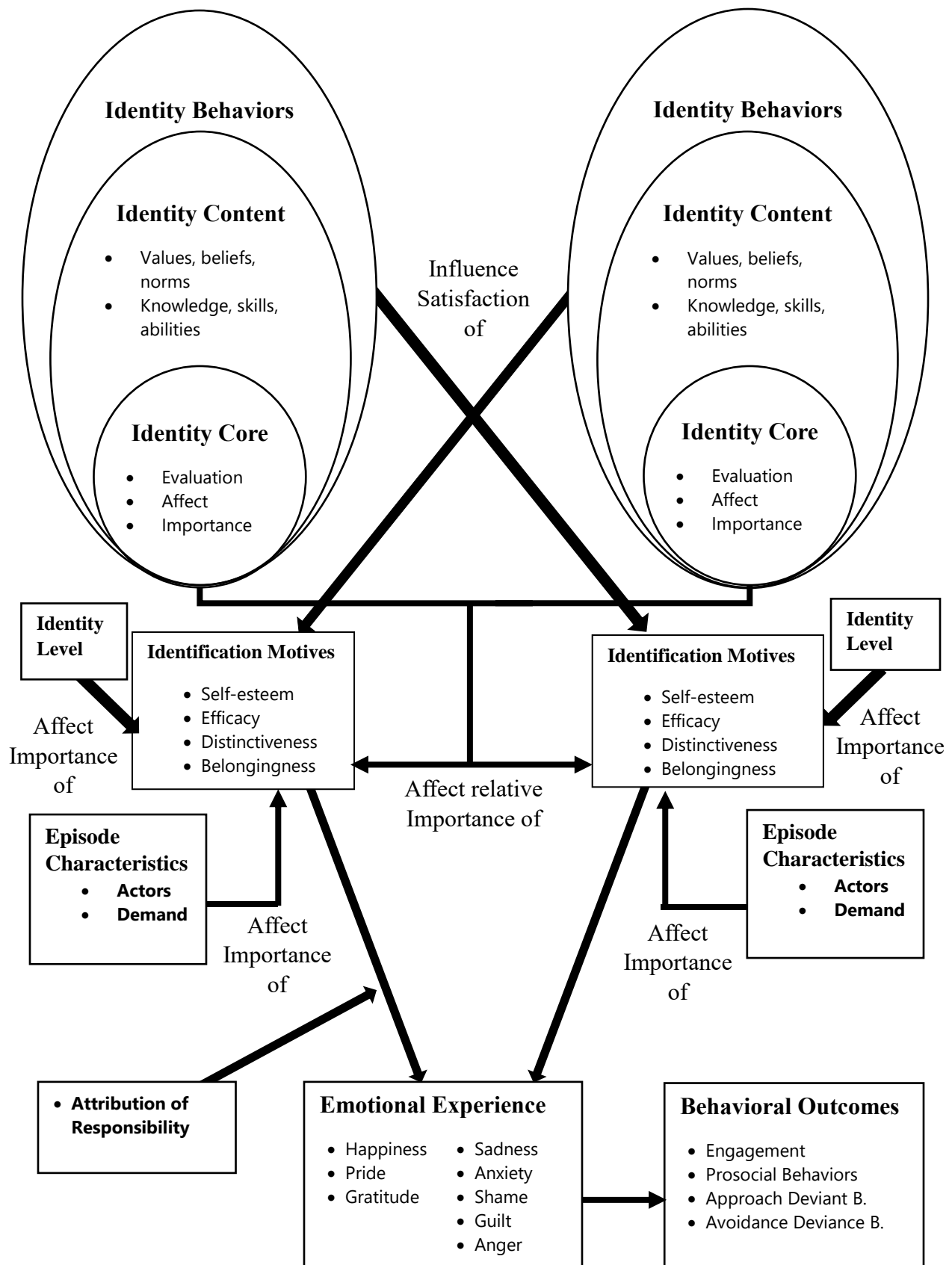
Figure 1. Theoretical Model of Identity Coactivation Episode
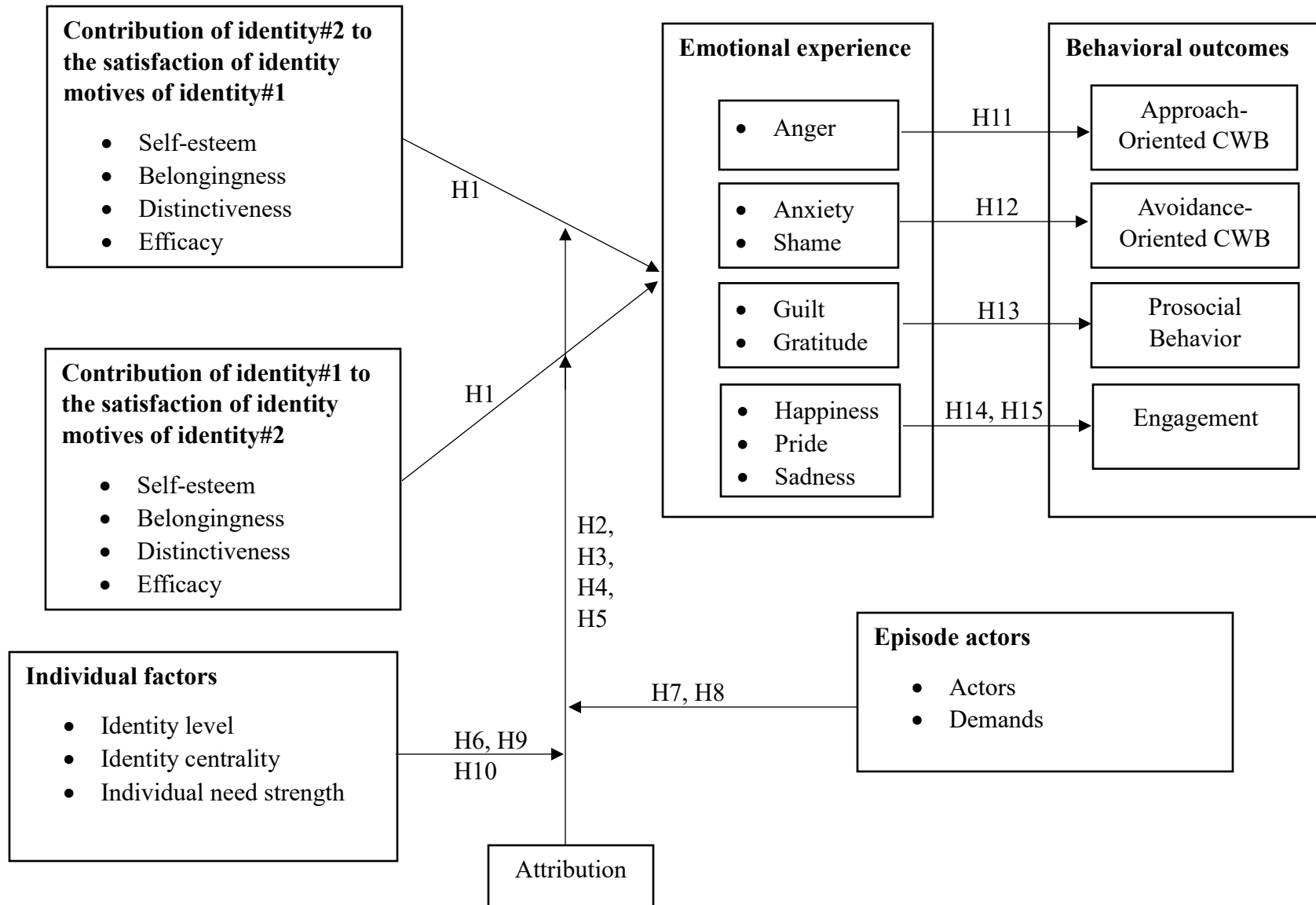
Figure 2: Summary of Hypothesized relationships
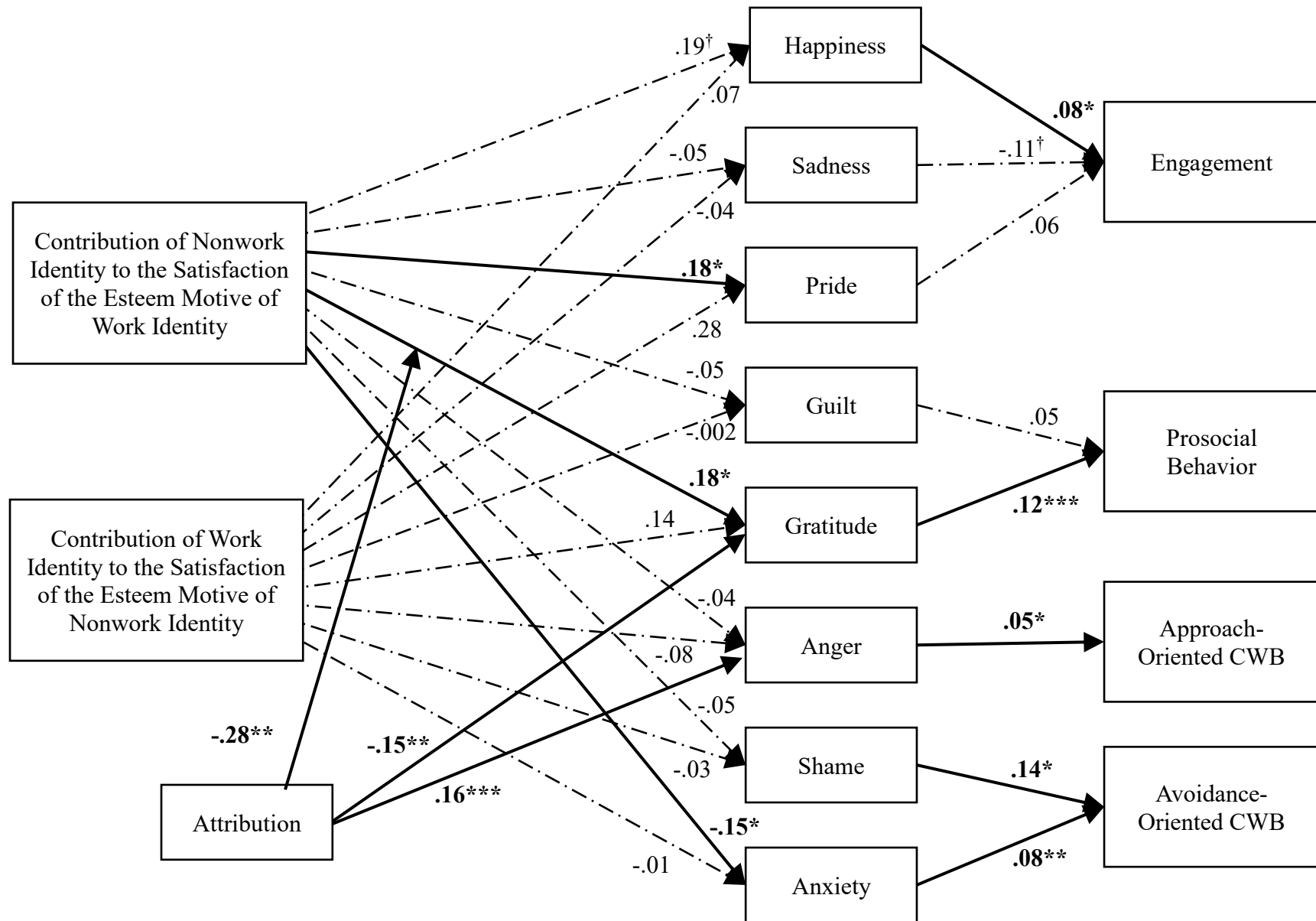
Figure 3: Results of the model specified to examine the effect of esteem motive satisfaction of an identity due to another identity in the afternoon. Positive and negative affect were included as control variables for emotions, but are not shown here. Attribution was also included in the model as a predictor of emotions and as a moderator for the relationship between motive satisfaction and emotion, however, only the significant direct effects and moderating effects are shown here. Direct effects of motive satisfaction on outcomes were also included in the model, and only the significant relationships are shown here. Solid lines represent significant effects. *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$, † $p < .10$.

Figure 4: Results of the model specified to examine the effect of efficacy motive satisfaction of an identity due to another identity in the afternoon. Positive and negative affect were included as control variables for emotions, but are not shown here. Attribution was also included in the model as a predictor of emotions and as a moderator for the relationship between motive satisfaction and emotion, however, only the significant direct effects and moderating effects are shown here. Direct effects of motive satisfaction on outcomes were also included in the model, and only the significant relationships are shown here. Solid lines represent significant effects. *** *p* < .001, ** *p* < .01, * *p* < .05, † *p* < .10.

Figure 5: Results of the model specified to examine the effect of Belongingness motive satisfaction of an identity due to another identity in the afternoon. Positive and negative affect were included as control variables for emotions, but are not shown here. Attribution was also included in the model as a predictor of emotions and as a moderator for the relationship between motive satisfaction and emotion, however, only the significant direct effects and moderating effects are shown here. Direct effects of motive satisfaction on outcomes were also included in the model, and only the significant relationships are shown here. Solid lines represent significant effects. *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$, † $p < .10$.

Figure 6: Results of the model specified to examine the effect of Distinctiveness motive satisfaction of an identity due to another identity in the afternoon. Positive and negative affect were included as control variables for emotions, but are not shown here. Attribution was also included in the model as a predictor of emotions and as a moderator for the relationship between motive satisfaction and emotion, however, only the significant direct effects and moderating effects are shown here. Direct effects of motive satisfaction on outcomes were also included in the model, and only the significant relationships are shown here. Solid lines represent significant effects. *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$, † $p < .10$.

Figure 7: Results of the model specified to examine the effect of esteem motive satisfaction of an identity due to another identity in the evening. Positive and negative affect were included as control variables for emotions, but are not shown here. Attribution was also included in the model as a predictor of emotions and as a moderator for the relationship between motive satisfaction and emotion, however, only the significant direct effects and moderating effects are shown here. Direct effects of motive satisfaction on outcomes were also included in the model, and only the significant relationships are shown here. Solid lines represent significant effects. *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$, † $p < .10$.

Figure 8: Results of the model specified to examine the effect of efficacy motive satisfaction of an identity due to another identity in the evening. Positive and negative affect were included as control variables for emotions, but are not shown here. Attribution was also included in the model as a predictor of emotions and as a moderator for the relationship between motive satisfaction and emotion, however, only the significant direct effects and moderating effects are shown here. Direct effects of motive satisfaction on outcomes were also included in the model, and only the significant relationships are shown here. Solid lines represent significant effects. *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$, † $p < .10$.

Figure 9: Results of the model specified to examine the effect of belongingness motive satisfaction of an identity due to another identity in the evening. Positive and negative affect were included as control variables for emotions, but are not shown here. Attribution was also included in the model as a predictor of emotions and as a moderator for the relationship between motive satisfaction and emotion, however, only the significant direct effects and moderating effects are shown here. Direct effects of motive satisfaction on outcomes were also included in the model, and only the significant relationships are shown here. Solid lines represent significant effects. *** *p* < .001, ** *p* < .01, * *p* < .05, † *p* < .10.

Figure 10: Results of the model specified to examine the effect of distinctiveness motive satisfaction of an identity due to another identity in the evening. Positive and negative affect were included as control variables for emotions, but are not shown here. Attribution was also included in the model as a predictor of emotions and as a moderator for the relationship between motive satisfaction and emotion, however, only the significant direct effects and moderating effects are shown here. Direct effects of motive satisfaction on outcomes were also included in the model, and only the significant relationships are shown here. Solid lines represent significant effects. *** *p* < .001, ** *p* < .01, * *p* < .05, † *p* < .10.

Figure 11: Within-level moderating effect of attribution on the relationship between nonwork-to-work efficacy satisfaction and anger in the evening.
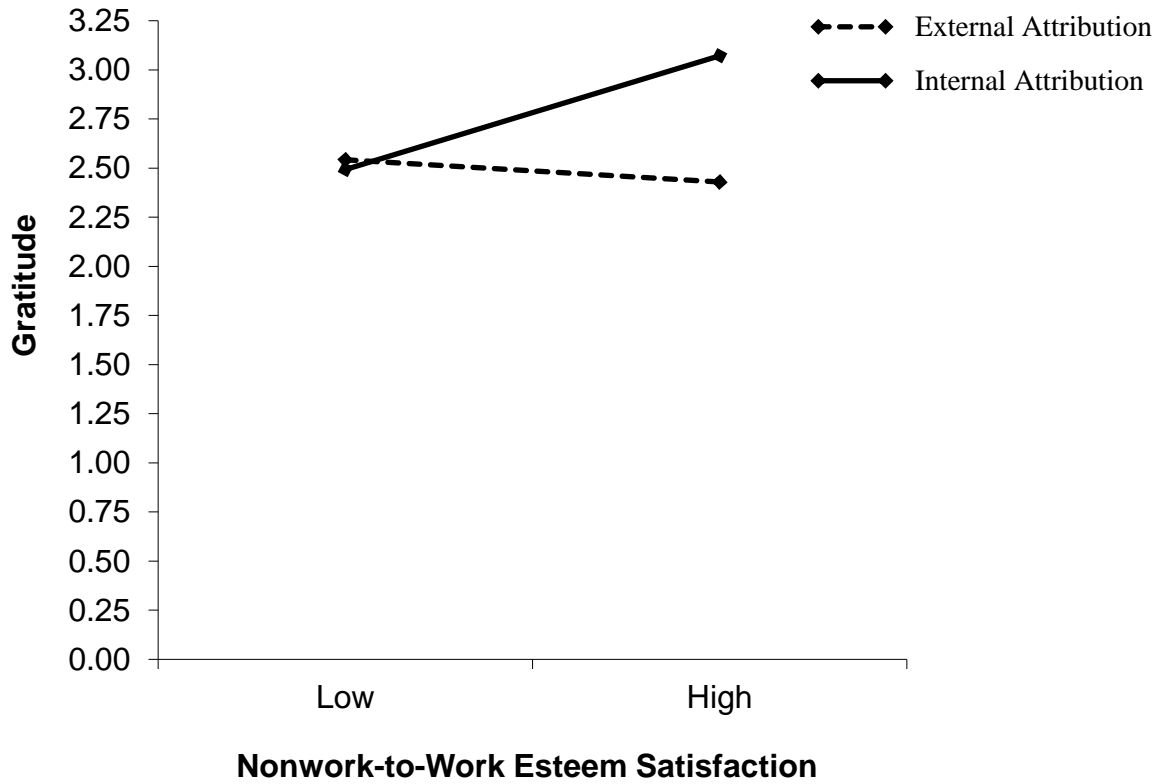
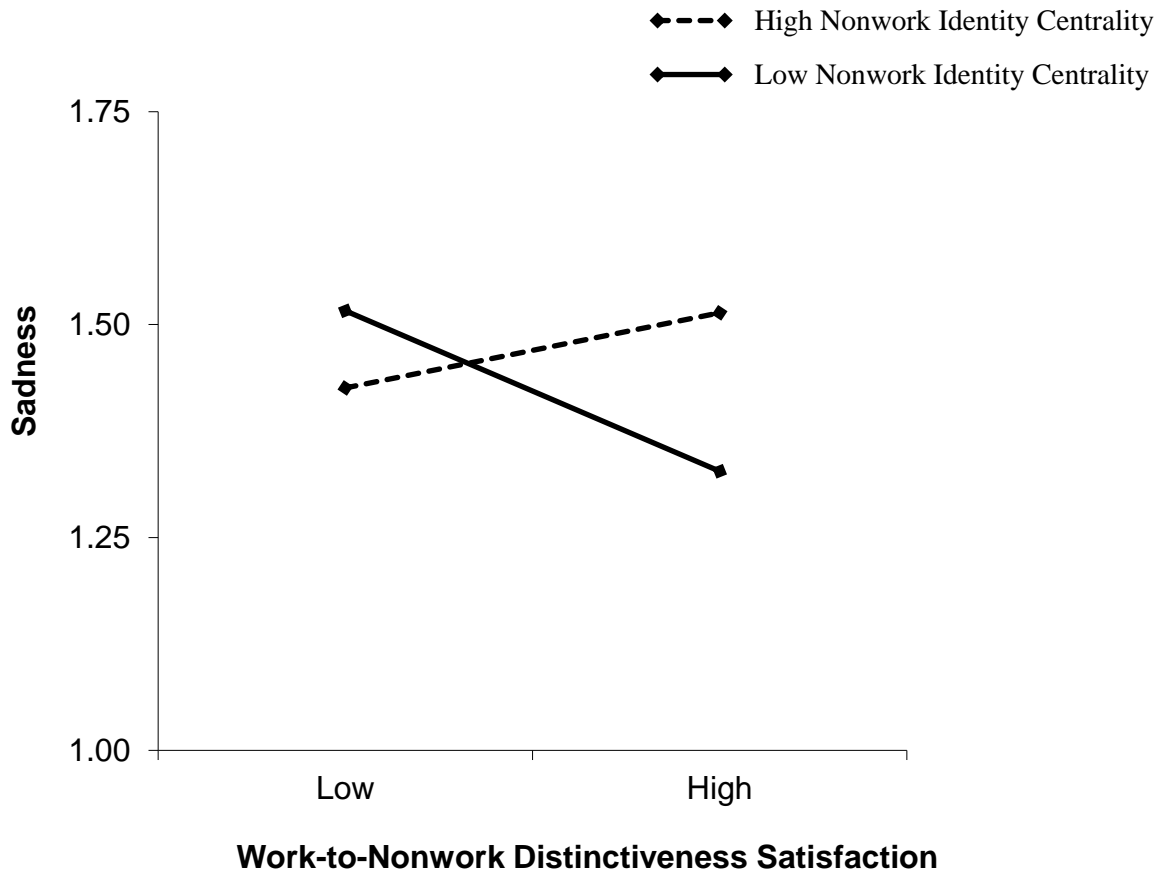*Figure 12:* Within-level moderating effect of attribution on the relationship between nonwork-to-work esteem satisfaction and gratitude in the afternoon.
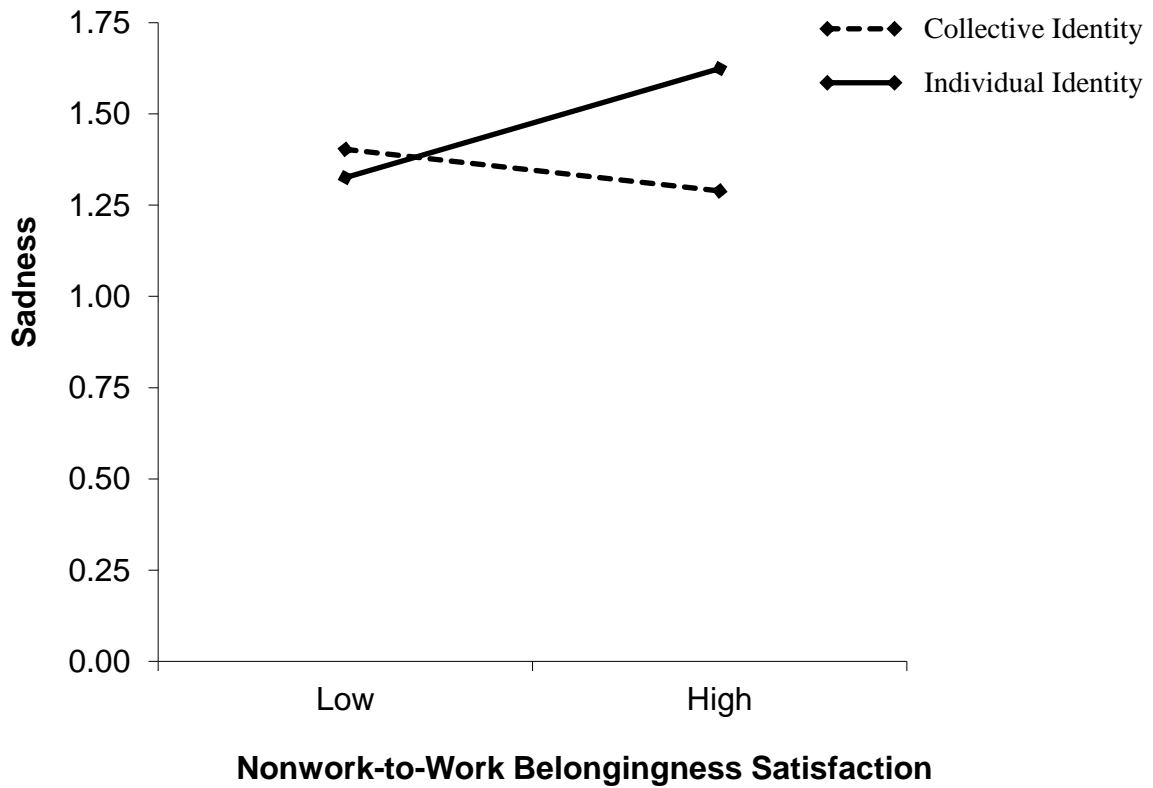
Figure 13: Within-level moderating effect of identity level on the relationship between nonwork-to-work belongingness satisfaction and sadness in the afternoon.
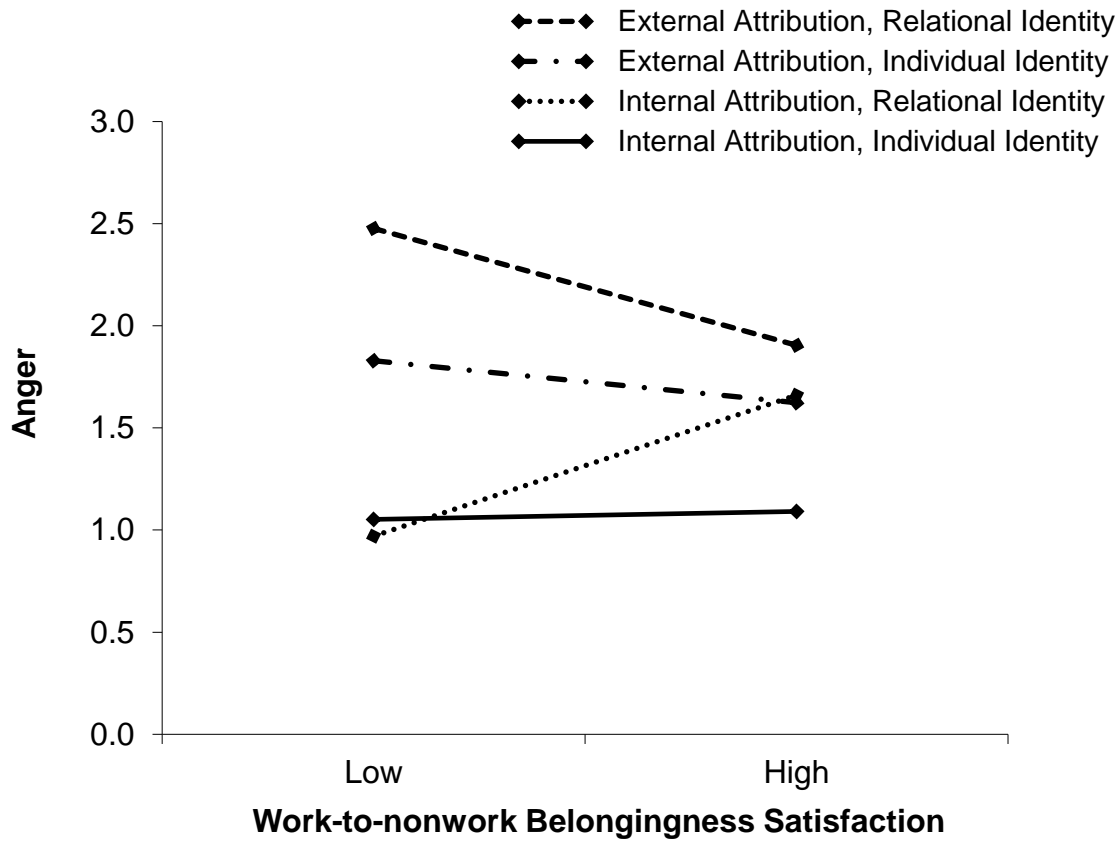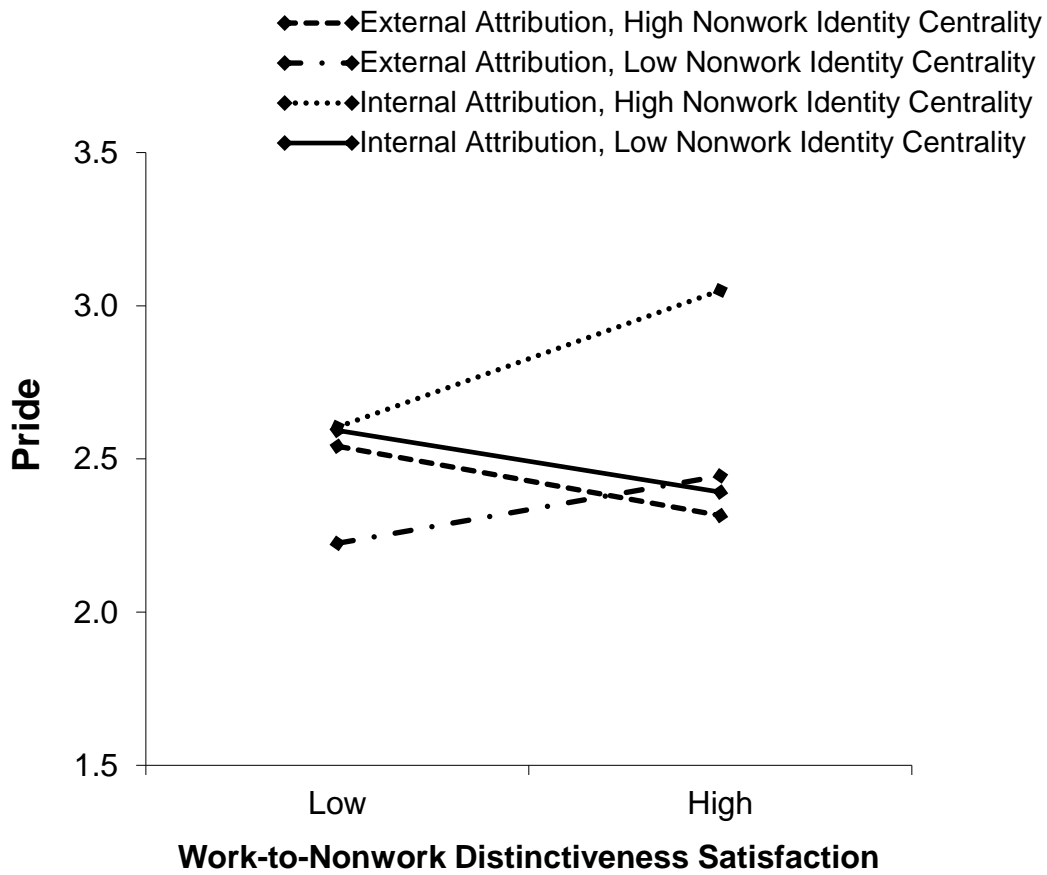
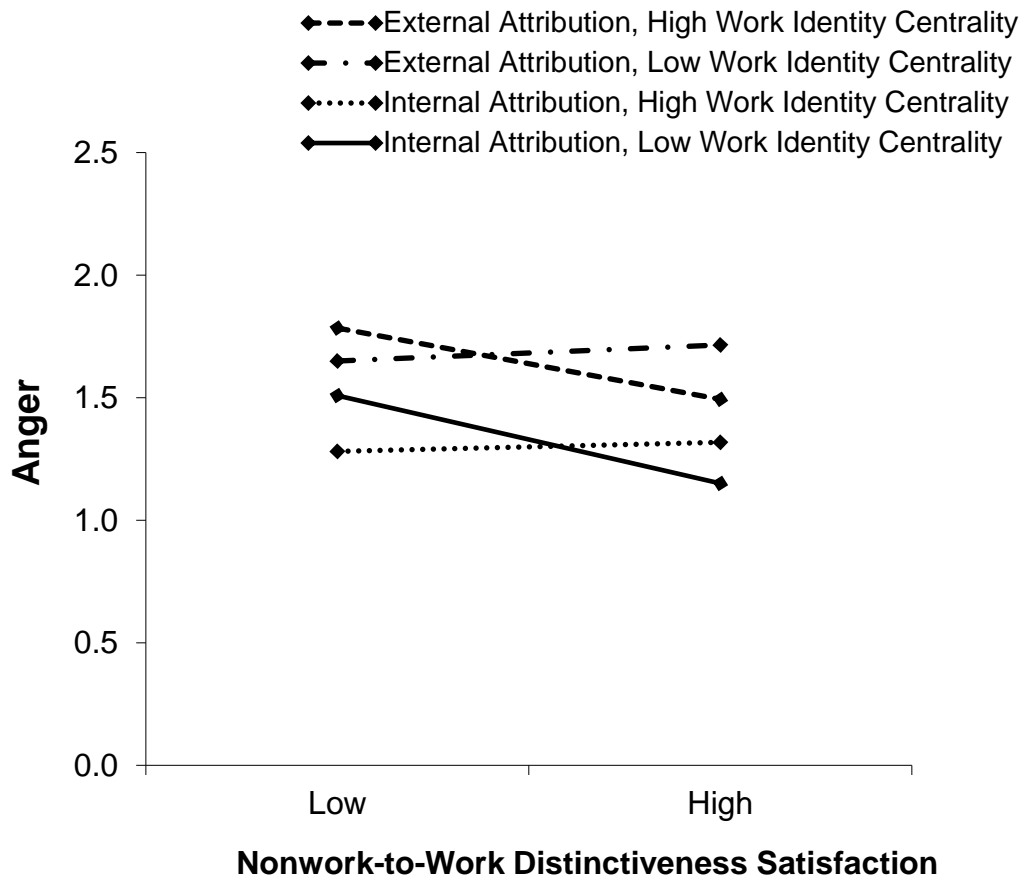*Figure 14:* Within-level moderating effect of attribution and identity level on the relationship between work-to-nonwork belongingness satisfaction and anger in the afternoon.
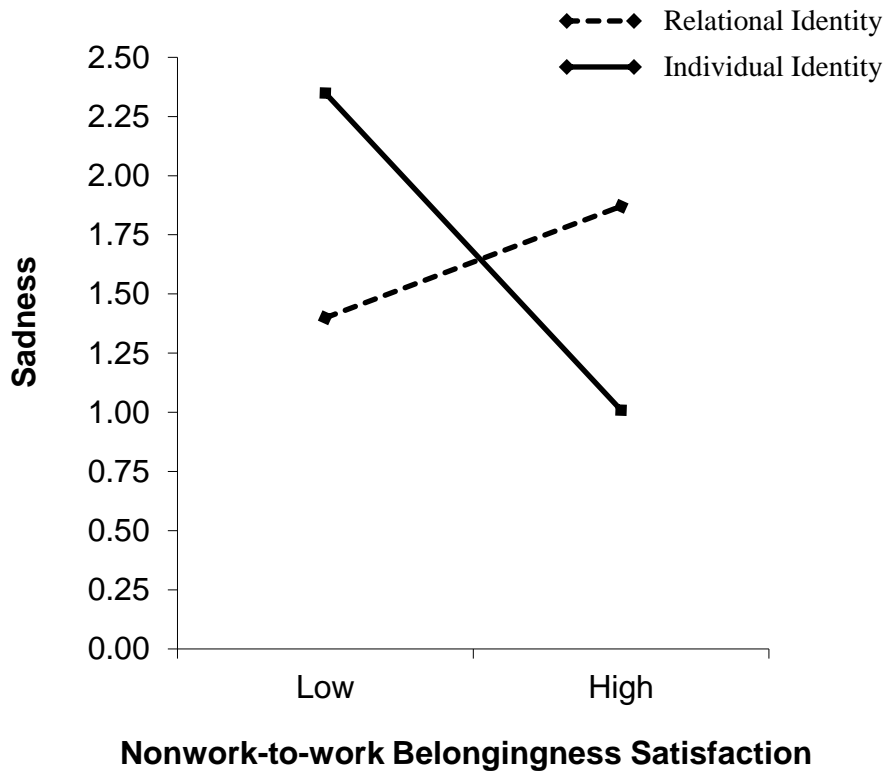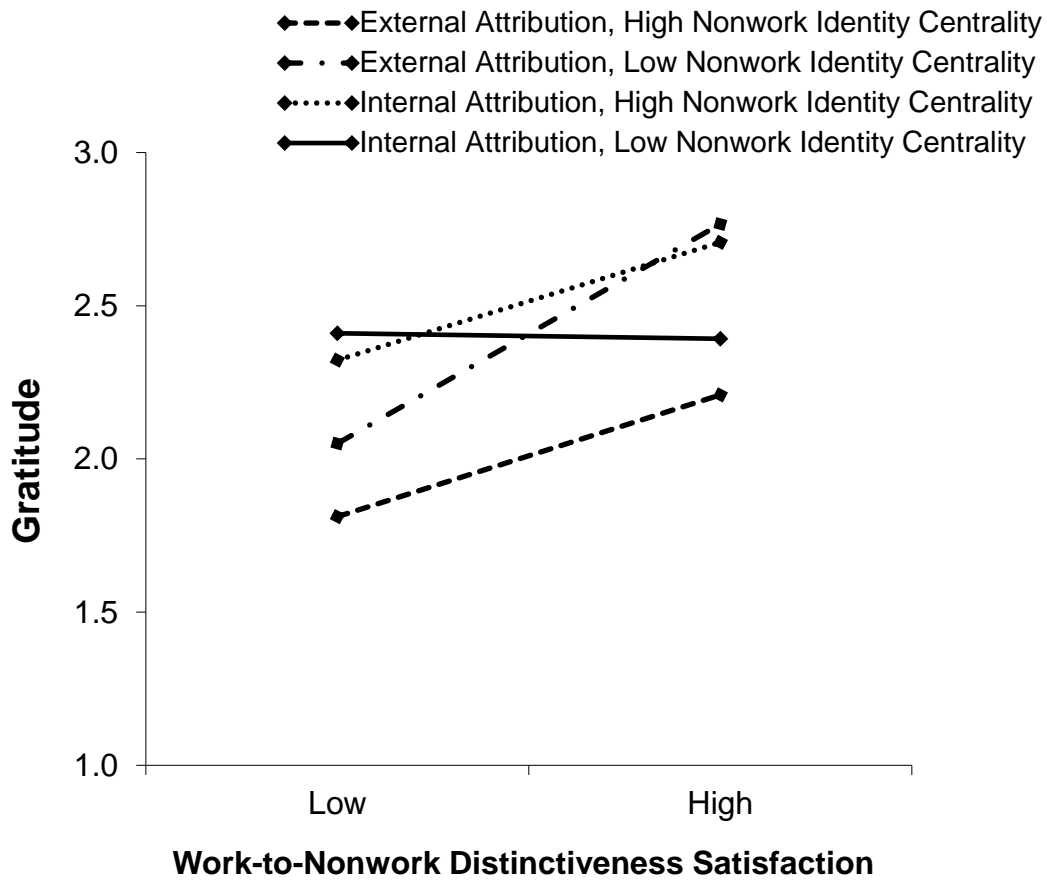
Figure 15: Within-level moderating effect of identity level on the relationship between nonwork-to-work belongingness satisfaction and sadness in the evening.
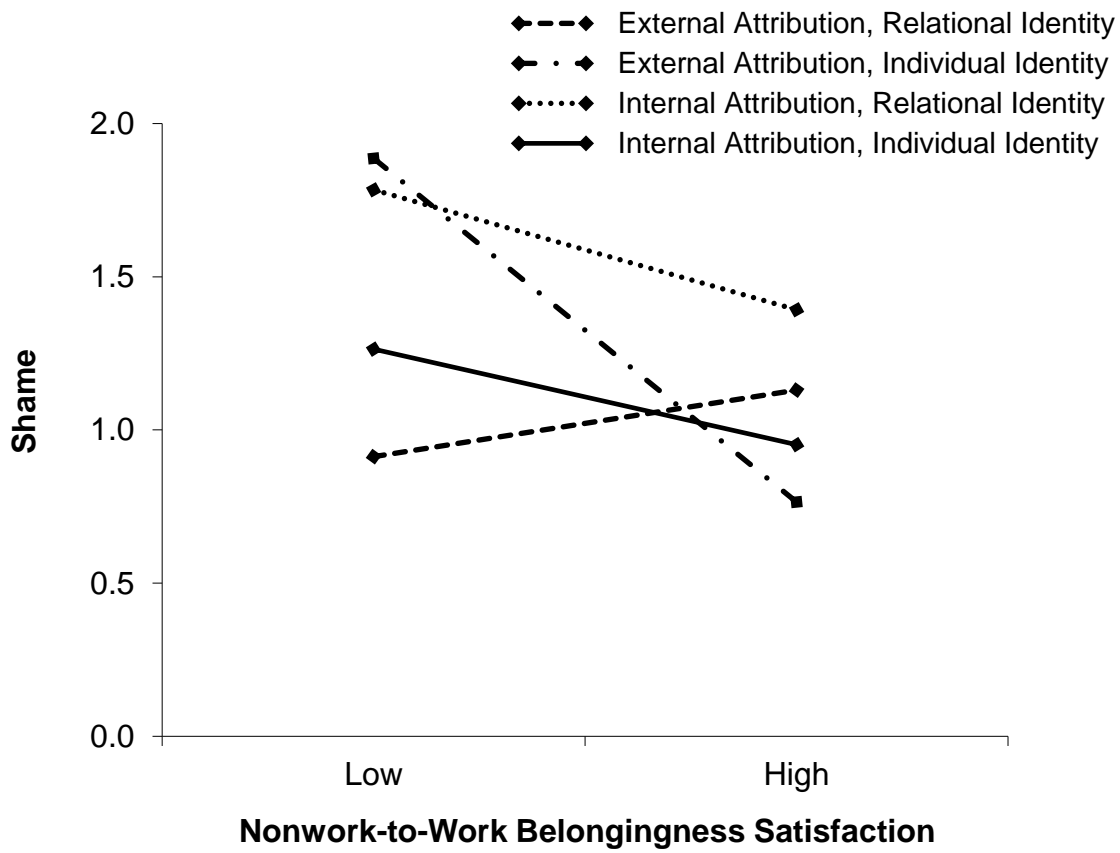
Figure 16: Within-level moderating effect of attribution and identity level on the relationship

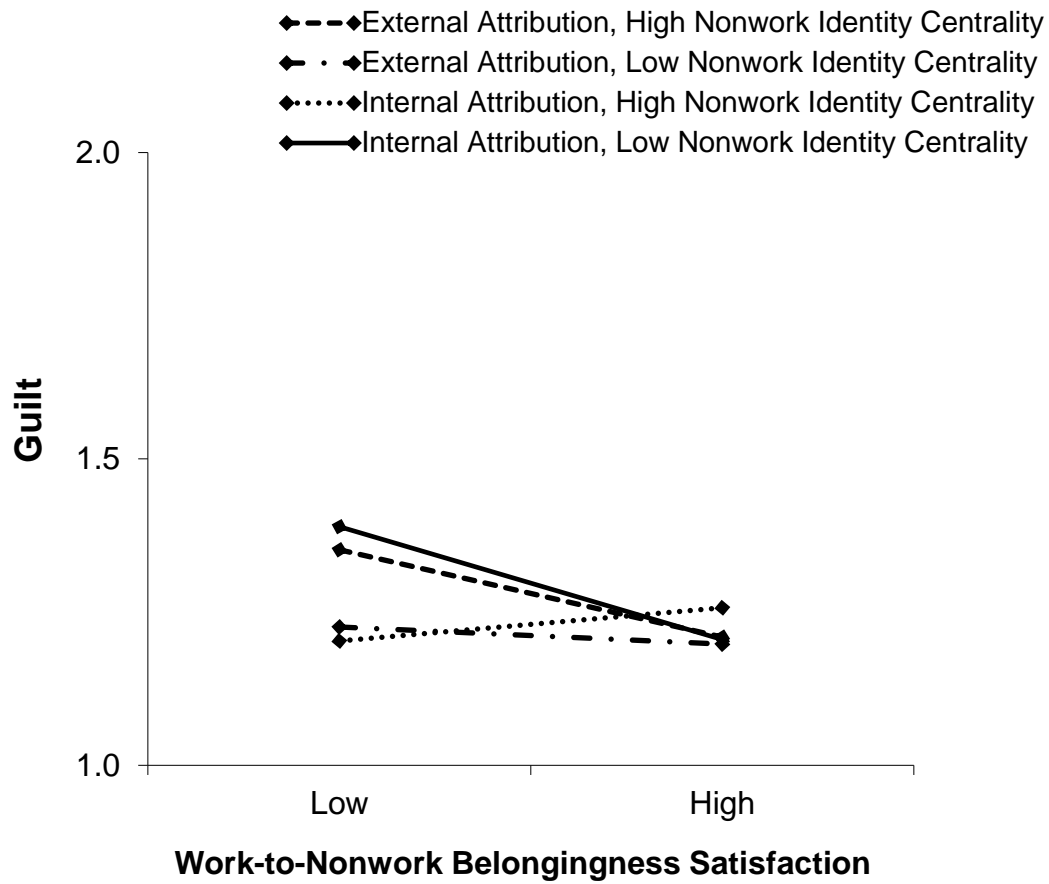between nonwork-to-work belongingness satisfaction and shame in the evening.
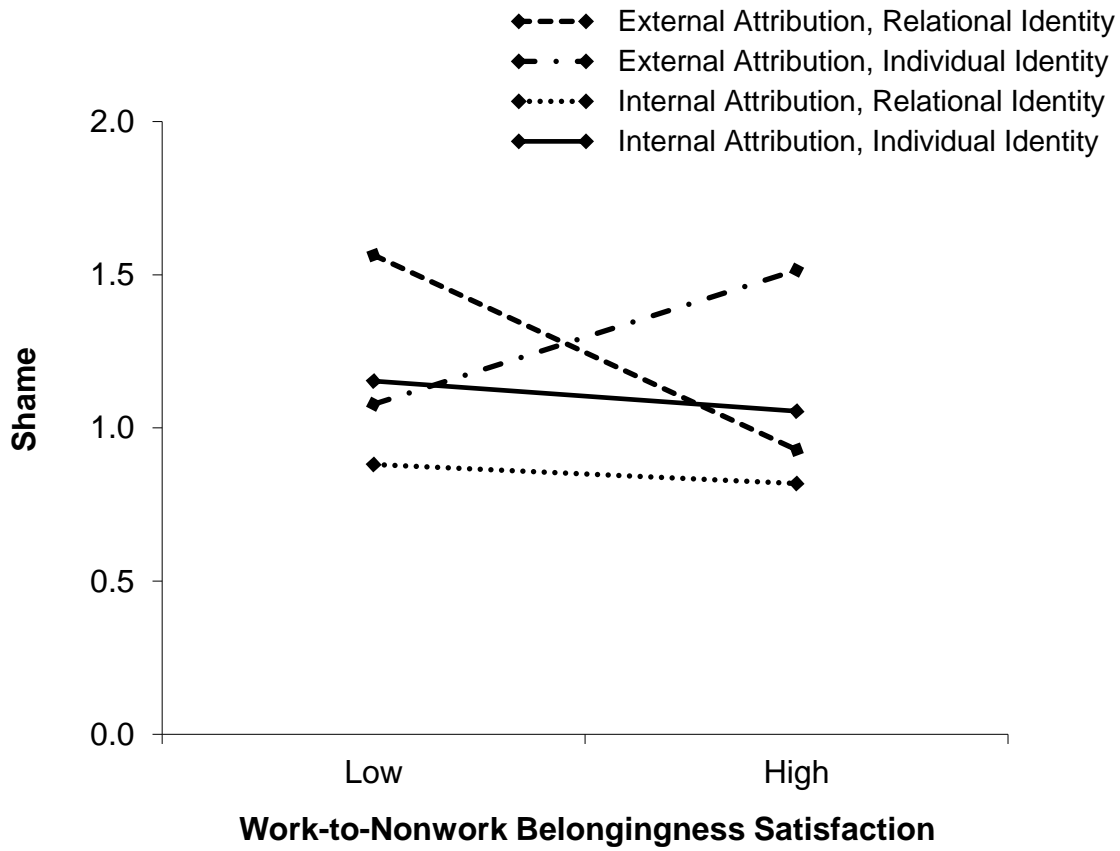
Figure 17: Within-level moderating effect of attribution and identity level on the relationship between work-to-nonwork belongingness satisfaction and shame in the evening.
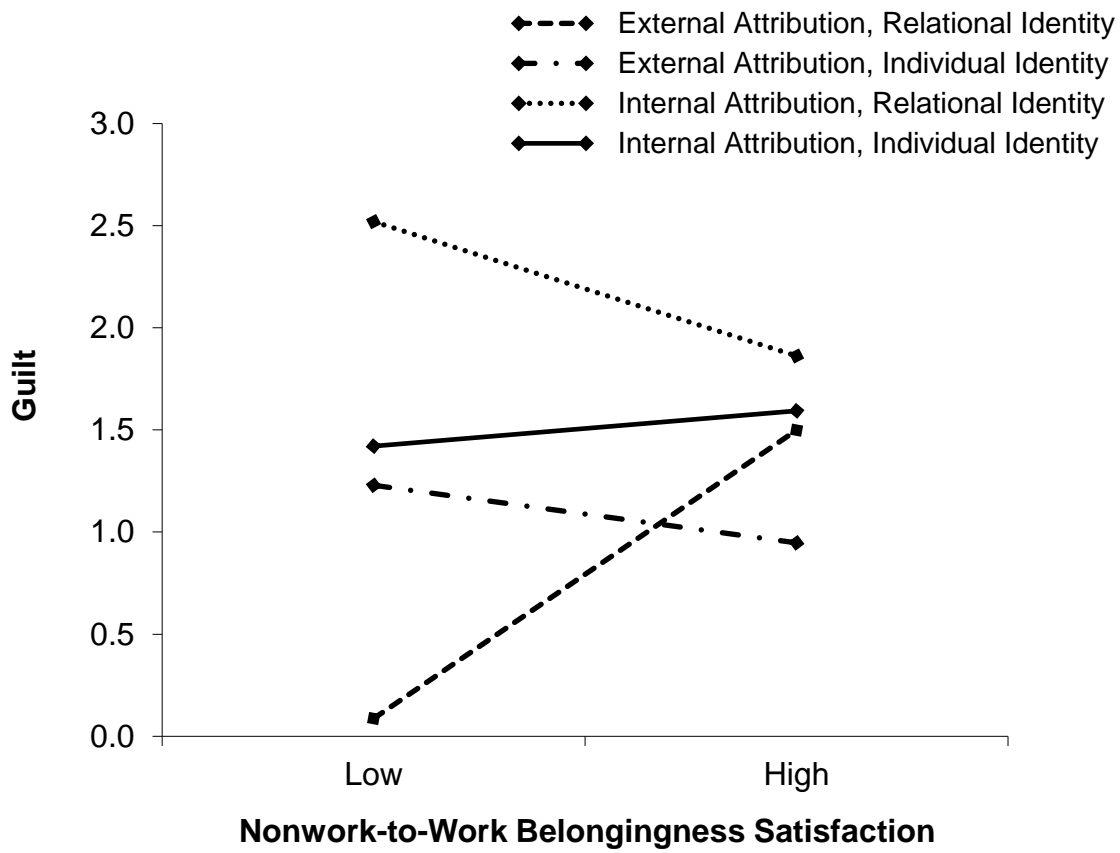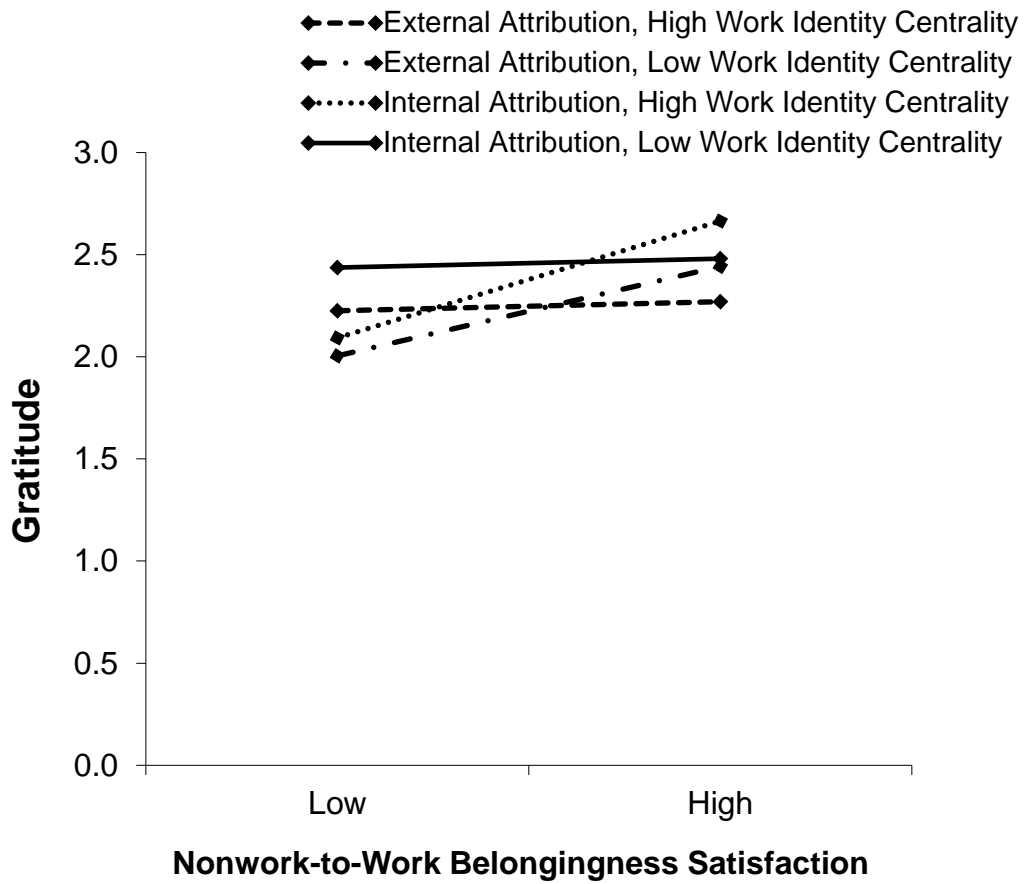
Figure 18: Within-level moderating effect of attribution and identity level on the relationship

between nonwork-to-work belongingness satisfaction and guilt in the evening.
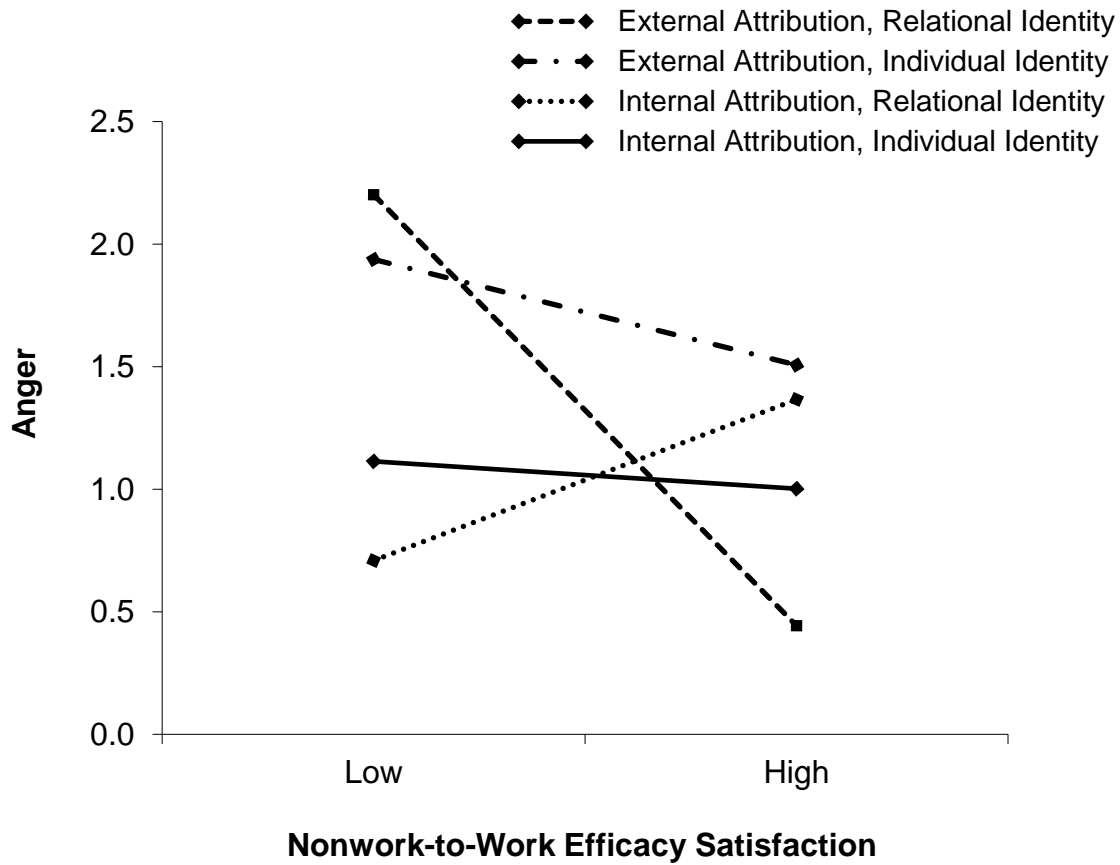
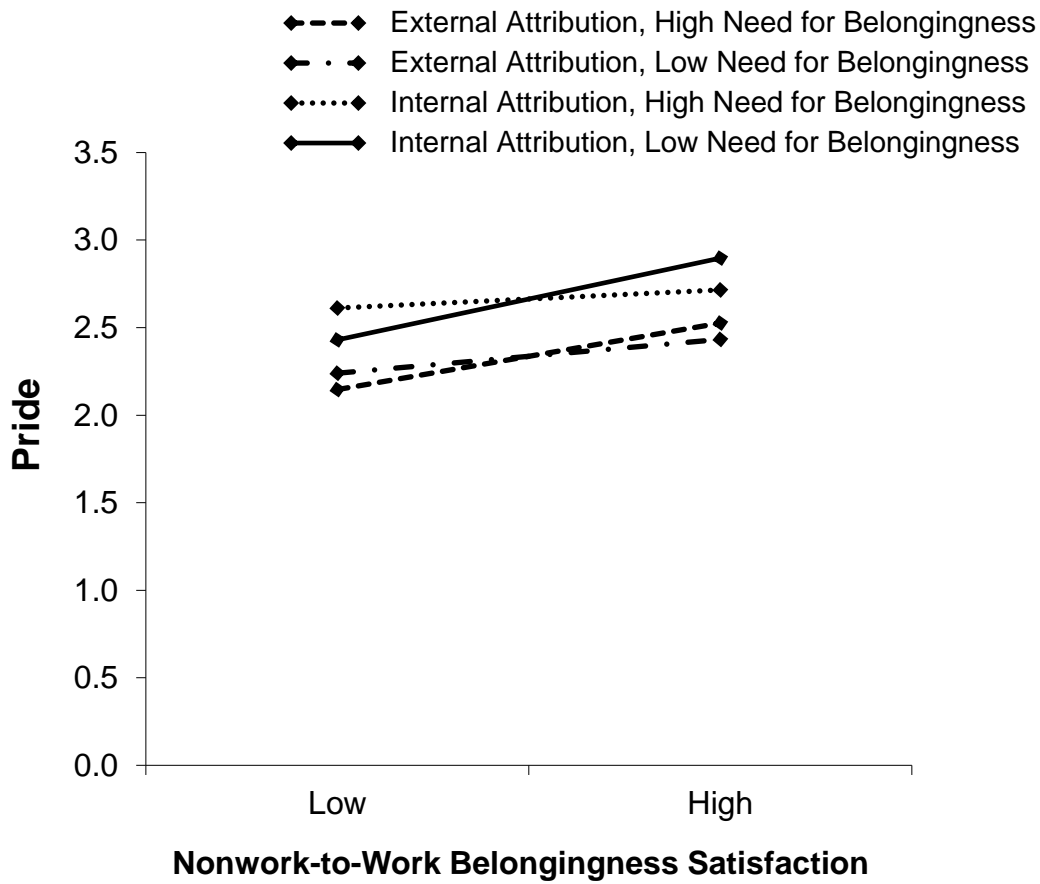*Figure 19:* Within-level moderating effect of attribution and identity level on the relationship between nonwork-to-work efficacy satisfaction and anger in the afternoon.
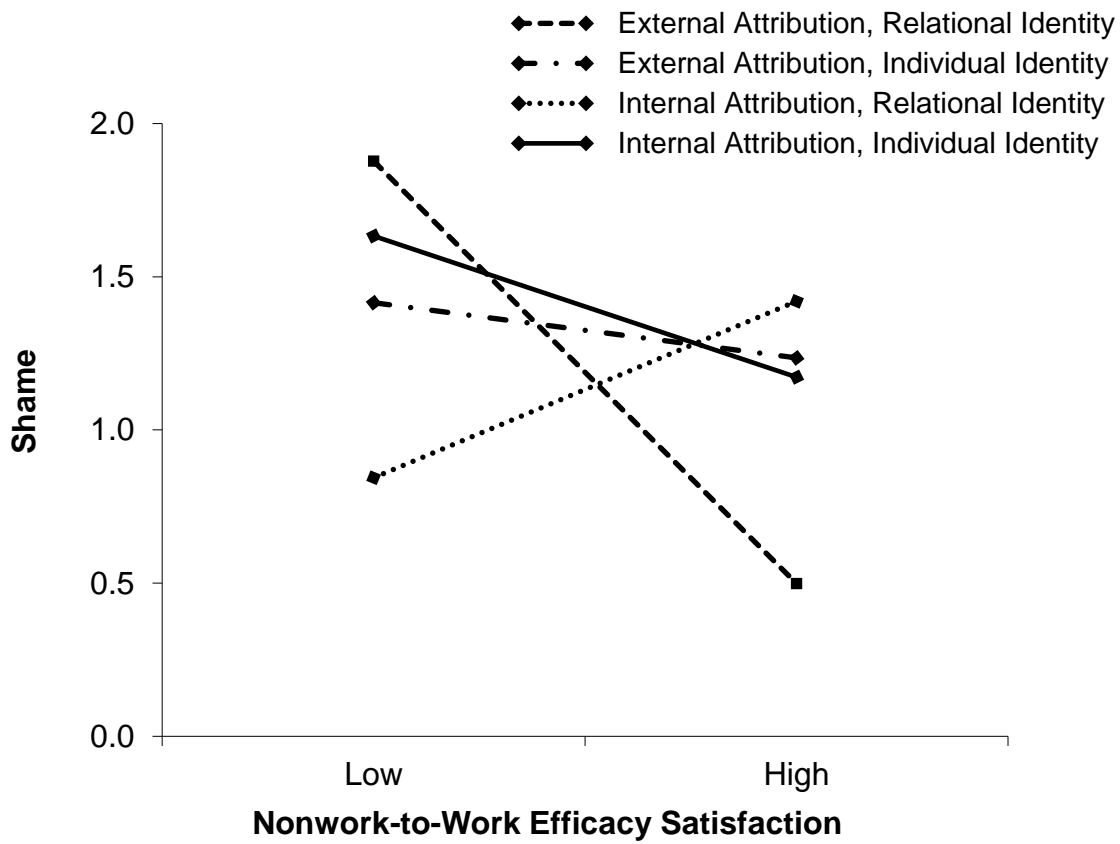
Figure 20: Within-level moderating effect of attribution and identity level on the relationship between nonwork-to-work efficacy satisfaction and shame in the afternoon.
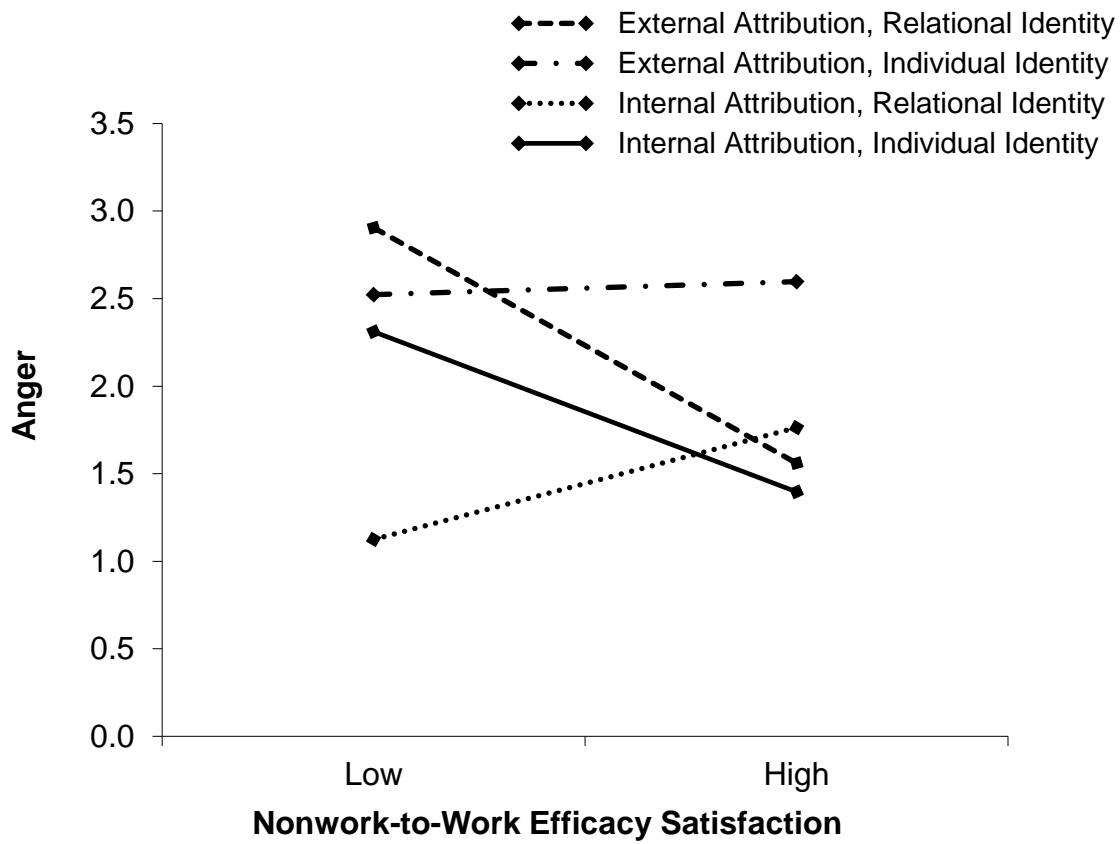
Figure 21: Within-level moderating effect of attribution and identity level on the relationship between nonwork-to-work efficacy satisfaction and anger in the evening.
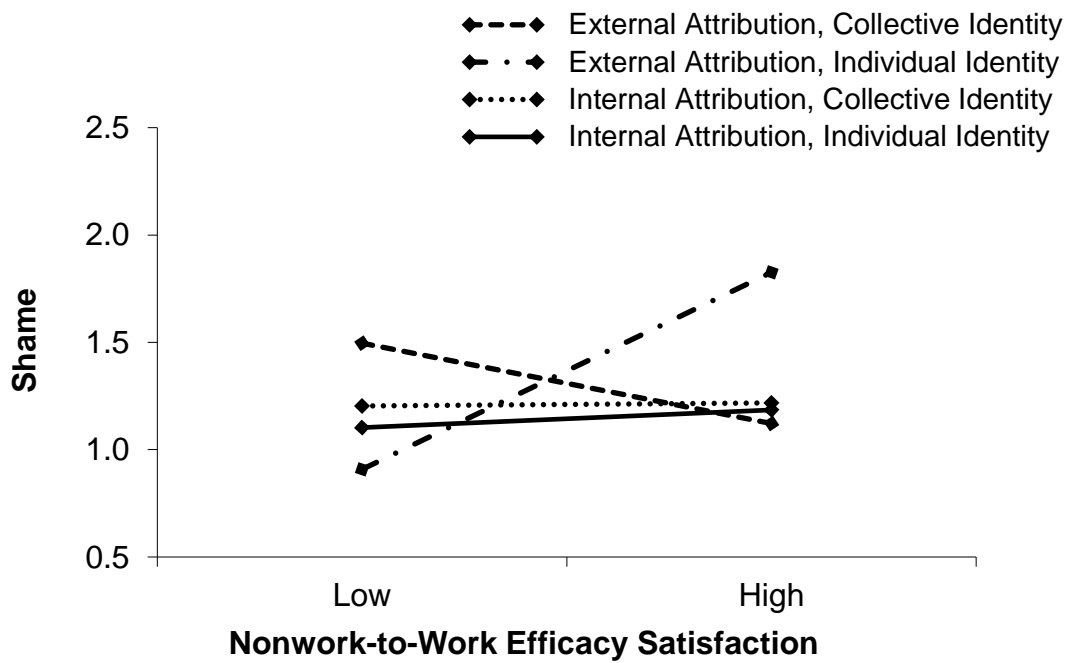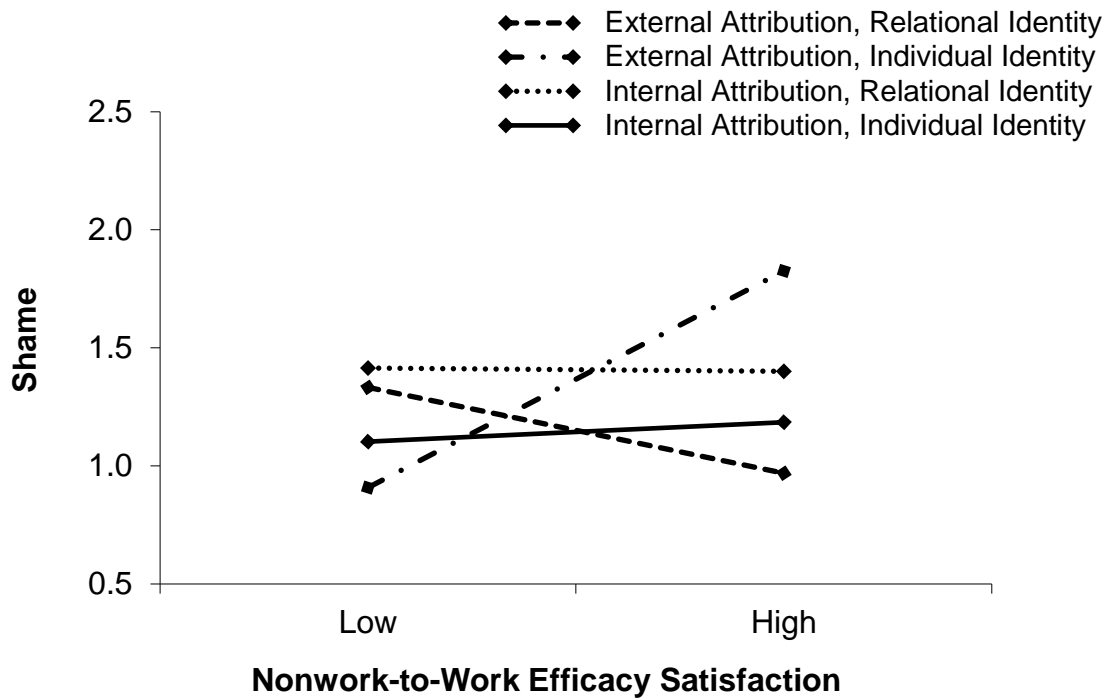
Figure 22: Within-level moderating effects of attribution, and relational work identity (above) and collective work identity (below) on the relationship between nonwork-to-work efficacy satisfaction and shame in the evening.
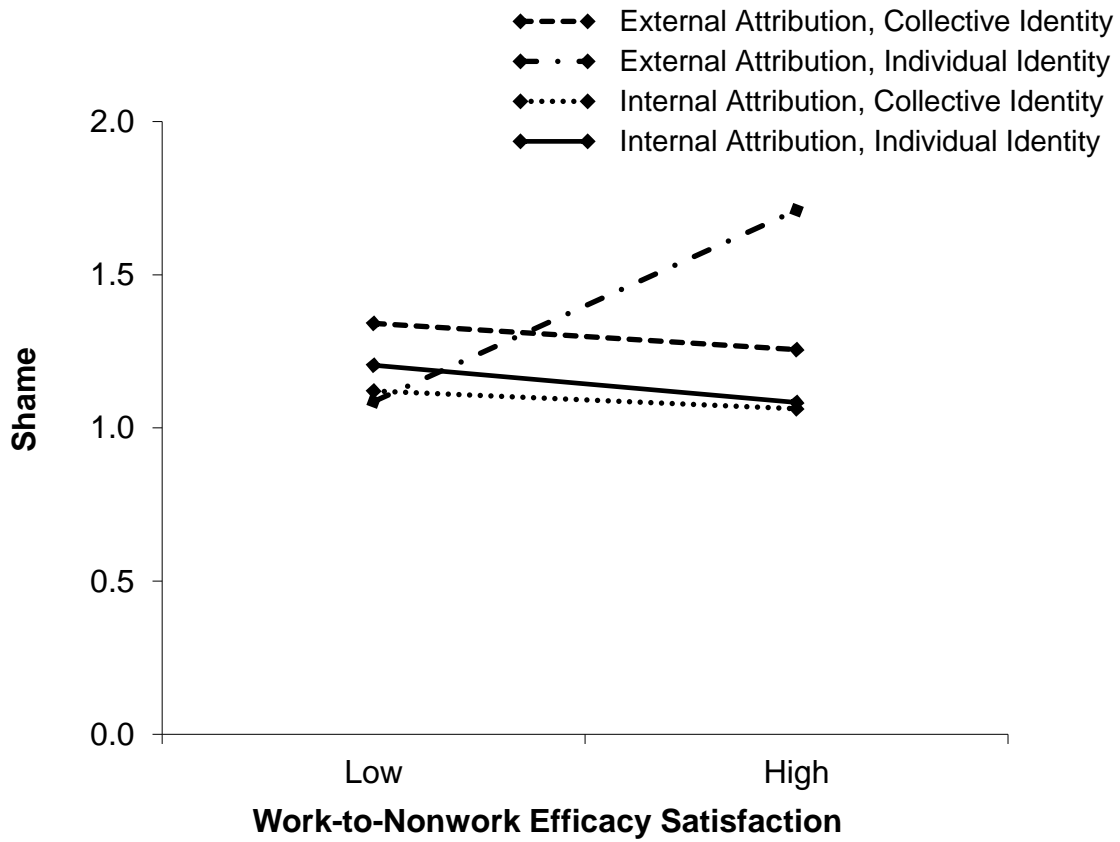
Figure 23: Within-level moderating effects of attribution and collective nonwork identity on the relationship between work-to-nonwork efficacy satisfaction and shame in the evening.
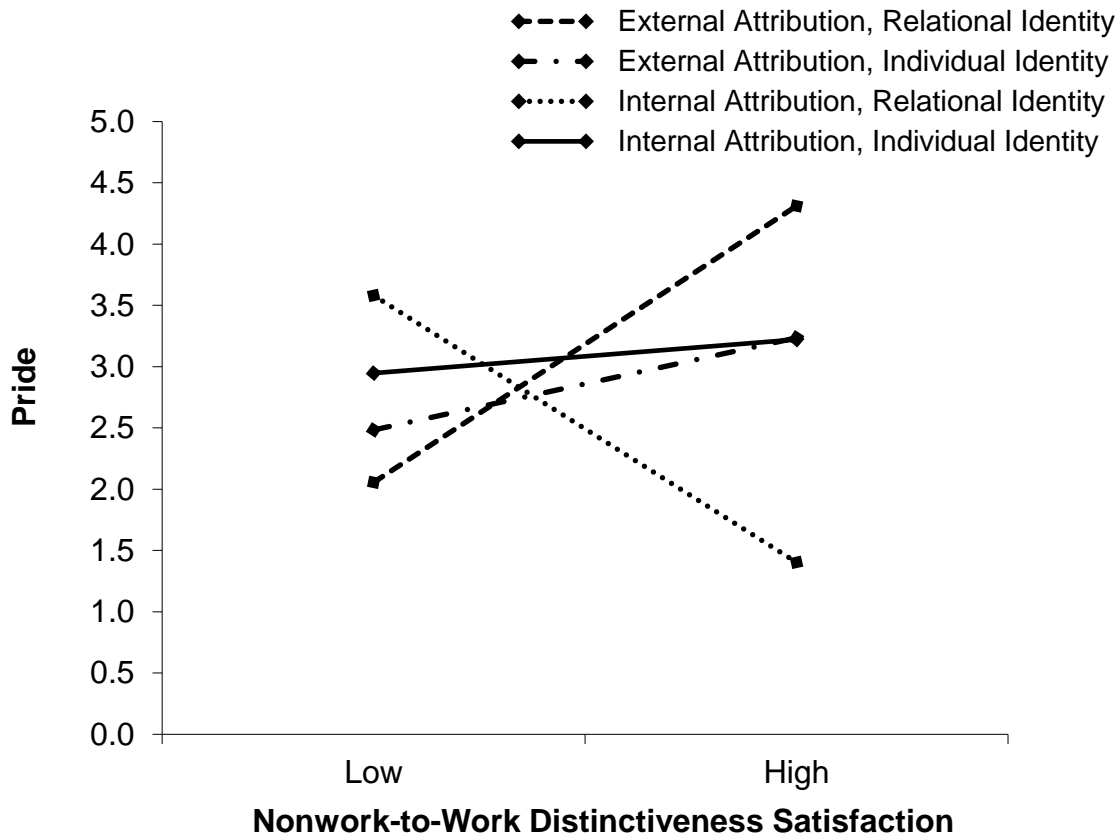
Figure 24: Within-level moderating effect of attribution and identity level on the relationship

between nonwork-to-work distinctiveness satisfaction and pride in the afternoon.
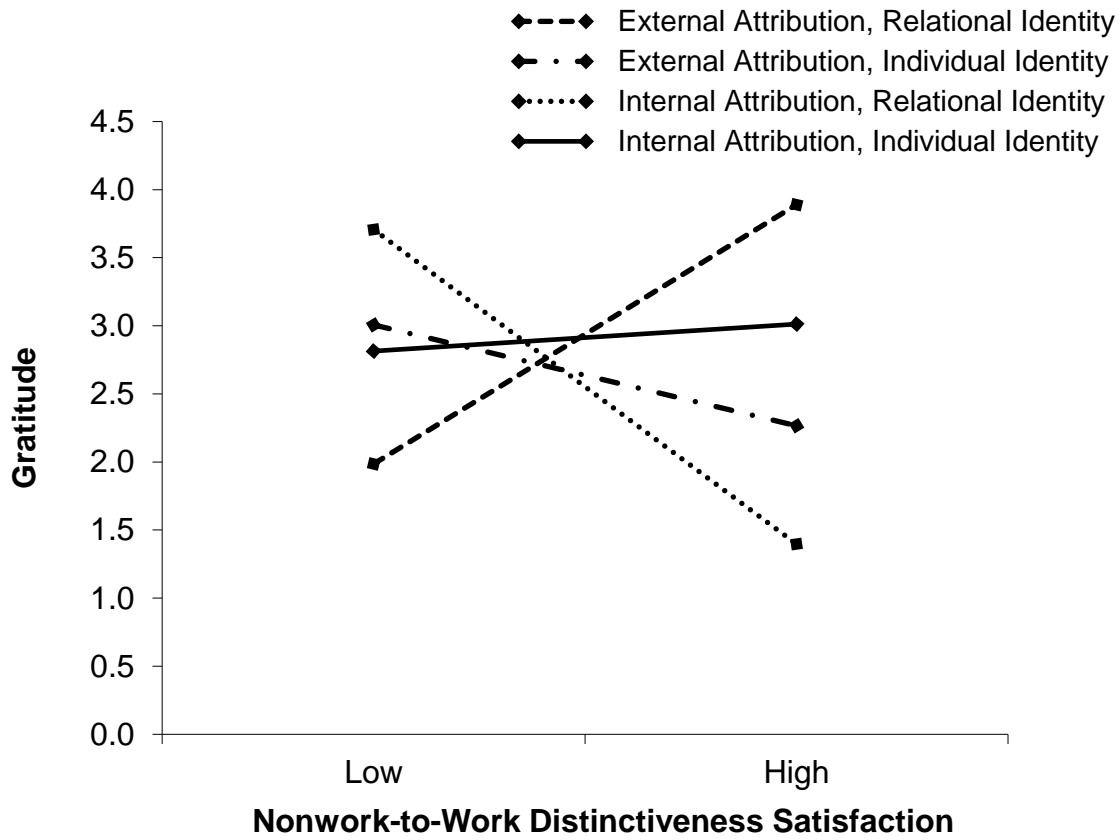
Figure 25: Within-level moderating effect of attribution and identity level on the relationship

between nonwork-to-work distinctiveness satisfaction and gratitude in the afternoon.
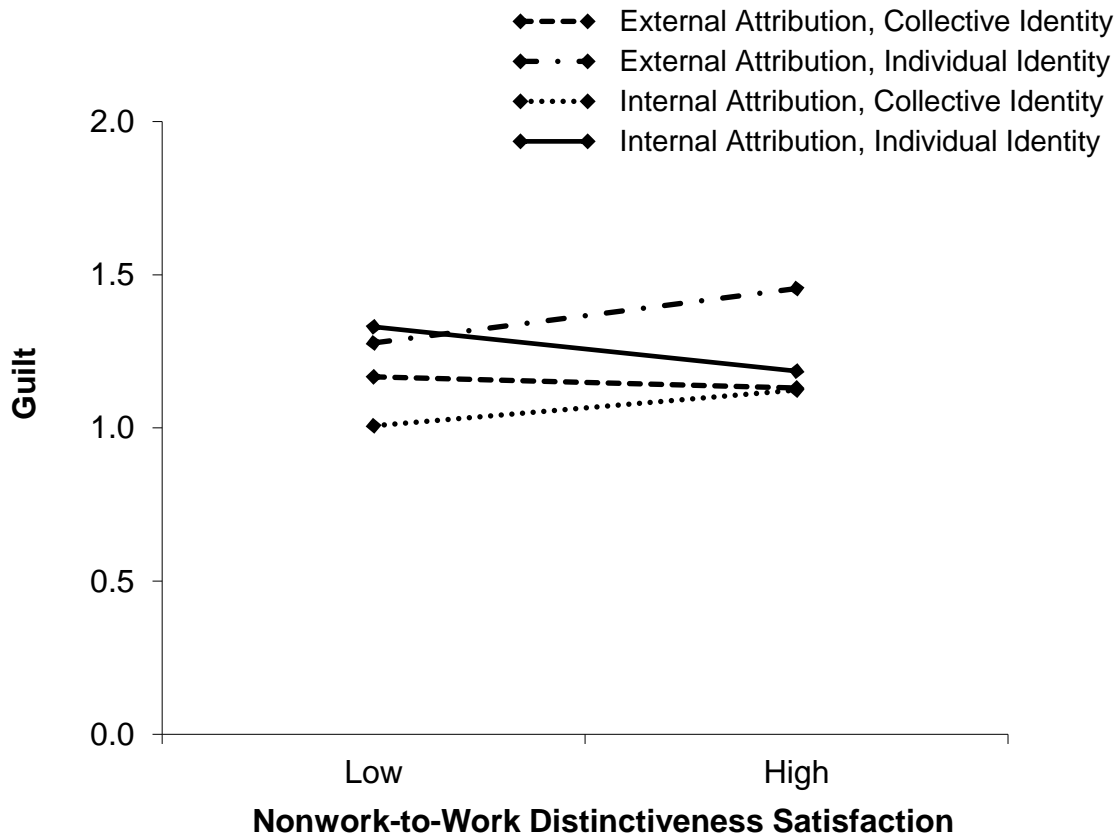
Figure 26: Within-level moderating effect of attribution and identity level on the relationship

between nonwork-to-work distinctiveness satisfaction and guilt in the afternoon.
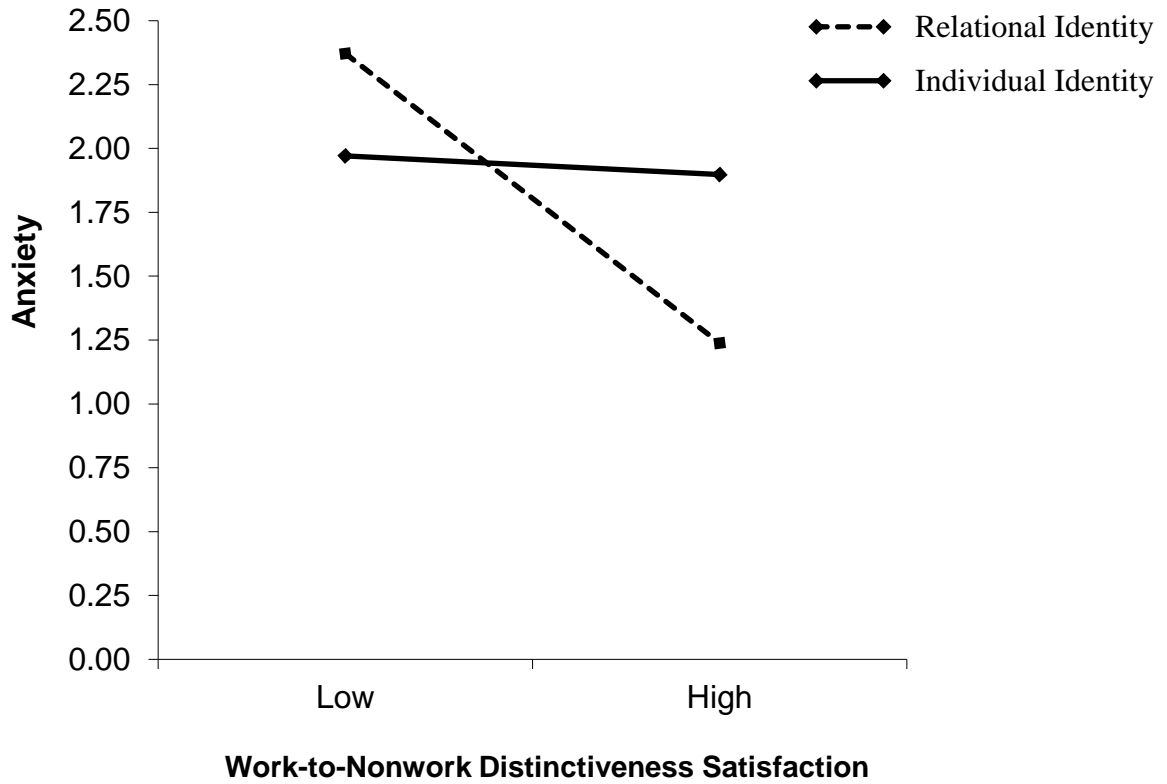
Figure 27: Within-level moderating effect of identity level on the relationship between work-to-nonwork distinctiveness satisfaction and anxiety in the evening.
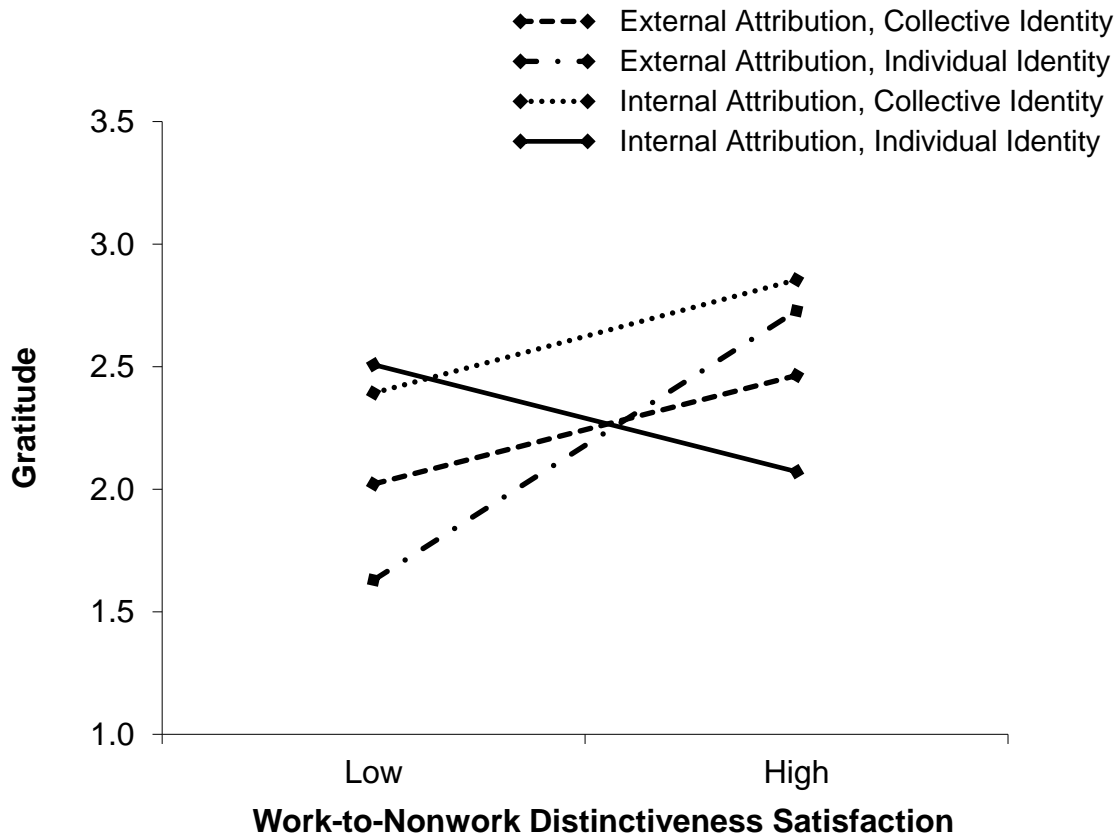
Figure 28: Within-level moderating effect of attribution and collective nonwork identity on the relationship between work-to-nonwork distinctiveness satisfaction and gratitude in the evening.
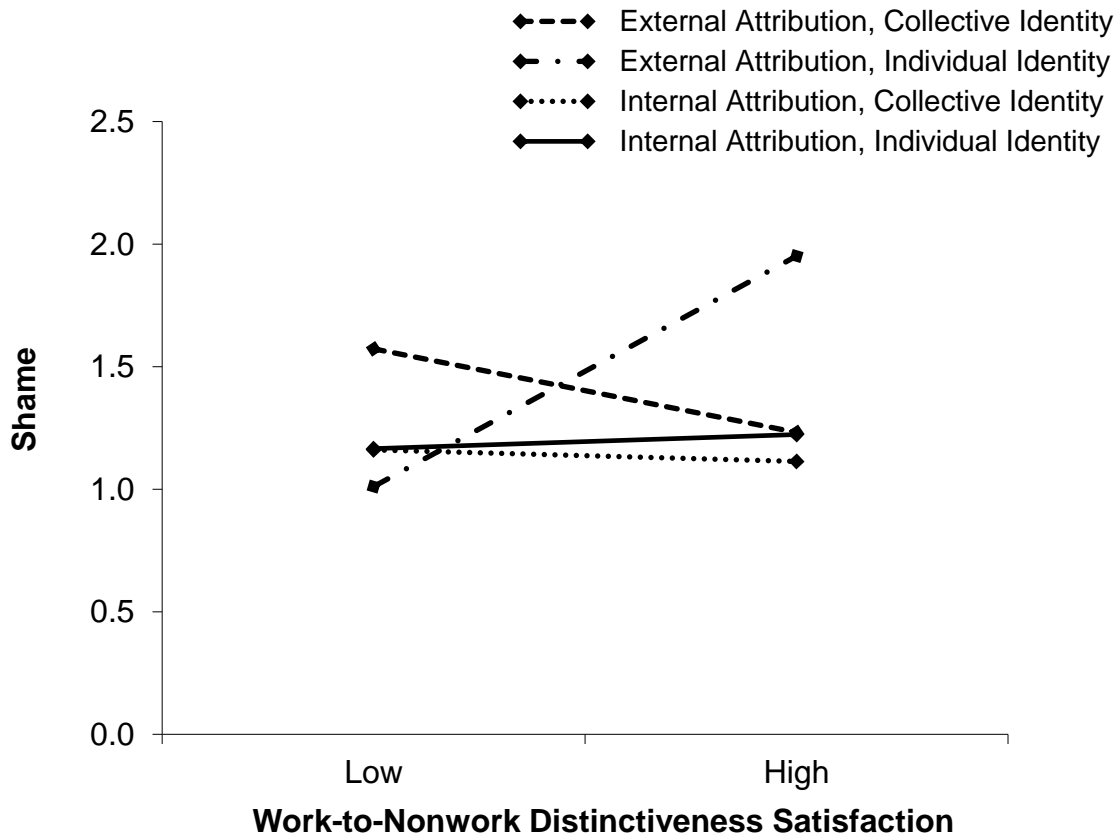
Figure 29: Within-level moderating effect of attribution and collective nonwork identity on the relationship between work-to-nonwork distinctiveness satisfaction and shame in the evening.
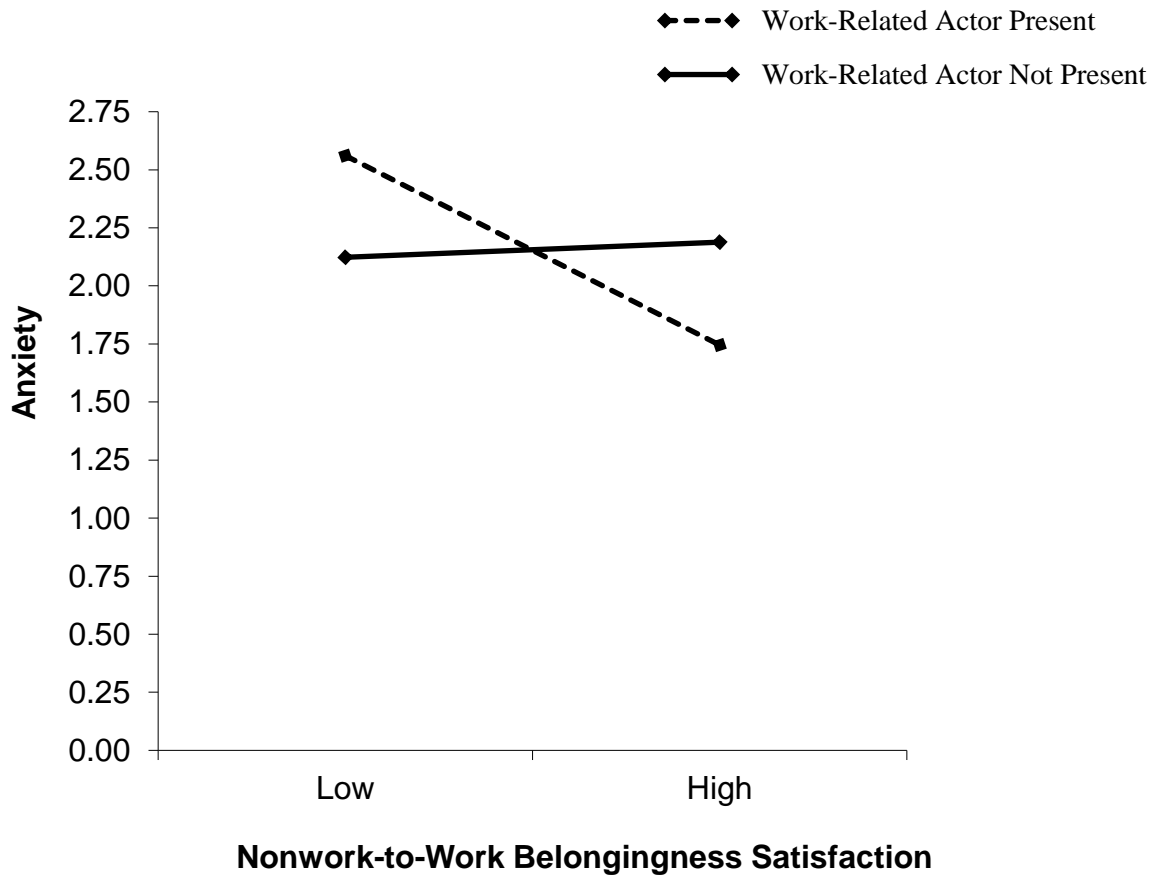
Figure 30: Within-level moderating effect of presence of work-related actors on the relationship between nonwork-to-work belongingness satisfaction and anxiety in the evening.
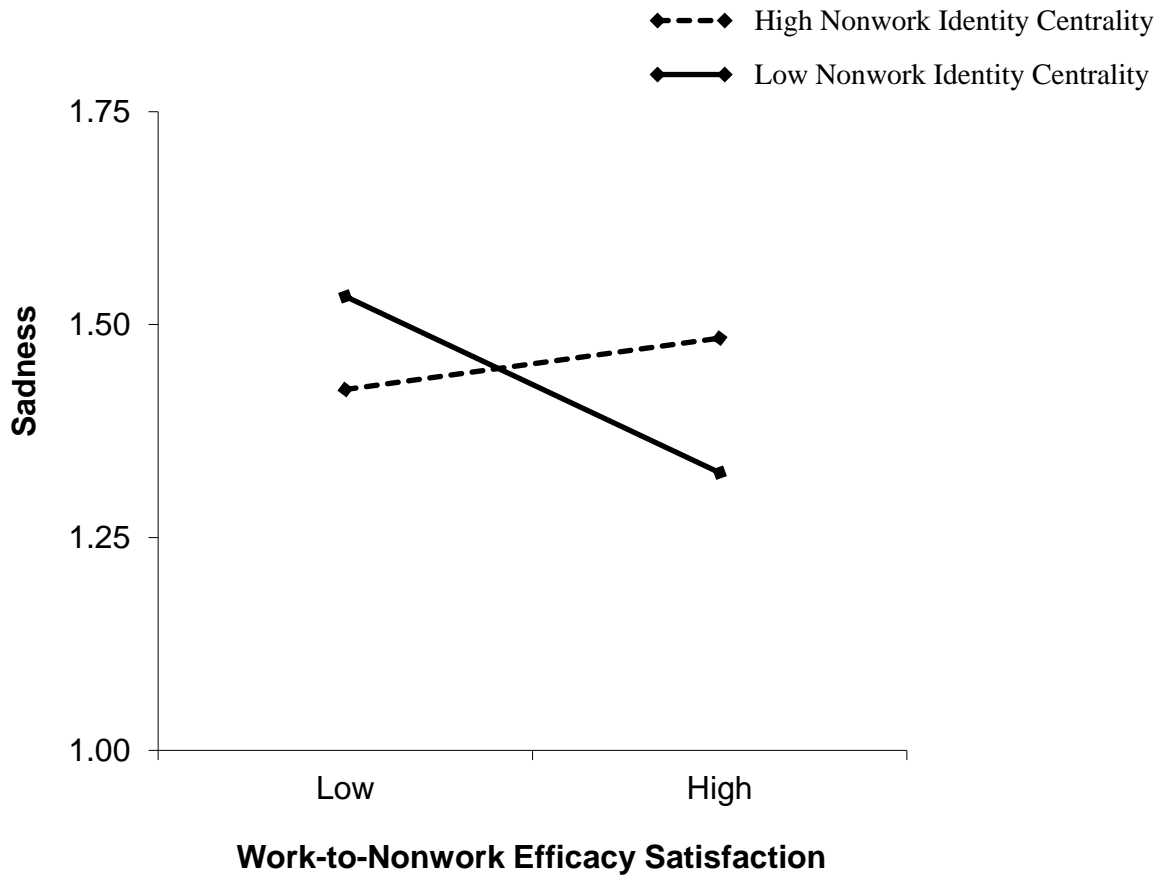
Figure 31: Within-level moderating effect of nonwork identity centrality on the relationship

between work-to-nonwork efficacy satisfaction and sadness in the afternoon.
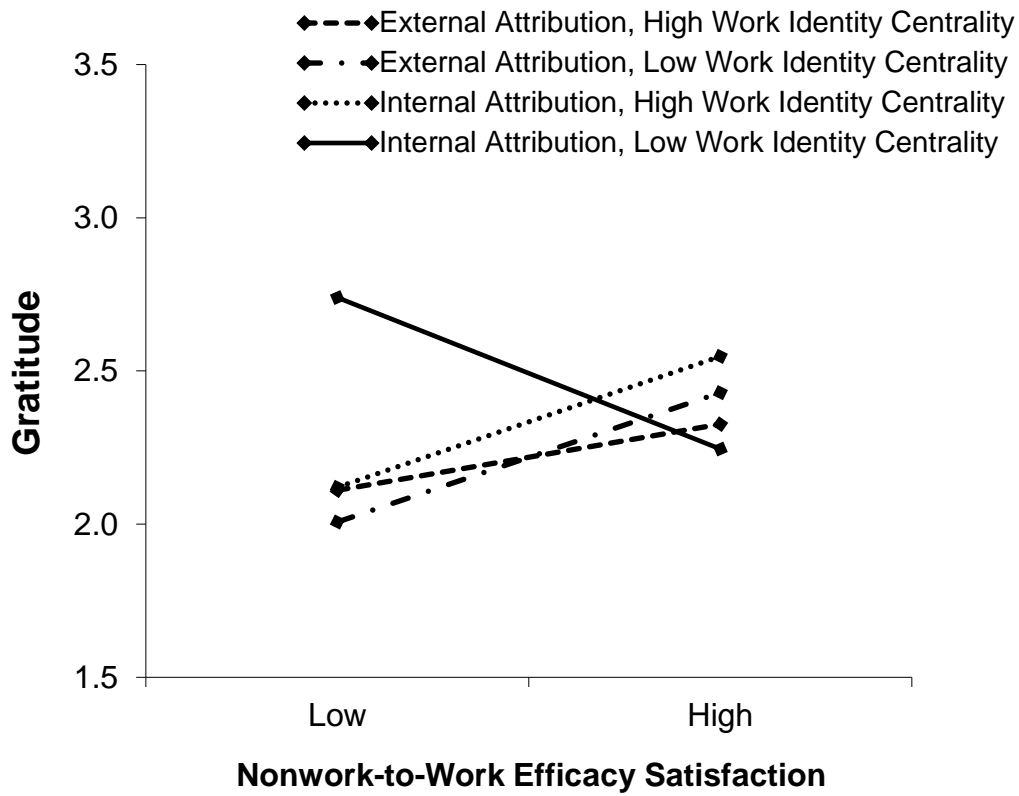
Figure 32: Within-level moderating effect of attribution and work identity centrality on the

relationship between nonwork-to-work efficacy satisfaction and gratitude in the evening.

Figure 33: Within-level moderating effect of nonwork identity centrality on the relationship between work-to-nonwork distinctiveness satisfaction and sadness in the afternoon.

Figure 34: Within-level moderating effect of attribution and nonwork identity centrality on the relationship between work-to-nonwork distinctiveness satisfaction and pride in the afternoon.

Figure 35: Within-level moderating effect of attribution and work identity centrality on the

relationship between nonwork-to-work distinctiveness satisfaction and anger in the afternoon.

Figure 36: Within-level moderating effect of attribution and nonwork identity centrality on the relationship between work-to-nonwork distinctiveness satisfaction and gratitude in the evening.

Figure 37: Within-level moderating effect of attribution and nonwork identity centrality on the

relationship between work-to-nonwork belongingness satisfaction and guilt in the afternoon.

Figure 38: Within-level moderating effect of attribution and work identity centrality on the

relationship between nonwork-to-work belongingness satisfaction and gratitude in the evening.

Figure 39: Between-level moderating effect of need for belongingness and within-level

interaction of attribution on the relationship between nonwork-to-work belongingness

satisfaction and pride in the afternoon.
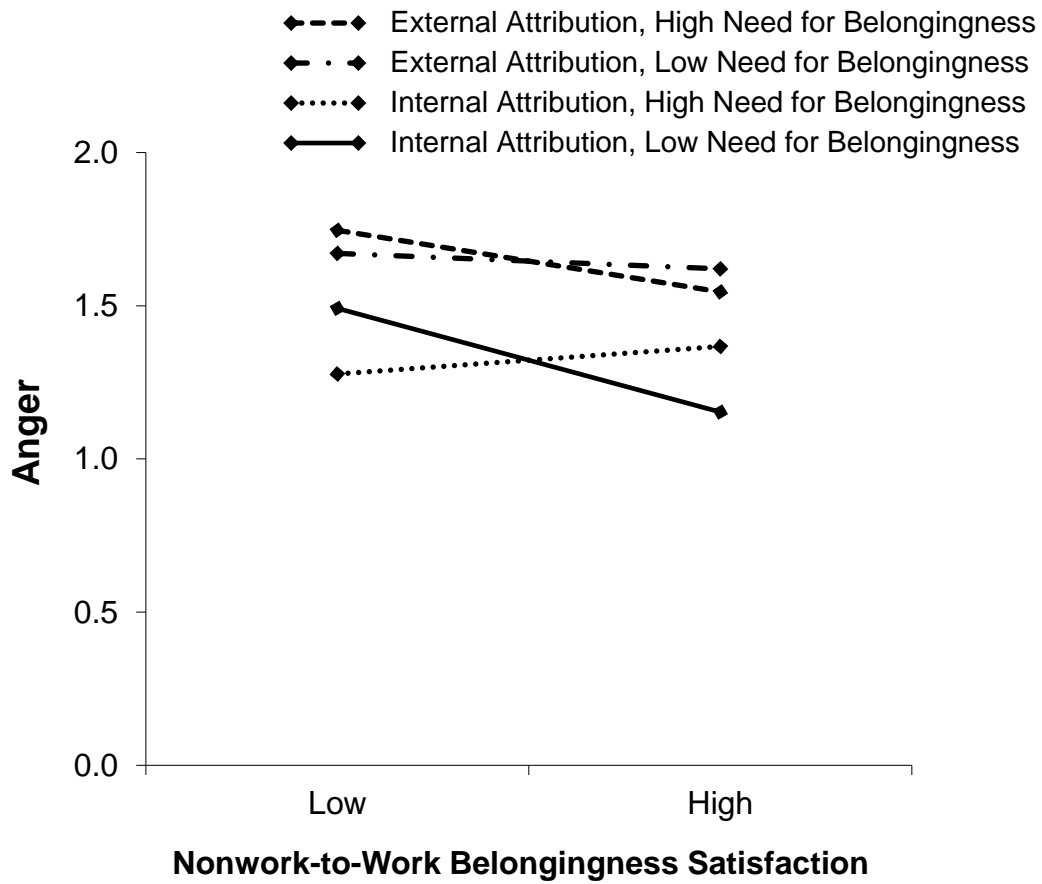
Figure 40: Between-level moderating effect of need for belongingness and within-level interaction of attribution on the relationship between nonwork-to-work belongingness satisfaction and anger in the afternoon.
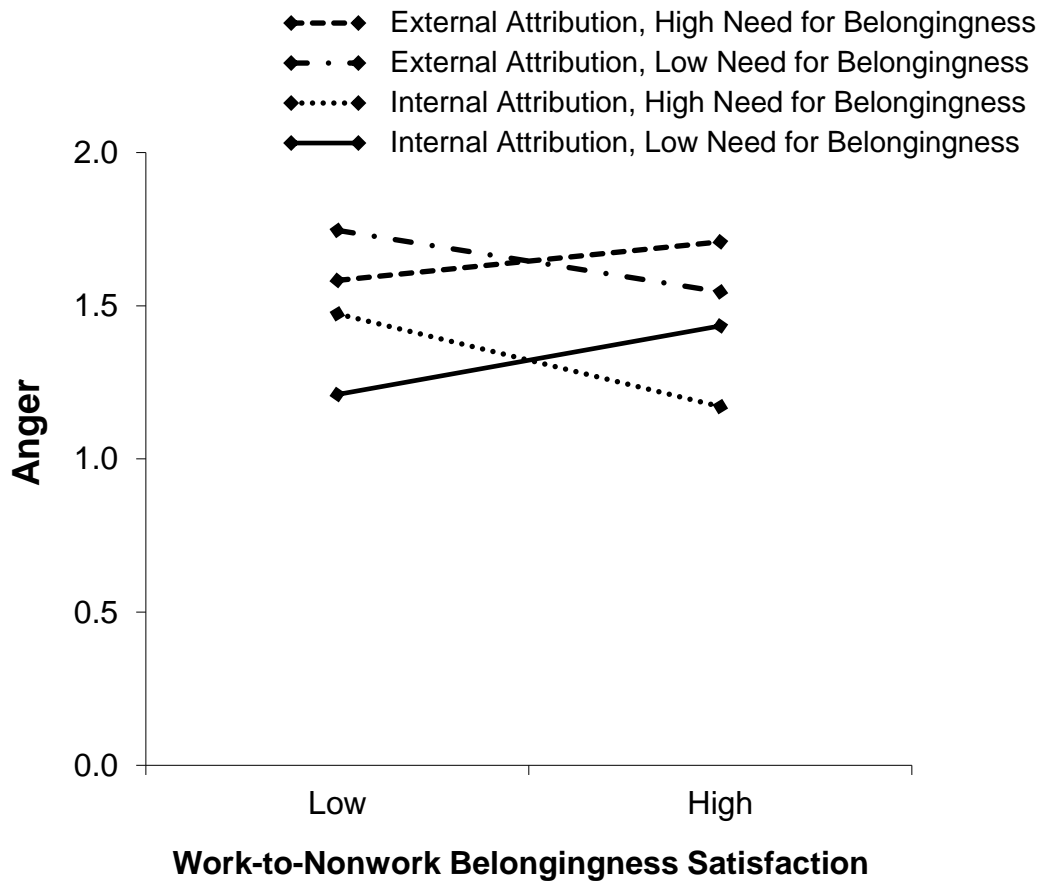
Figure 41: Between-level moderating effect of need for belongingness and within-level interaction of attribution on the relationship between work-to-nonwork belongingness satisfaction and anger in the afternoon.
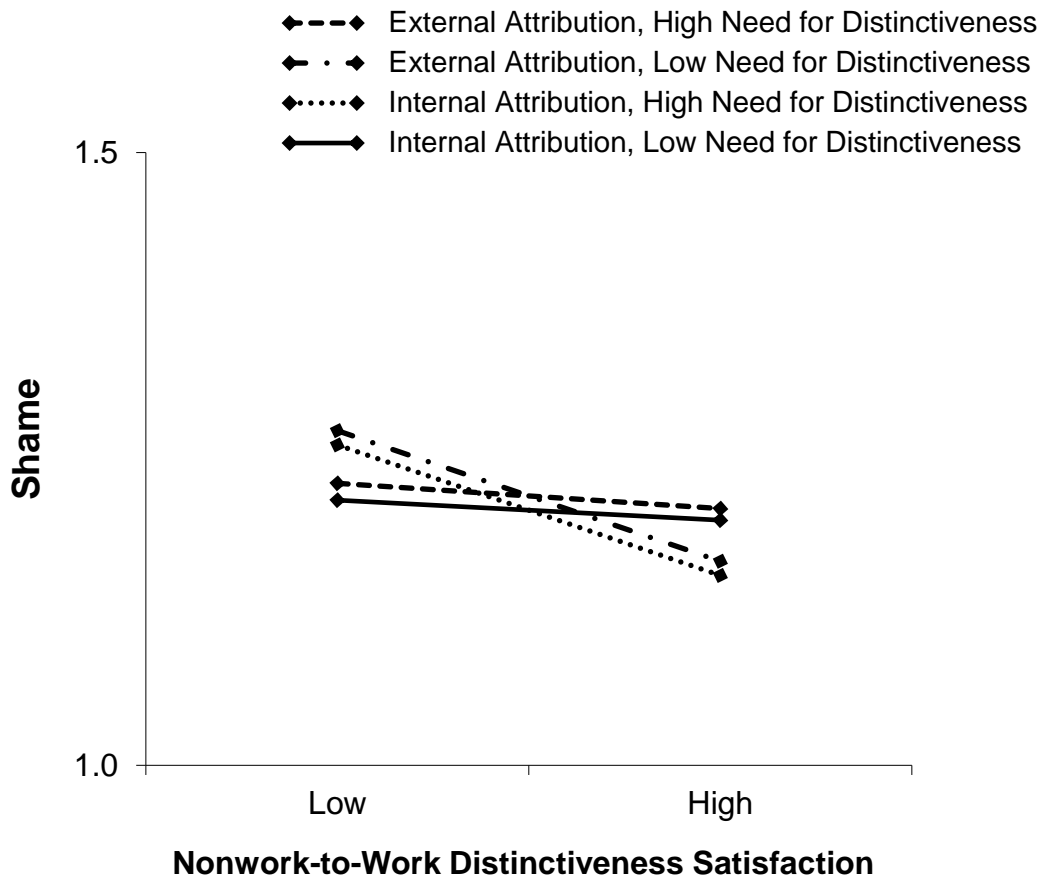
Figure 42: Between-level moderating effect of need for distinctiveness and within-level interaction of attribution on the relationship between nonwork-to-work distinctiveness satisfaction and shame in the afternoon.

Afternoon Results:
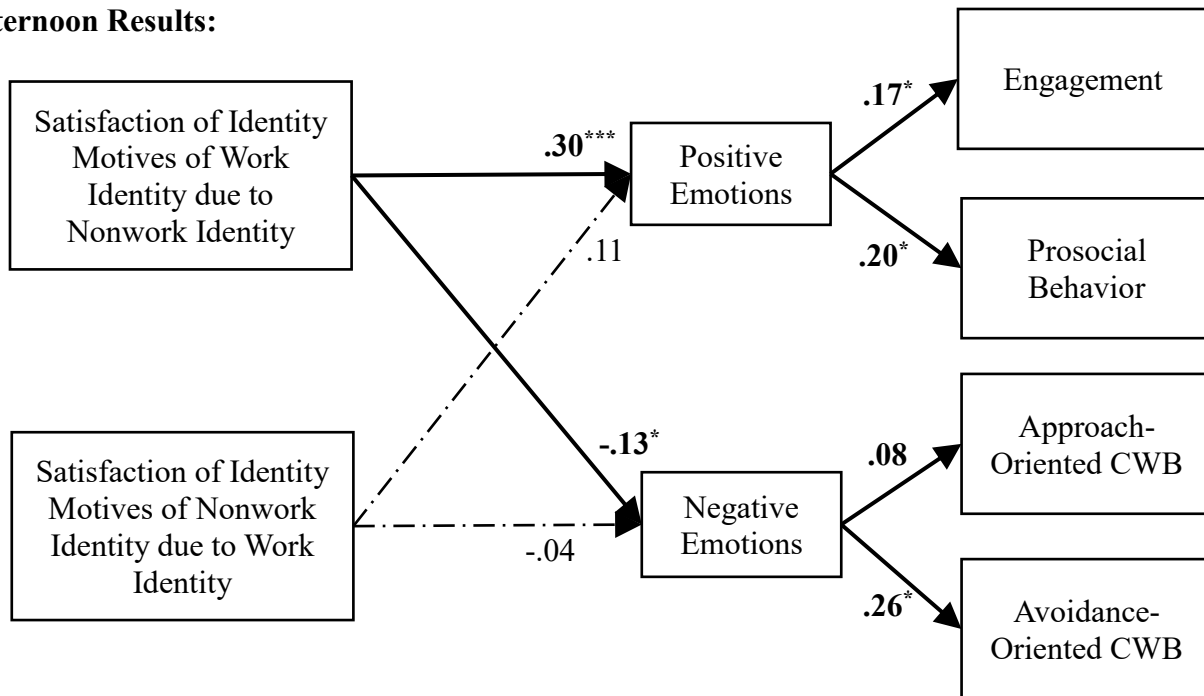
Evening Results:
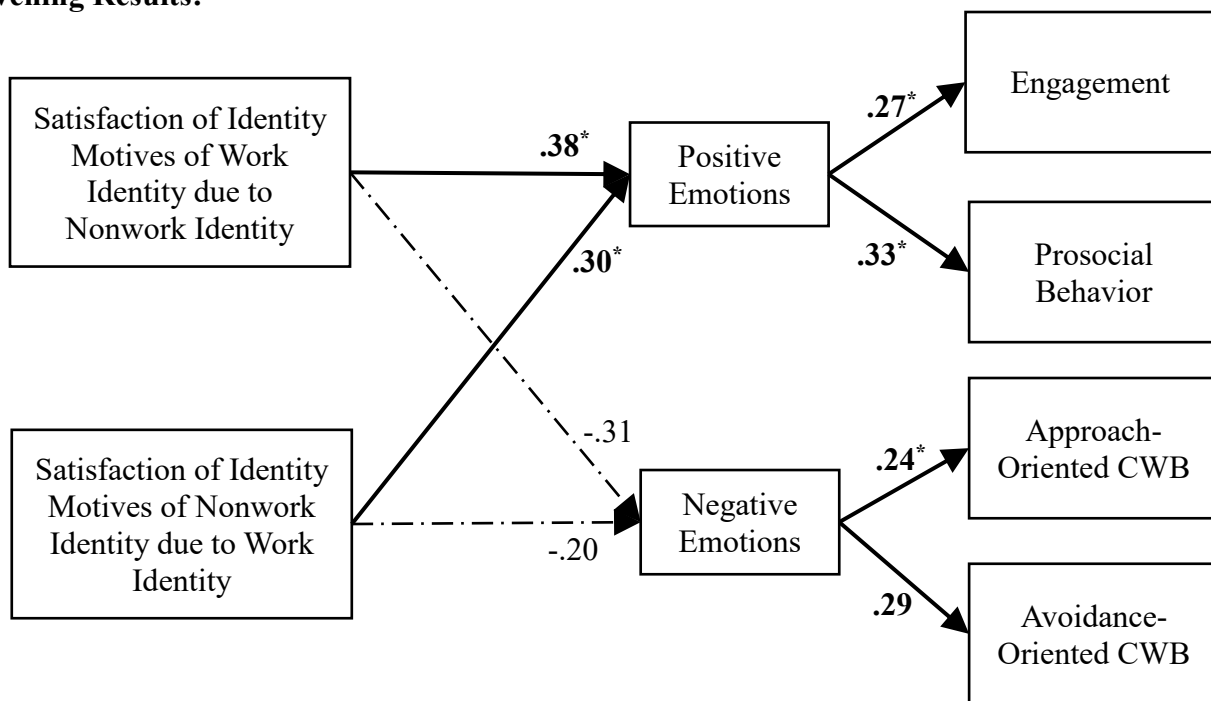
Figure 43: Summary of post-hoc analysis for afternoon (above) and evening (below). Positive and negative affect were included as control variables for emotions, but are not shown here. Direct effects of motive satisfaction on outcomes were also included in the model, and only the significant relationships are shown here.

*** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$. Solid lines represent significant effects.
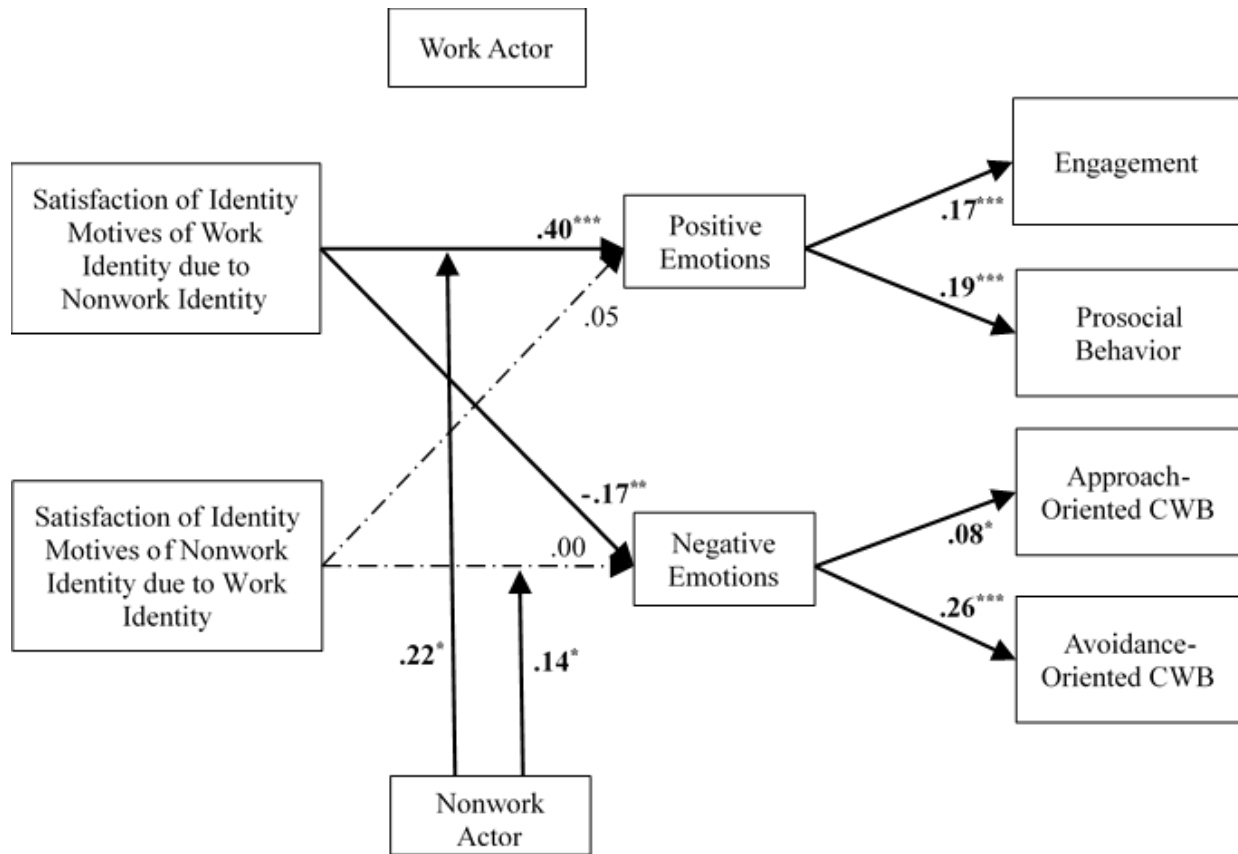
Figure 44: Post-hoc analysis for the moderating effect of work and nonwork actors on the effect of motive satisfaction on positive and negative emotions for the afternoon. Positive and negative affect were included as control variables for emotions, but are not shown here. Work and nonwork actors were also included in the model as moderators for the relationship between motive satisfaction and emotion, however, only the significant direct effects and moderating effects are shown here. Direct effects of motive satisfaction on outcomes were also included in the model, and only the significant relationships are shown here.
*** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$. Solid lines represent significant effects.

Figure 45: Post-hoc analysis for the moderating effect of work and nonwork actors on the effect of motive satisfaction on positive and negative emotions for the evening. Positive and negative affect were included as control variables for emotions, but are not shown here. Work and nonwork actors were also included in the model as moderators for the relationship between motive satisfaction and emotion, however, only the significant direct effects and moderating effects are shown here. Direct effects of motive satisfaction on outcomes were also included in the model, and only the significant relationships are shown here.
*** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$. Solid lines represent significant effects.
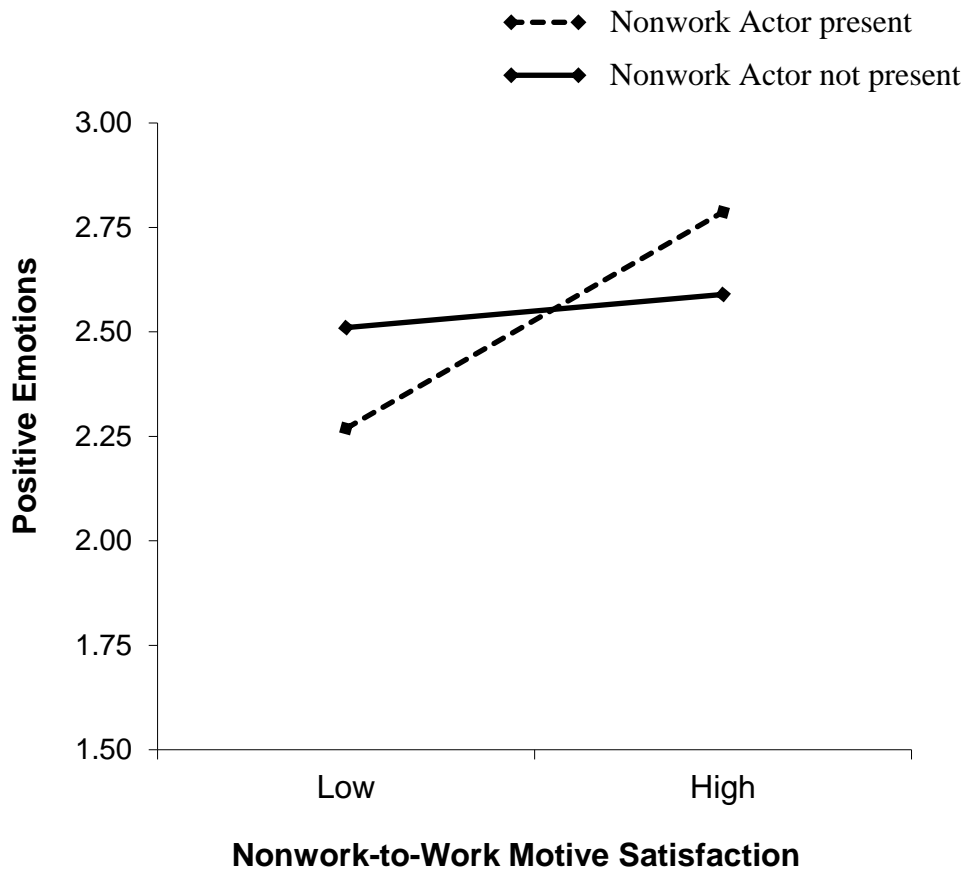
Figure 46: Post-hoc analysis of within-level moderating effect of nonwork actors on the relationship between nonwork-to-work motive satisfaction and positive emotions in the afternoon.
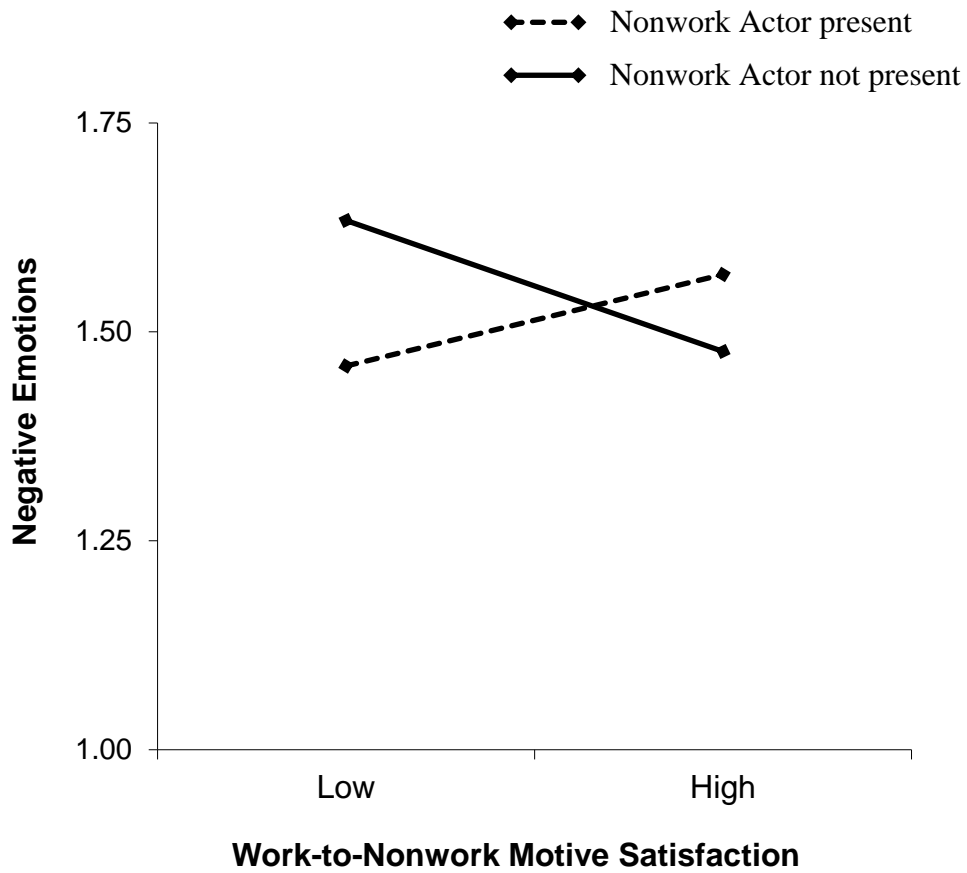
Figure 47: Post-hoc analysis of within-level moderating effect of nonwork actors on the relationship between work-to-nonwork motive satisfaction and negative emotions in the afternoon.
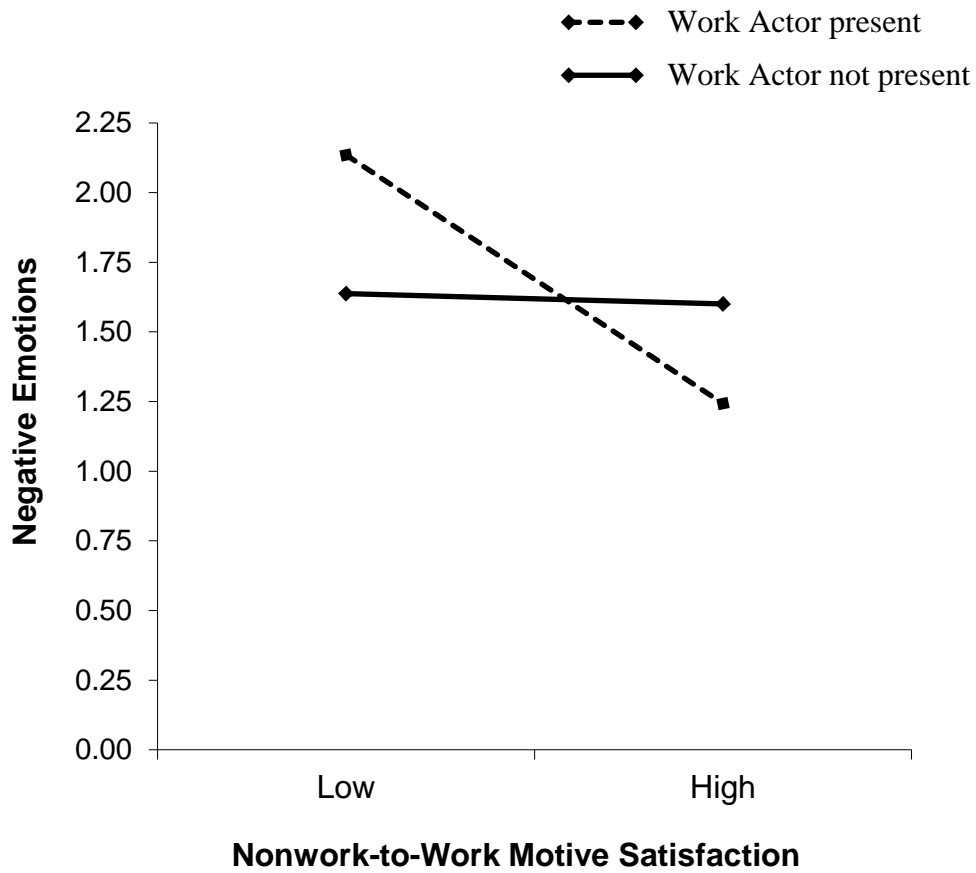
Figure 48: Post-hoc analysis of within-level moderating effect of work actors on the relationship between nonwork-to-work motive satisfaction and negative emotions in the evening.
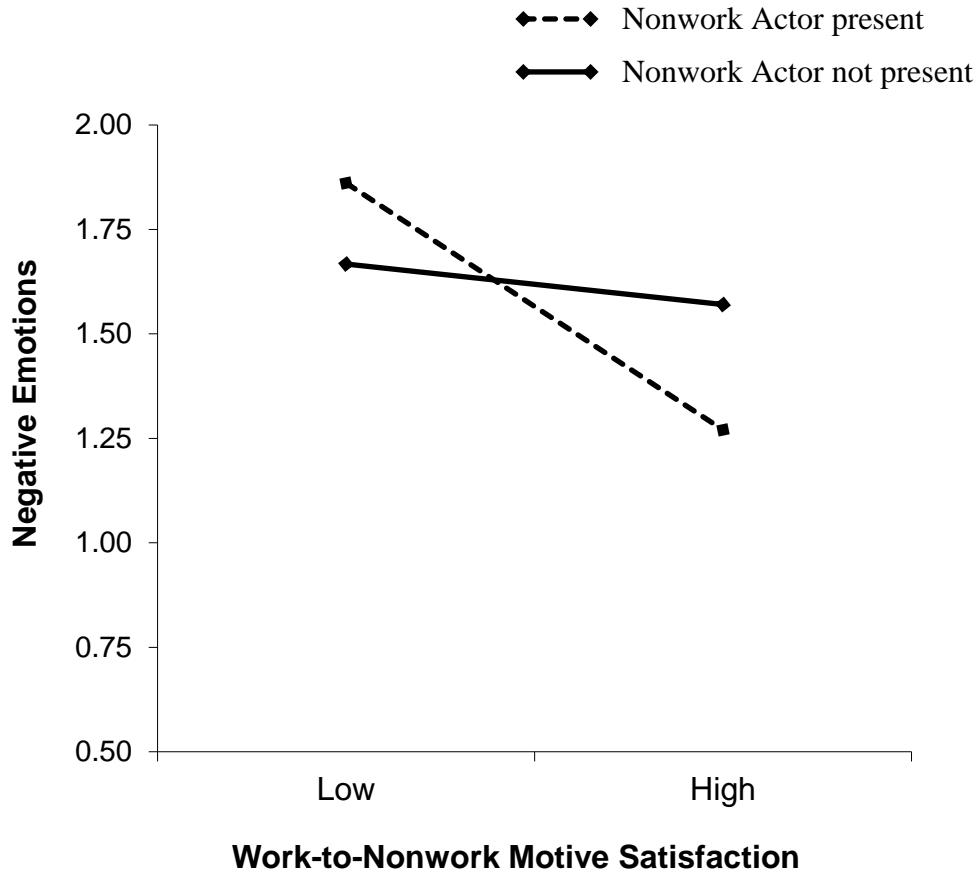
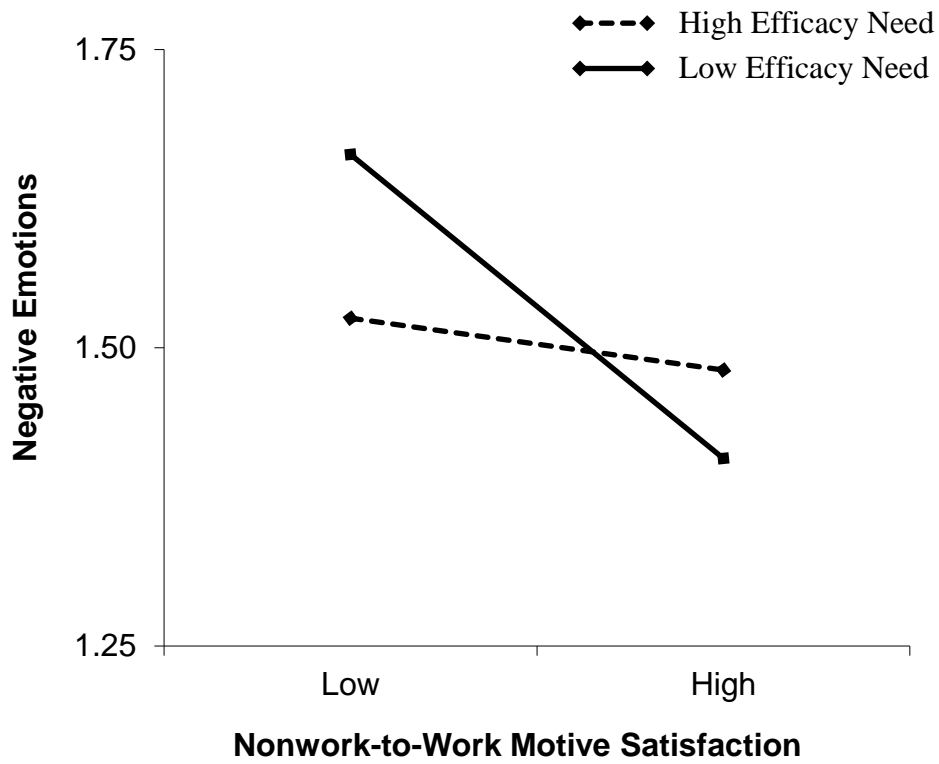*Figure 49:* Post-hoc analysis of within-level moderating effect of nonwork actors on the

relationship between work-to-nonwork motive satisfaction and negative emotions in the evening.
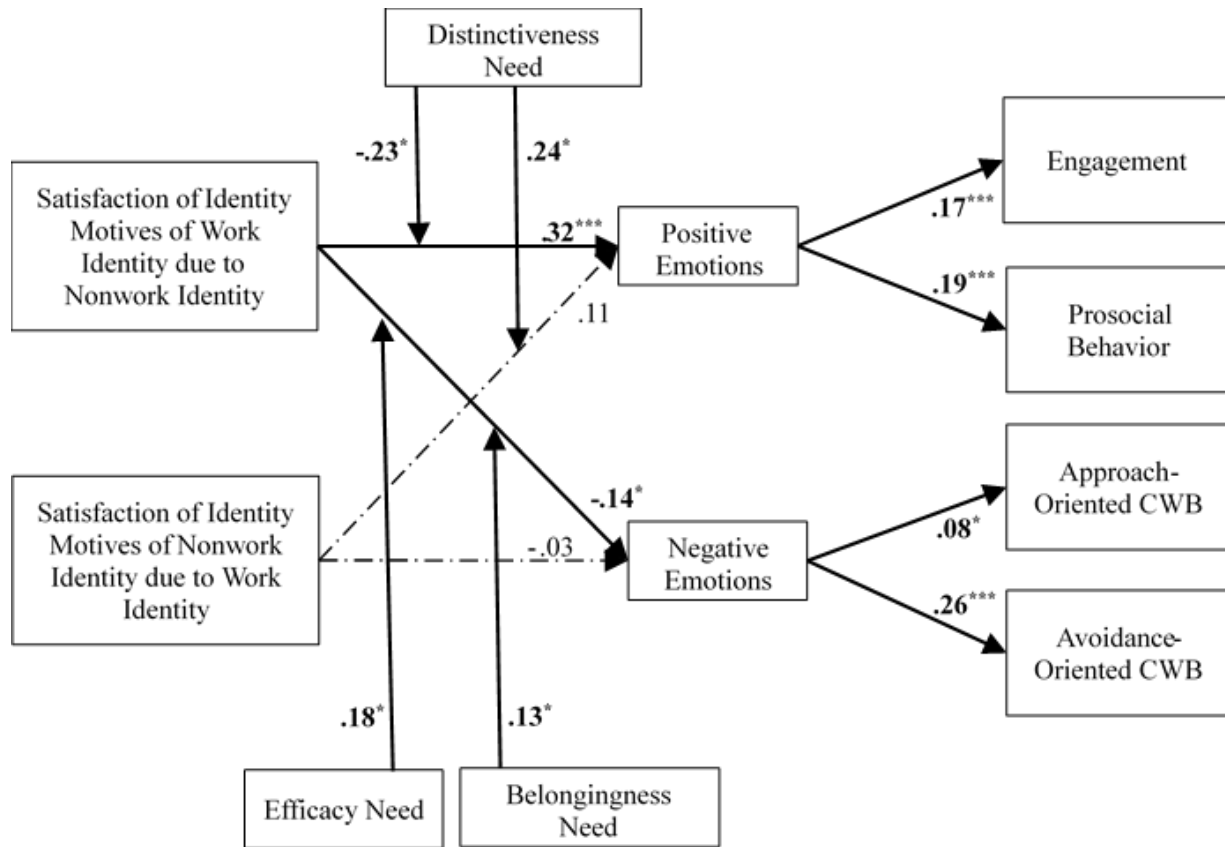
Figure 50: Post-hoc analysis for the between-level moderating effect of individual need strength on the effect of motive satisfaction on positive and negative emotions for the afternoon. Positive and negative affect were included as control variables for emotions, but are not shown here. Individual need strengths were also included in the model as moderators for the relationship between motive satisfaction and emotion, however, only the significant direct effects and moderating effects are shown here. Direct effects of motive satisfaction on outcomes were also included in the model, and only the significant relationships are shown here.
*** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$. Solid lines represent significant effects.
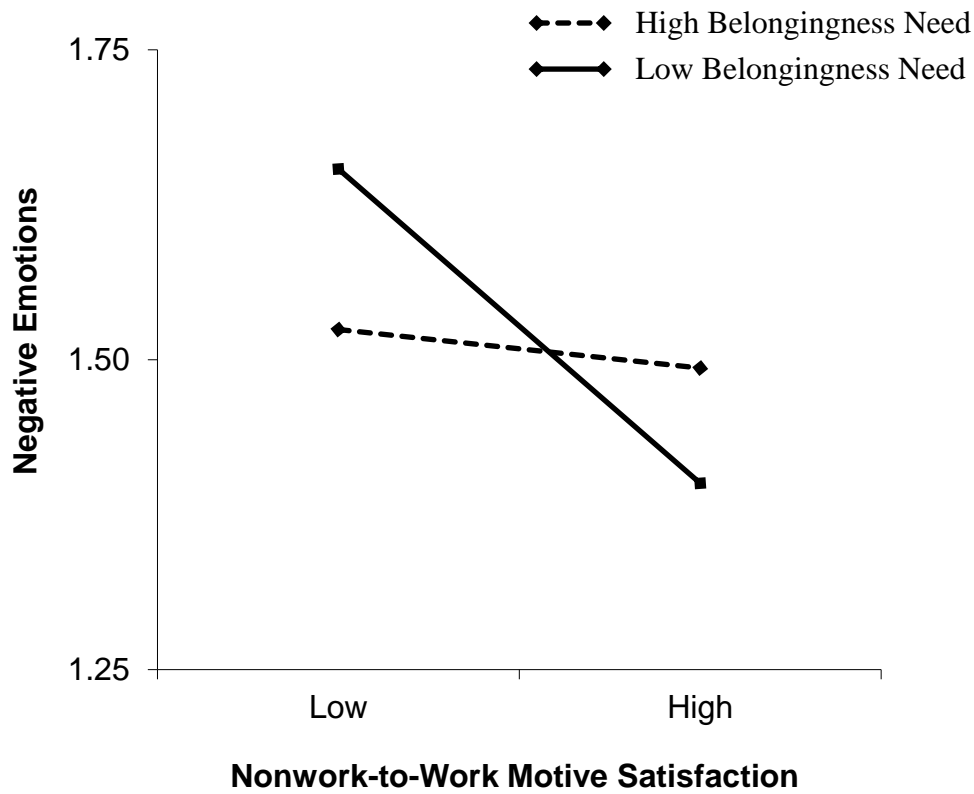
Figure 51: Post-hoc analysis of between-level moderating effect of belongingness need on the

relationship between nonwork-to-work motive satisfaction and negative emotions in the

afternoon.

Figure 52: Post-hoc analysis of between-level moderating effect of efficacy need on the

relationship between nonwork-to-work motive satisfaction and negative emotions in the
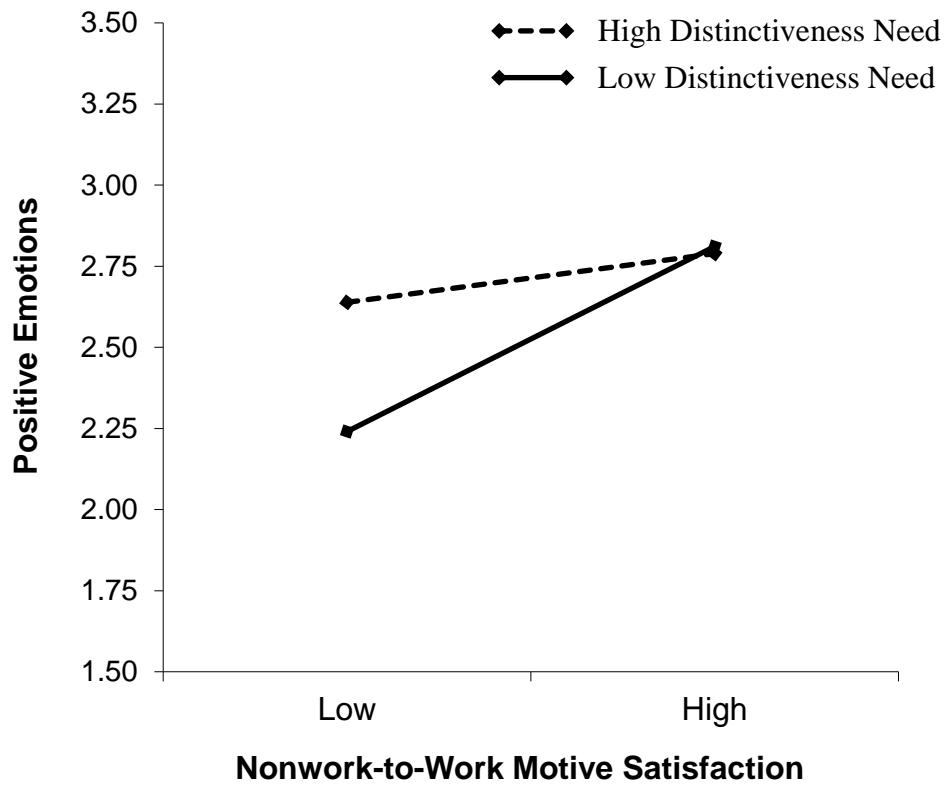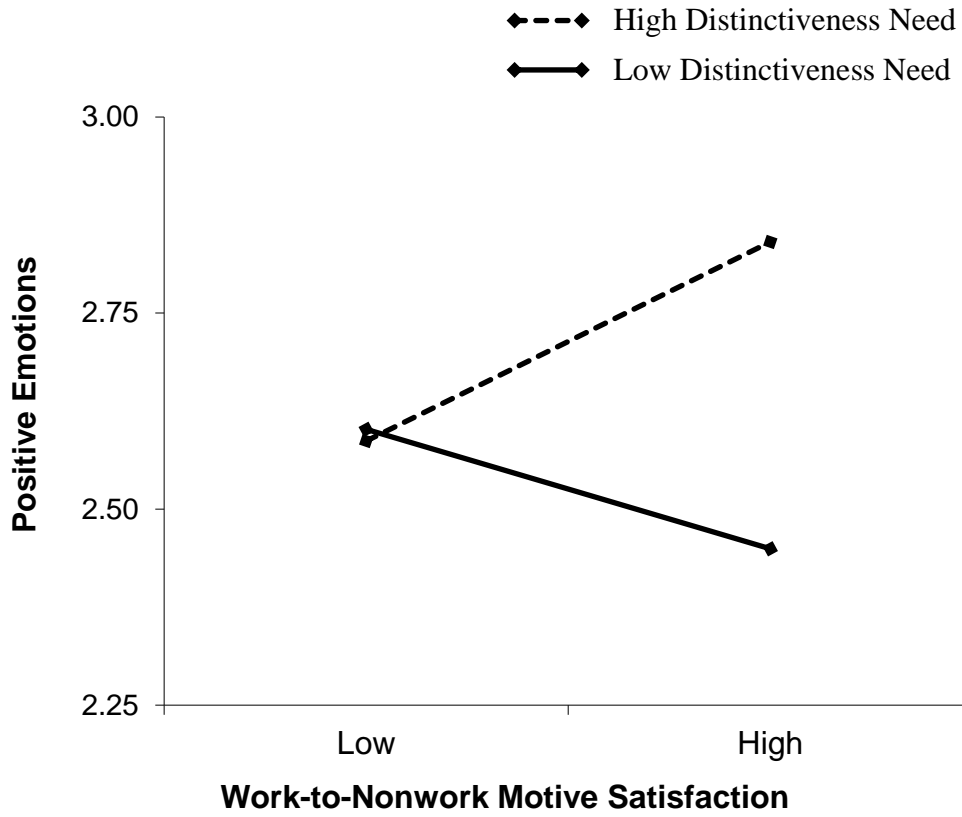
afternoon.

Figure 53: Post-hoc analysis of between-level moderating effect of distinctiveness need on the relationship between nonwork-to-work motive satisfaction and positive emotions in the afternoon.

Figure 54: Post-hoc analysis of between-level moderating effect of distinctiveness need on the

relationship between work-to-nonwork motive satisfaction and positive emotions in the

afternoon.

APPENDICES

Appendix A

List of all Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1a: Contribution of an identity to the satisfaction of the identity motives of another identity is positively related to feelings of happiness.

Hypothesis 1b: Contribution of an identity to the satisfaction of the identity motives of another identity is negatively related to feelings of sadness.

Hypothesis 1c: Contribution of an identity to the satisfaction of the identity motives of another identity is negatively related to feelings of anxiety.

Hypothesis 2: Attribution moderates the negative relationship between the contribution of an identity to the satisfaction of the identity motives of another identity and feelings of anger, such that the relationship is stronger when attribution is external versus internal.

Hypothesis 3: Attribution moderates the negative relationship between the contribution of an identity to the satisfaction of the identity motives of another identity and feelings of (a) shame and (b) guilt, such that the relationships are stronger when attribution is internal versus external.

Hypothesis 4: Attribution moderates the positive relationship between the contribution of an identity to the satisfaction of the identity motives of another identity and feelings of gratitude, such that the relationship is stronger when attribution is external versus internal.

Hypothesis 5: Attribution moderates the positive relationship between the contribution of an identity to the satisfaction of the identity motives of another identity and feelings of pride, such that the relationship is stronger when attribution is internal versus external.

Hypothesis 6a: Identity level moderates the relationship between the contribution of an identity to the satisfaction of the belongingness motive of another identity and felt emotions, such that the relationship is stronger when the focal identity is at the collective or relational level versus when it is at the individual level.

Hypothesis 6b: Identity level moderates the relationship between the contribution of an identity to the satisfaction of the efficacy and distinctiveness motives of another identity and felt emotions, such that the relationship is stronger when the focal identity is at the individual level versus when it is at the relational or collective level.

Hypothesis 7: Actors moderate the relationship between the contribution of an identity to the satisfaction of the belongingness motive of another identity and felt emotions, such that the relationship is stronger when an actor from the focal domain is present versus when an actor from that domain is not present.

Hypothesis 8: Demands moderate the relationship between the contribution of an identity to the satisfaction of the efficacy motive of another identity and felt emotions, such that the relationship is stronger when demands are higher within the focal identity versus when demands are lower.

Hypothesis 9: Identity centrality moderates the relationship between the contribution of an identity to the satisfaction of the identity motives of another identity and felt emotions, such that the relationship is stronger when identity centrality is higher (versus lower) for the focal identity.

Hypothesis 10a: Need strength moderates the relationship between the contribution of an identity to the satisfaction of the belongingness motive of another identity and felt emotions, such that the relationship is stronger for those higher in need for belongingness versus those lower in need for belongingness.

Hypothesis 10b: Need strength moderates the relationship between the contribution of an identity to the satisfaction of the distinctiveness motive of another identity and felt emotions, such that the relationship is stronger for those higher in need for distinctiveness versus those lower in need for distinctiveness.

Hypothesis 10c: Need strength moderates the relationship between the contribution of an identity to the satisfaction of the efficacy motive of another identity and felt emotions, such that the relationship is stronger for those higher in need for efficacy versus those lower in need for efficacy.

Hypothesis 11: Anger experienced in an identity coactivation episode is positively related to approach-oriented deviant behaviors.

Hypothesis 12: (a) Anxiety and (b) shame experienced in an identity coactivation episode are positively related to avoidance-oriented deviant behaviors.

Hypothesis 13: (a) Guilt and (b) gratitude experienced in an identity coactivation episode are positively related to prosocial behaviors.

Hypothesis 14: (a) Happiness and (b) pride experienced in an identity coactivation episode are positively related to engagement.

Hypothesis 15: Sadness experienced in an identity coactivation episode is negatively related to engagement.

Appendix B

Opt-in Survey

<u>Qualification Criteria:</u>

1. How old are you in years? Please write the numeric value only.
2. Do you work part-time (less than 30 hours/week) or full-time (30+ hours/week)?
3. How many weekdays (M-F) per week do you typically work?
4. Do you usually arrive at work by 10am and leave no earlier than 3pm?
5. Do you have a job in a typical work setting outside the home (ex: office building, store, factory)?
6. Please tell us the time zone you work in.

[IF NOT ELIGIBLE TO PARTICIPATE, THE RESPONDENT WILL BE DIRECTED TO THE END OF THE SURVEY]

 [NEXT PAGE]

<u>Contact Information</u>

In the fields below, please enter your name and email address so that we may contact you with links to the daily surveys. Please choose an email address that you check several times daily.

- First Name
- Last Name
- Email Address

To provide your compensation at the conclusion of the study, we are requesting your complete mailing address below. We are also requesting your phone number should there be any problems. Note that this information will only be used for incentive purposes (in order to send you a check), and will not be distributed, nor released, for any reason.

- Address Line 1
- Address Line 2
- City
- State
- Zip code
- Country
- Phone number

[NEXT PAGE]

Self-Generated ID Number

To help preserve your anonymity throughout this study, you will now create a unique identification number that will be used instead of your name for us to link your responses to each survey. Your identification number will be a six-digit number formed by the last four digits of your phone number and the two digits of the month in which you were born.

For example:
If your phone number is 416-123-4567, and you were born in March, your identification number would be 456703.
If your phone number is 647-987-6543, and you were born in December, your identification number would be 654312.

You will be the only person who knows your unique identifier; this information will not be shared with anyone else. Further, you will only need to enter this identifier once below and at no other time during the study.

 Please enter your six-digit code in the field below:

[NEXT PAGE]

Demographics

7. What is your gender?
8. Which of the following best describes your racial or ethnic background?
9. Are you married or living with a partner? (IF YES, POPULATES ACTOR AS SPOUSE/PARTNER)
10. How many children do you have? (IF MORE THAN 0, POPULATES ACTOR AS KIDS)
11. How many of your children currently live with you?
12. How many hours per week do you typically work?
13. Are you in a managerial position? (IF YES, POPULATES ACTOR AS SUBORDINATES)
14. In what industry do you work?
15. How long have you worked at your current organization? (in years)
16. What is the highest level of education you have completed?

[NEXT PAGE]

1. **Individual's identities: adapted from Twenty Statements Test (TST; Kuhn & McPartland, 1954);** Each statement will be coded into 3 levels of collective, relational, and personal identities

Instructions: We all have various aspects of our identity and how we think about ourselves. Some of these are related to groups, such as gender (a woman), race/ethnicity (a White), religion (a Christian), politics (a democrat), nationality (an American), work (a boss), occupation (a waiter), clubs (a boy scout), and so forth. Some are related to roles, such as a student, a partner, a sibling, a parent, an employee, a friend, and so on. Some are related to relationships, such as relationships with a spouse, a supervisor, or a particular friend or coworker.

These identities can be grouped based on whether they are considered work-related identities or identities outside work (nonwork identities). For example, Christy's nonwork identities include: a woman, a mom, an African American, a musician, and athlete, and a Christian, and her work-related identities include: a Google employee, a manager, an engineer, Mike's coworker, and George's boss.

Think about the aspects of your identity that are IMPORTANT TO YOU in your work and nonwork, and list them below. When you feel like you are straining to list aspects, it is probably a good time to stop. You have to provide at least 3 identities per each domain.

Work identities	**Nonwork identities**
1. I am _____	1. I am _____
2. I am _____	2. I am _____
3. I am _____	3. I am _____
4. I am _____	4. I am _____
5. I am _____	5. I am _____
6. I am _____	6. I am _____

[NEXT PAGE]

[FOR EACH IDENTITY LISTED ABOVE, ASK 2 - 9 BELOW – ONE IDENTITY IN EACH PAGE]

Identity Motives Satisfaction: adapted from (Vignoles et al., 2006); The following questions will be asked for each identity listed by the participants.

Instructions: Thinking about your identity as [IDENTITY], please indicate how satisfied you generally feel about the following statements.
1 = Very dissatisfied; 2 = Dissatisfied, 3 = Neither dissatisfied nor satisfied; 4 = Satisfied, 5 = Very Satisfied

2. The degree to which being [IDENTITY] makes you view yourself positively. (Self-esteem)
3. The degree to which being [IDENTITY] makes you feel effective or competent. (Efficacy)
4. The degree to which being [IDENTITY] gives you a sense that you "belong". (Belongingness)
5. The degree to which being [IDENTITY] makes you feel distinguished and distinct from other people. (Distinctiveness)

Identity Centrality: adapted from black identity centrality scale (Sellers et al., 1997); The following questions will be asked for each identity listed by the participants.

Instructions: Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements:
1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither agree nor disagree, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly agree

6. Overall, being [IDENTITY] has a lot to do with how I feel about myself.
7. In general, being [IDENTITY] is an important part of my self-image.
8. Being [IDENTITY] is important to my sense of what kind of person I am.
9. Being [IDENTITY] is an important reflection of who I am.

[NEXT PAGE]

Individual Need Strength:

Instructions: Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements: 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither agree nor disagree, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly agree

Need to belong (Leary et al., 2013)**;**

10. I try hard not to do things that will make other people avoid or reject me.
11. I want other people to accept me.
12. I do not like being alone.
13. I have a strong "need to belong."
14. My feelings are easily hurt when I feel that others do not accept me.

Need for distinctiveness – Adapted from Self-attributed need for uniqueness (SANU; Lynn & Harris, 1997)

15. I prefer being different from other people.
16. Being distinctive is important to me.
17. I often intentionally do things to make myself different from those around me.
18. I have a strong need for uniqueness.

Need for achievement – Adapted from (Eisenberger et al., 2005)

19. I am always looking for opportunities to improve my skills.
20. I like to set challenging goals for myself.
21. I enjoy situations where I am personally responsible for finding solutions to problems.
22. I try very hard to improve on my past performance.
23. I get the most satisfaction when completing assignments that are fairly difficult.

[NEXT PAGE]

Positive Affectivity and Negative Affectivity – PANAS (Watson et al., 1988)**;**
shortened version: (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988; MacKinnon et al., 1999)

Instructions: This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Read each item and then mark the appropriate answer. Indicate to what extent you generally feel this way, that is, how you feel on the average.
1 = Not at all; 2 = A little; 3 = Moderately; 4 = Quite a bit; 5 = Extremely

24. Excited
25. Enthusiastic
26. Inspired
27. Determined
28. Alert
29. Distressed
30. Upset
31. Scared
32. Nervous
33. Afraid

Appendix C

Afternoon Daily Survey

Qualification Criteria:

1. Was today a work day for you? Yes/No
2. Did you work at the office today? Yes/No

[IF YES, NEXT PAGE]

3. Did a work-nonwork identity coactivation episode occur?

Instructions: Thinking about what happened today at work, please indicate whether any of the following has occurred. CHECK ALL THAT APPLY. Please do not consider receiving the survey link and responding to the survey as one of these events.

- ☐ You read a nonwork-related email
- ☐ You sent a nonwork-related email
- ☐ You received a nonwork-related text/phone call
- ☐ You texted or called someone outside work
- ☐ You engaged in nonwork-related tasks
- ☐ You thought about nonwork-related events
- ☐ You spoke about nonwork-related events to someone from work (e.g., coworkers)
- ☐ You posted nonwork-related content on social media
- ☐ You viewed a nonwork-related post on social media

[NEXT PAGE]

Instructions: Of the events happened today, please choose the one with the highest personal significance, and tell us briefly in three to four sentences what happened.

> [RESPONDENT CAN CHOOSE FROM A LIST OF SELECTED EVENTS]
> [TEXT BOX TO EXPLAIN THE EVENT]

4. Which identities were coactivated?

Instructions: Listed below are the most important work and nonwork identities that you initially provided. Thinking about the event you just described, please indicate which of these identities occurred. Choose one identity from each work and nonwork. These identities could occur during the event or immediately before the event. If none of these identities are applicable, you can add a new identity by selecting "other." Only if no identities whatsoever were present, please choose "no work/nonwork identity occurred."

As an example, if you received a phone call from your spouse while working at your desk, your identities as a husband/wife and a boss/ABC employee may both be present or most recent.

Also, if you discussed your family weekend plans with your coworkers, your identities as a coworker and a parent/spouse may both be present or most recent.

> [LIST OF WORK-RELATED IDENTITIES PROVIDED BY THE RESPONDENT IN INITIAL SURVEY; THE LIST WILL INCLUDE ADDITIONAL OPTIONS OF 'other' and 'no work identity was relevant'] (identity#1)

> [LIST OF NONWORK-RELATED IDENTITIES PROVIDED BY THE RESPONDENT IN INITIAL SURVEY; THE LIST WILL INCLUDE OPTIONS OF 'other' and 'no nonwork identity was relevant'] (identity#2)

[NEXT PAGE]

Situational/Episode Characteristics

5. Presence of Actors

Instructions: Thinking about the event you just described, please select all the parties who were present or involved. For example, this could include the person who sent you a communication during the event, as well as the coworkers that were present when you read that communication. PLEASE CHECK ALL THAT APPLY. For each person(s) present, please indicate to which identity they are related.

☐ Spouse/partner   This person(s) is related to my identity as ☐ [IDENTITY#1] ☐ [IDENTITY#2]
☐ Kids   This person(s) is related to my identity as ☐ [IDENTITY#1] ☐ [IDENTITY#2]
☐ Friends   This person(s) is related to my identity as ☐ [IDENTITY#1] ☐ [IDENTITY#2]
☐ Supervisor   This person(s) is related to my identity as ☐ [IDENTITY#1] ☐ [IDENTITY#2]
☐ Coworker(s)   This person(s) is related to my identity as ☐ [IDENTITY#1] ☐ [IDENTITY#2]
☐ Subordinate(s)   This person(s) is related to my identity as ☐ [IDENTITY#1] ☐ [IDENTITY#2]
☐ Others (specify) This person(s) is related to my identity as ☐ [IDENTITY#1] ☐ [IDENTITY#2]

[NEXT PAGE]

Presence of Demands

Instructions: Thinking about the event you just described, please answer the following questions. [Yes/No response]

6. As [IDENTITY#1], were you expected to complete a task or duty?
    a. [IF YES]: Please describe the nature of task/duty [TEXT BOX]
7. As [IDENTITY#2], were you expected to complete a task or duty?
    b. [IF YES]: Please describe the nature of task/duty [TEXT BOX]

[NEXT PAGE]

Identity Motives Satisfaction: adapted from (Vignoles et al., 2006)**;**

Instructions: Thinking about the event you described, please indicate to what degree you are satisfied with the following statements.
1 = Very dissatisfied; 2 = Dissatisfied, 3 = Neither dissatisfied nor satisfied; 4 = Satisfied, 5 = Very Satisfied

- Self-esteem
    8. The degree to which being [IDENTITY#1] made you view yourself positively.
    9. The degree to which being [IDENTITY#2] contributed to viewing yourself positively as [IDENTITY#1].
    10. The degree to which being [IDENTITY#2] made you view yourself positively.
    11. The degree to which being [IDENTITY#1] contributed to viewing yourself positively as [IDENTITY#2]
- Efficacy
    12. The degree to which being [IDENTITY#1] made you feel effective or competent.
    13. The degree to which being [IDENTITY#2] contributed to your feeling of effectiveness and competence as [IDENTITY#1]
    14. The degree to which being [IDENTITY#2] made you feel effective or competent.
    15. The degree to which being [IDENTITY#1] contributed to your feeling of effectiveness and competence as [IDENTITY#2]
- Belongingness
    16. The degree to which being [IDENTITY#1] gave you a sense that you "belong".
    17. The degree to which being [IDENTITY#2] contributed to your feeling of belongingness as [IDENTITY#1]
    18. The degree to which being [IDENTITY#2] gave you a sense that you "belong".
    19. The degree to which being [IDENTITY#1] contributed to your feeling of belongingness as [IDENTITY#2]
- Distinctiveness
    20. The degree to which being [IDENTITY#1] made you feel distinguished and distinct from other people.
    21. The degree to which being [IDENTITY#2] contributed to your feeling of distinction from other people as [IDENTITY#1]
    22. The degree to which being [IDENTITY#2] made you feel distinguished and distinct from other people.
    23. The degree to which being [IDENTITY#1] contributed to your feeling of distinction from other people as [IDENTITY#2]

[NEXT PAGE]

Attribution

Instructions: Thinking about the event you just described, please indicate the extent to which you felt the following.
1 = Not at all, 2 = A little, 3 = Moderately, 4 = Quite a bit, 5 = A great deal

Attribution of responsibility – Adapted from (Ellsworth & Smith, 1988b)

24. Someone or something other than myself was responsible for having brought about the events that occurred in this situation.
25. I was responsible for having brought about the events that occurred in this situation.
26. Someone other than myself was controlling what was happening in this situation.
27. I had control over what was happening in this situation.

[NEXT PAGE]

Emotional Experience – Adapted from (Fredrickson et al., 2003)

Instructions: Thinking about the way you felt during the event you described, please indicate to what extent you felt…
1 = Not at all; 2 = A little; 3 = Moderately; 4 = Quite a bit; 5 = Extremely

28. angry, irritated, or annoyed (Anger)
29. ashamed, humiliated, or disgraced (Shame)
30. grateful, appreciative, or thankful (Gratitude)
31. guilty, repentant, or blameworthy (Guilt)
32. joyful, glad, or happy (Happiness)
33. love, closeness, or affection (Affection)
34. proud, confident, or self-assured (Pride)
35. sad, downhearted, or unhappy (Sadness)
36. stressed, nervous, or anxious (Anxiety)

[NEXT PAGE]

Behavioral Outcomes

Instructions: Thinking about your behaviors since the event you described, please indicate the extent to which you engaged in the following at work TODAY:
1 = Almost never; 2 = Rarely; 3 = Occasionally; 4 = Often; 5 = Very often

Since this event, I…

OCB – Adapted from (Johnson et al., 2014)

37. Took time to advise, help, or mentor someone at work.
38. Lent a compassionate ear when someone had a personal or work problem.
39. Helped someone at work who had too much work to do.
40. Gave someone at work encouragement or appreciation.

CWB

- *Approach CWB – Adapted from* (Barnes et al., 2015; Johnson et al., 2012)
  41. Started an argument with someone at work.
  42. Made fun of someone at work.
  43. Yelled or swore at someone at work.
  44. Behaved in a nasty or rude manner toward someone at work.
- *Avoidance CWB –* (Ferris et al., 2016)
  45. Kept as much distance as possible from my coworkers.
  46. Withdrew from my coworkers.
  47. Avoided my coworkers.

Engagement – (Christian et al., 2015)**; Shortened version of** (Rich et al., 2010)**'s measure**
1 = Not at all; 2 = A Little; 3 = Somewhat; 4 = Quite a bit; 5 = A Great deal

48. Exerted my full effort on my job (physical engagement)
49. Was enthusiastic in my job (emotional engagement)
50. Was absorbed by my job (cognitive engagement)

Appendix D

Evening Daily Survey

1. **Did a work-nonwork identity coactivation episode occur?**

Instructions: Thinking about what happened today at work, please indicate whether any of the following has occurred. CHECK ALL THAT APPLY. Please do not consider receiving the survey link and responding to the survey as one of these events.

- ☐ You read a work-related email
- ☐ You sent a work-related email
- ☐ You received a work-related text/phone call
- ☐ You texted or called someone from work
- ☐ You engaged in work-related tasks
- ☐ You thought about work-related events
- ☐ You spoke about work-related events with someone outside work (e.g., friends)
- ☐ You posted work-related content on social media
- ☐ You saw a work-related post on social media

[NEXT PAGE]

Instructions: Of the events happened today, please choose the one with the highest personal significance, and tell us briefly in three to four sentences what happened.

> [RESPONDENT CAN CHOOSE FROM A LIST OF SELECTED EVENTS]
> [TEXT BOX TO EXPLAIN THE EVENT]

2. **Which identities were coactivated?**

Instructions: Listed below are the most important nonwork and work identities that you initially provided. Thinking about the event you just described, please indicate which of these identities occurred. Choose one identity from each nonwork and work. These identities could occur during the event or immediately before the event. If none of these identities are applicable, you can add a new identity by selecting "other." Only if no identities whatsoever were present, please choose "no nonwork/work identity occurred."

As an example, if you received a phone call from your boss while with your family, your identities as a subordinate and a husband/wife may both be present or most recent.

Also, if you discussed a work-related event with your sister, your identities as an ABC employee and a sister may both be present or most recent.

[LIST OF WORK-RELATED IDENTITIES PROVIDED BY THE RESPONDENT IN INITIAL SURVEY; THE LIST WILL INCLUDE ADDITIONAL OPTIONS OF 'other' and 'no work identity was relevant'] (identity#1)

[LIST OF NONWORK-RELATED IDENTITIES PROVIDED BY THE RESPONDENT IN INITIAL SURVEY; THE LIST WILL INCLUDE OPTIONS OF 'other' and 'no nonwork identity was relevant'] (identity#2)

[NEXT PAGE]

Situational/Episode Characteristics

3. **Presence of Actors**

Instructions: Thinking about the event you just described, please select all the parties who were present or involved. For example, this could include the person who sent you a communication during the event, as well as the coworkers that were present when you read that communication. PLEASE CHECK ALL THAT APPLY. For each person(s) present, please indicate to which identity they are related.

☐ Spouse/partner   This person(s) is related to my identity as ☐ [IDENTITY#1] ☐ [IDENTITY#2]
☐ Kids   This person(s) is related to my identity as ☐ [IDENTITY#1] ☐ [IDENTITY#2]
☐ Friends   This person(s) is related to my identity as ☐ [IDENTITY#1] ☐ [IDENTITY#2]
☐ Supervisor   This person(s) is related to my identity as ☐ [IDENTITY#1] ☐ [IDENTITY#2]
☐ Coworker(s)   This person(s) is related to my identity as ☐ [IDENTITY#1] ☐ [IDENTITY#2]
☐ Subordinate(s)   This person(s) is related to my identity as ☐ [IDENTITY#1] ☐ [IDENTITY#2]
☐ Others (specify) This person(s) is related to my identity as ☐ [IDENTITY#1] ☐ [IDENTITY#2]

 [NEXT PAGE]

Presence of Demands

Instructions: Thinking about the event you just described, please answer the following questions. [Yes/No response]

4. As [IDENTITY#1], were you expected to complete a task or duty?
    c. [IF YES]: Please describe the nature of task/duty [TEXT BOX]
5. As [IDENTITY#2], were you expected to complete a task or duty?
    d. [IF YES]: Please describe the nature of task/duty [TEXT BOX]

[NEXT PAGE]

Identity Motives Satisfaction: adapted from (Vignoles et al., 2006);

Instructions: Thinking about the event you described, please indicate to what degree you are satisfied with the following statements.
1 = Very dissatisfied; 2 = Dissatisfied, 3 = Neither dissatisfied nor satisfied; 4 = Satisfied, 5 = Very Satisfied

- Self-esteem
    6. The degree to which being [IDENTITY#1] made you view yourself positively.
    7. The degree to which being [IDENTITY#2] contributed to viewing yourself positively as [IDENTITY#1].
    8. The degree to which being [IDENTITY#2] made you view yourself positively.
    9. The degree to which being [IDENTITY#1] contributed to viewing yourself positively as [IDENTITY#2]
- Efficacy
    10. The degree to which being [IDENTITY#1] made you feel effective or competent.
    11. The degree to which being [IDENTITY#2] contributed to your feeling of effectiveness and competence as [IDENTITY#1]
    12. The degree to which being [IDENTITY#2] made you feel effective or competent.
    13. The degree to which being [IDENTITY#1] contributed to your feeling of effectiveness and competence as [IDENTITY#2]
- Belongingness
    14. The degree to which being [IDENTITY#1] gave you a sense that you "belong".
    15. The degree to which being [IDENTITY#2] contributed to your feeling of belongingness as [IDENTITY#1]
    16. The degree to which being [IDENTITY#2] gave you a sense that you "belong".
    17. The degree to which being [IDENTITY#1] contributed to your feeling of belongingness as [IDENTITY#2]
- Distinctiveness
    18. The degree to which being [IDENTITY#1] made you feel distinguished and distinct from other people.
    19. The degree to which being [IDENTITY#2] contributed to your feeling of distinction from other people as [IDENTITY#1]
    20. The degree to which being [IDENTITY#2] made you feel distinguished and distinct from other people.
    21. The degree to which being [IDENTITY#1] contributed to your feeling of distinction from other people as [IDENTITY#2]

[NEXT PAGE]

Attribution

Instructions: Thinking about the event you just described, please indicate the extent to which you felt the following.
1 = Not at all, 2 = A little, 3 = Moderately, 4 = Quite a bit, 5 = A great deal

Attribution of responsibility – Adapted from (Ellsworth & Smith, 1988b)

22. Someone or something other than myself was responsible for having brought about the events that occurred in this situation.
23. I was responsible for having brought about the events that occurred in this situation.
24. Someone other than myself was controlling what was happening in this situation.
25. I had control over what was happening in this situation.

[NEXT PAGE]

Emotional Experience – Adapted from (Fredrickson et al., 2003)

Instructions: Thinking about the way you felt during the event you described, please indicate to what extent you felt…
1 = Not at all; 2 = A little; 3 = Moderately; 4 = Quite a bit; 5 = Extremely

26. angry, irritated, or annoyed (Anger)
27. ashamed, humiliated, or disgraced (Shame)
28. grateful, appreciative, or thankful (Gratitude)
29. guilty, repentant, or blameworthy (Guilt)
30. joyful, glad, or happy (Happiness)
31. love, closeness, or affection (Affection)
32. proud, confident, or self-assured (Pride)
33. sad, downhearted, or unhappy (Sadness)
34. stressed, nervous, or anxious (Anxiety)
35. envious, jealous, or begrudging (Jealousy) – adapted from (Shaver et al., 1987); added begrudging
36. surprised, amazed, or astonished (Surprise)

[NEXT PAGE]

Behavioral Outcomes

Instructions: Thinking about your behaviors since the event you described, please indicate the extent to which you engaged in the following at work TODAY:
1 = Almost never; 2 = Rarely; 3 = Occasionally; 4 = Often; 5 = Very often

Since this event, I…

OCB – Adapted from (Johnson et al., 2014)

   37. Took time to advise, help, or mentor someone outside work.
   38. Outside work, lent a compassionate ear when someone had a personal or work problem.
   39. Outside work, gave someone encouragement or appreciation.

CWB

- *Approach CWB –* **Adapted from** (Barnes et al., 2015; Johnson et al., 2012)
   40. Acted in an unpleasant or angry manner toward someone from my personal life.
   41. Made a critical remark toward someone from my personal life.
   42. Criticized someone from my personal life.
   43. Insulted someone from my personal life.
- *Avoidance CWB –* (Ferris et al., 2016)
   44. kept as much distance as possible from people in my personal life.
   45. withdrew from people in my personal life.
   46. avoided people in my personal life.

Engagement – (Christian et al., 2015)**; Shortened version of** (Rich et al., 2010)**'s measure**
1 = Not at all; 2 = A Little; 3 = Somewhat; 4 = Quite a bit; 5 = A Great deal

   47. exerted my full effort in my personal life (physical engagement)
   48. was enthusiastic about my personal activities (emotional engagement)
   49. was absorbed by my personal/nonwork activities (cognitive engagement)