What We Share is Who We Are and What We Do:
How Emotional Intimacy Shapes Organizational Identification and Collaborative
Behaviors

Francesco Sguera

Católica-Lisbon School of Business and Economics

Catholic University of Portugal

Palma de Cima, 1649-023, Lisboa, Portugal

Phone number: (+351) 217 214 000

E-mail: fsguera@ucp.pt

Corresponding Author

Richard P. Bagozzi

Ross School of Business

University of Michigan

E-mail: bagozzi@umich.edu

Quy N. Huy

INSEAD

E-mail: quy.huy@insead.edu

Wayne R. Boss

Leeds School of Business

University of Colorado at Boulder

E-mail: wayne.boss@colorado.edu

David S. Boss

Ohio College of Business

Management Information Systems Department

Email: boss@ohio.edu

Author Manuscript

Article type   : Original Article

What We Share is Who We Are and What We Do:

How Emotional Intimacy Shapes

Organizational Identification and Collaborative Behaviors

Abstract

We focus on the concept of emotional intimacy among organizational members and investigate its influence on both their (a) perceptions and (b) behaviors. With regard to employees' perceptions, we test whether it is organizational identification (operationalized as cognitive and affective identification with the organization) that influences emotional intimacy or the reverse. At the behavioral level, we investigate the interplay between employee emotional intimacy and organizational identification and their effects on employee interpersonal helping (OCB-Is; interpersonal organizational citizenship behaviors) and interpersonal conflict (CWB-Is; interpersonal counterproductive workplace behaviors). Based on a three-wave panel study among nurses working in a public hospital, our findings show that emotional intimacy influences organizational identification, and it represents a unique antecedent of OCB-Is and CWB-Is.

Introduction

With the widening use of social media technologies, such as Facebook at work, employees are more likely than ever to bring their intimate emotions into the organization, physically and virtually, and share them with their colleagues. This trend underscores the need to deepen our understanding of emotion-based social interactions at work and for managers to learn how to identify and manage employees' emotional processes—an area that has remained under-researched. In this paper, we focus on the concept of "emotional intimacy" (we call this EIN for short) —defined as the employees perceived intimacy in sharing emotions with accompanying thoughts that express the causes or consequences of these emotions. In line with research on intimacy and self-disclosure (Laurenceau et al., 1998; Gibson, 2018), we posit that emotional intimacy among organizational members influences both their (a) perceptions and (b) behaviors.

First, EIN provides a meaningful source of information about the environment and influences how individuals perceive themselves as part of something bigger, which is the organization (Sluss et al., 2012). Organizational identification (OI) refers to "the degree to which a member defines himself or herself by the same attributes that he or she believes define the organization" (Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994; p. 29). Individuals identify with their organization because they seek self-enhancement, self-consistency, uncertainty reduction, prestige, support, or distinctiveness (e.g., Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994; Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000; Cooper & Thatcher, 2010; Xenikou, 2014; Elstak, Bhatt, Van Riel, Pratt, & Berens, 2015). Many of these investigations share a common characteristic: they focus on individual factors as antecedents to employee-organization relationships, such as an affinity to company characteristics, or self-concept orientations (e.g., Cooper & Thatcher, 2010; Fiol & O'Connor, 2005). Extending this research to an interpersonal level, we focus on perceptions arising from interactions between organizational members and examine whether "emotional intimacy" among employees shapes their level of identification with the organization (conceptualized and operationalized as cognitive and affective identification with the organization).

In addition to influencing employees' perceptions, we also hypothesize that a strong emotional intimacy among organizational members should affect their collaborative behavior. In fact, through EIN employees learn about each other's emotional needs, and should therefore be more able and perhaps prone to respond to help requests by others (see the emotion-as-

information perspective; Schwarz, 1990). That is, depending on the level of intimacy achieved (Laurenceau, Barrett, & Pietromonaco, 1998), employees should engage in positive behaviors, such as increased interpersonal helping (interpersonal citizenship behaviors; OCB-Is) and reduced interpersonal conflict (interpersonal counterproductive workplace behaviors; CWB-Is),

To explore these processes, we conducted a panel study over three waves with 255 nurses working in a public hospital. Specifically, we employed a cross-lagged structural equation model to test the interrelatedness of emotional intimacy and organizational identification over time enroute to their effects on OCB-Is and CWB-Is (see Figures 1 and 2). Further, to reduce possible common method biases, we used supervisor's ratings to assess employees OCB-Is and CWB-Is.

Overall, our study on emotional intimacy enriches knowledge on OI and collaborative behaviors at work in two important ways. First, through the concept of EIN, we extend the OI literature with an interpersonal perspective rather than an intrapersonal one. That is, we shift the traditional focus on identification from a person-object rationale (i.e., employee-organization), whereby individuals identify with the organization because of their personal striving for self-enhancement or affiliation, to an interpersonal paradigm, wherein the sharing of emotions amongst employees conveys important information for the comprehension and reappraisal of one's own organizational membership.

Second, we answer the call for more research on how interpersonal relationships shape behavior at work (e.g., Sluss & Ashforth, 2007; Sluss et al., 2012; Stephens, Heaphy, & Dutton, 2011; Heaphy et al., 2018). This call argues that when faced with dynamic environments, organizations increasingly rely on fluid team-based work, where interaction and personal connections constitute important informal bases for high performance. Accordingly, we show that EIN represents an important antecedent of interpersonal citizenship behaviors (OCB-Is) and interpersonal counterproductive workplace behaviors (CWB-Is).

Theory and Hypotheses

Affect-triggering events (e.g., unfair treatment by a supervisor) can leave long-lasting cognitive and emotional effects on employees. Traumatic or unusually touching episodes can provoke recurrent emotional recollections long after the event. Emotional intimacy often occurs and is expressed in narratives, whereby individuals convey their thoughts, feelings, and behavioral reactions about an event to others (Hareli & Rafaeli, 2008; Rimé, 2009). Emotional

events spark the need for communication among people (Rimé, 2009). During sharing episodes, listeners are expected to express interest in, empathy toward, and enhanced affection for the narrator (Peters & Kashima, 2007). Emotional intimacy is thus related to, but distinct from, the concept of emotional contagion within social groups (c.f. Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1993). That is, although emotional contagion and EIN might produce the co-experiencing of similar emotions (Barsade, 2002; Peters & Kashima, 2007), they unfold in different ways. Whereas emotional contagion entails a process in which multiple individuals come to experience the same emotions through transmission of feelings from one person to another in an automatic way — typically occurring through non-deliberative psychological brain processes— EIN involves an interaction cycle in which one expresses one's own feelings and thoughts and the target responds, often iteratively and repeatedly, and all of which represent willful acts of interpretation, communication, and social influence. Emotional contagion is largely based on unconscious diffusion processes (Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1993), whereas emotional intimacy involves specific elements of conscious emotion management. Listening to others' emotions may evoke in the target feelings that are related to those of the sharer, without necessarily being the same or mimicked as in emotional contagion (Peters & Kashima, 2007; Hareli & Rafaeli, 2008).

When people share their emotions with others in social settings, they likely share these in combination with their thoughts and evaluations (Laurenceau, Barrett, & Pietromonaco, 1998). People seldom express their emotions alone such as "I feel angry" or "I feel happy." Rather, emotions are expressed in conjunction with cognitive appraisals of the conditions producing these emotions (Smith & Ellsworth, 1985), the context and reasons that might have led them to feel these emotions, and how they intend to respond to the emotion-eliciting event: these thoughts arise from efforts to make sense of their emotions and a need to share them (Hareli & Rafaeli, 2008; Weick, 1995). Imagine that in a hospital setting, an emergency ward nurse shares with a colleague the following experiences that combine emotions, bodily feelings, and thoughts:

"Yesterday, I felt really disappointed that we could not save the life of the young girl involved in the accident despite our best efforts [a thought related to the negative emotions of disappointment on sadness]. I imagine how painful it would be for her parents if I were in their shoes [a thought involving empathetic feelings for others], but I also feel proud [positive emotion] that many of us came in to help with the increased

emergency load without being on call: this tells me how strongly we are committed to each other and our healthcare community [an emotion of pride that was elicited by sensemaking about causes—thoughts about commitment to community—that are remote from the proximal cause of the death of the girl]. Today, I really feel exhausted [bodily feelings expressing emotions]."

Although useful in releasing stress and receiving support (Rimé, 2009), this type of emotional intimacy among employees is sometimes inhibited by organizations. Scholars have consistently reported that expressing a wide range of authentically felt emotions—positive and negative—is often discouraged in many work settings (Hochschild, 1983; Huy, 1999, 2002, 2011; Martin, Knopoff, & Beckman, 1998). Employees in good standing are expected to perform a certain degree of emotion self-regulation; that is, to display or suppress their feelings according to the requisites of organizational goals and social and cultural conventions in the face of internal or external interactions amongst employees or between employees and people external to the organization (Williams, 2007). Customer service employees, for example, are expected to smile at customers to boost sales no matter how they feel inside and no matter how difficult customers might be (Hochschild, 1983).

Yet, the unavoidable proliferation of authentic emotions shared at work, both face-to-face and through social media, underscores the need for companies to learn how to understand, manage, and benefit from employees' emotional processes. Accordingly, to the extent that emotional intimacy does occur in work contexts, studying whether this type of interpersonal sharing influences employees' perceptions (i.e., OI) and behaviors (i.e., OCB-Is and CWB-Is) seems particularly worthwhile.

Perceptions: from intimacy to identification

Research indicates that individuals tend to identify more strongly with lower-order identities than higher ones (see review in Ashforth et al., 2008; p.353). These lower identities (such as with work colleagues and one's direct supervisor) often represent the basis for task interdependence and social interaction; they are more inclusive, concrete, and proximal such that individuals come to perceive that they have much in common with members of the organization (Sluss et al., 2012).

To make sense of abstract higher-order identities, such as the organization, Sluss and Ashforth (2008) suggested that individuals often project the more grounded qualities of their lower identities (particularly relational ones) to higher-order entities, thereby anthropomorphizing the latter. Given that individuals want to like and be liked by their peers, the resulting personalization of one's proximal co-workers may facilitate organizational identification. Exchanges among employees can help enable identification processes. Although recent research has focused on instrumental resources, such as mentorship, help, and information (e.g., Willer, Flynn, & Zak, 2012), the emotional content of interpersonal exchanges might also have important consequences for the organization.

In theorizing the effects of EIN on organizational identification, we distinguish between two facets of OI, namely the cognitive and the affective dimension of identification (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000; Bagozzi & Lee, 2002; Xenikou, 2014). This distinction between these OI facets is drawn directly from the social identity literature (e.g., Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000; Ellemers, Kortekaas, & Ouwerkerk, 1999; Bagozzi et al., 2012). According to this research stream, cognitive identification refers to cognitions subsuming the perceived overlap between one's own and the organization image, which is also defined as self-awareness of group membership. By contrast, affective identification refers to emotional bonds between organizational members and their organization (i.e., also conceptualized as affective commitment; see Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000; Ellemers, Kortekaas, & Ouwerkerk, 1999).

Emotional intimacy and cognitive identification with the organization

Through self-examination and reflective processes (Gibson, 2018), emotional intimacy with other colleagues should influence cognitive judgments regarding one's own identification with the organization in at least two ways. First, by engaging in EIN, individuals express and increase their ability to understand the perspectives of others (Davis, 1983). This mutual understanding should minimize cognitive differences by building a common perception of organization characteristics (Dutton et al., 1994; Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000), values (Pratt, 1998), and goals (Simon, 1947) amongst organization members. Aron and Aron (1986) characterize this mechanism as the inclusion of the other in the self, a process whereby the perspectives and identities of close others (e.g., co-members) are perceived as belonging to oneself.

Second, individuals may use information from others' emotions and thoughts to understand their own social environment and to infer the expresser's interpretation of it

(Rosenthal et al., 1979; Van Kleef, 2009). Emotions, such as surprise, anxiety, or disappointment, are elicited when people face new, uncertain, or ambiguous environments that challenge their prevailing expectations and belief systems (Lazarus, 1991), which heightens their need for sensemaking (Weick, 1995). The process of social sharing of emotions through EIN contributes to meaning production and helps participants achieve a revised understanding of relationships among themselves, their work, as well as their organization. In this sense, EIN conveys important information for the comprehension and reappraisal of one's own organizational membership, eventually giving rise to new interpretations of it (Elfenbein, 2007).

Emotional intimacy enables the construction of personally important narratives, containing identity reflections and aspirations that are socially validated with others (Barbulescu & Ibarra, 2007). The prospective nature of narratives enables individuals to achieve both change and consistency. They accomplish change in their organization identity by adapting the narrative to accommodate new, recent episodes—by adding new aspects of themselves and affirming their desires to change or deepen identities. They produce consistency by looking at past episodes to construct a plot line that suggests their natural, predictable evolution (Ashforth et al., 2008). In other words, narratives are constantly being reformulated to incorporate evolving perceptions of self, where the new self is a natural outgrowth of past selves and where the new makes sense in the light of the old. A high degree of emotional intimacy enables this ongoing rewriting of narratives that shapes a person's OI in a way that projects temporal continuity and social familiarity. Because individuals use their feelings to form judgments about their environment ("emotion-as-information"; Schwarz, 1990; Schwarz & Clore, 1988), sharing should reinforce cognitive awareness of organizational membership through the creation of shared meanings that link past, present, and future in a consistent manner (Weick, 1995; Hareli & Rafaeli, 2008). Therefore, we propose:

Hypothesis 1. Emotional intimacy is positively related to cognitive identification with the organization.

Emotional intimacy and affective identification with the organization

Rimé (2009) suggests that the sharing of emotions, with accompanying thoughts and feelings (e.g., bodily sensations such as "I feel tired" or "I feel cold"), with others can perform many social-affective functions. Verbalizing emotional experience alone will unlikely extinguish

a past negative experience. However, emotional intimacy helps gain attention from others and elicits their understanding and sympathy. For example, sharers of negative emotional experience implicitly hope to get help from people such as support, comfort, or consolation, and legitimization and validation, as well as reception of advice. Meanwhile, sharers of positive emotional experience hope to enhance their own positive emotions as well as the target's positive emotions by retelling or jointly reinterpreting an emotional episode. When the target of sharing responds warmly to one's sharing of positive emotions, this response validates one's perception of the others' benevolence and enhances social bonds (Gable et al., 2004). Rimé (2009) proposes that social responses elicited by shared emotions in adults can be construed as mature forms of emotional attachment, which have their origins in interactions with caregivers, especially when one is a toddler and young adolescent (Bowlby, 1969). When individuals face obstacles in reaching their goals, they tend to turn to other people for help in part by expressing and sharing their emotions.

As EIN unfolds and diffuses, organization members likely open themselves more to others. Such openness and self-disclosure allow affective bonds to emerge in the organization (Martin, Knopoff, & Beckman, 1998). According to the literature on self-disclosure (Reis & Patrick, 1996; Collins & Miller, 1994), under the social sharing of emotions, spiral effects occur. This process involves reciprocal stimulation of emotions that enhances affective bonds amongst people (Peters & Kashima, 2007). When sharing occurs, the listener feels more bonded with the sharer. EIN fosters social integration and builds a sense of community through mutual trust, liking, and affection (Spoor & Kelly, 2004). Mumby and Putnam note: "as individuals share emotional experiences, their initial sense of anonymity gives way to feelings of community through the development of mutual affection, cohesion, and coherence of purpose" (1992: 478).

This process can result in affect transfer, where the emotions experienced personally with lower-order entities, such as coworkers, transfer more or less nonconsciously to the higher-order aggregate one, namely the organization (Ashforth et al., 2008; p.357). This logic is also supported by research on extended identities that shows that interactions among members of small groups eventually increase identification with the company itself (Bagozzi et al., 2012). Therefore, the intimacy of sharing emotions can be a meaningful act, capable of shaping affective relationships between individuals and increasing positive perceptions associated with the organization, and ultimately enhancing their emotional involvement with it. We posit:

Hypothesis 2.   Emotional intimacy is positively related to affective identification

with the organization.

Behavior: from intimacy to collaboration

EIN is manifest in processes indicative of close personal relationships such as caregiver–child relationships (Rimé, 2009). Individuals who are willing to share their emotions learn about each other's emotional needs and thus are more able to respond in a helpful way to others (see the emotion-as-information perspective; Schwarz, 1990). Emotions are personal experiences, but they also become objects of personal reflection and sensemaking when people observe the accompanying display of thoughts and feelings by others. Emotions, feelings, and thoughts thus function as social media, conveying information about the psychological states of others and in the best of times, nudge reciprocal processes of empathy, compassion, and social support (Hareli & Rafaeli, 2008; Dutton et al., 2006; Peters & Kashima, 2007). That is, people might "perceive an [individual] as feeling a particular emotion and react with complementary or situationally appropriate emotions of their own, [which] complement the feelings of the original [individual]" (Hareli & Rafaeli, 2008: 41).

For instance, an employee might respond with prosocial behaviors if s/he detects that co-workers experience anxiety with work-related problems. Or, through the intimacy of sharing of emotions, feelings, and thoughts, individuals learn which behaviors may offend others and thus avoid repeating these actions. Therefore, we focus our hypothesizing on two types of employees' behaviors, namely interpersonal citizenship behaviors (OCB-Is; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983) and interpersonal counterproductive work behaviors (CWB-Is; Robinson & Bennett, 1995). OCB-Is consist of individual actions that are not explicitly recognized by the organizations reward system yet benefit co-members (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). On the other hand, CWB-Is are actions against co-members welfare that are deviant (Bennett & Robinson, 2000), uncivil (Andersson & Pearson, 1999), or socially undermining (Duffy et al., 2006; Robinson & OLeary-Kelly, 1998). Accordingly, emotional intimacy should foster behavioral synchrony among individuals through conscious tracking of others' affect, and enact collaboration through automatic responses to others' emotional needs. In simple words, we expect EIN to influence employee collaboration as indicated by increased employee OCB-Is and decreased CWB-Is.

Hypothesis 3: Emotional intimacy is positively related to interpersonal citizenship

behaviors.

Hypothesis 4: Emotional intimacy is negatively related to interpersonal counterproductive behaviors.

Methods

Participants and procedure

We begin by describing the broad contours of our research procedures. A cross-lagged structural equation model was used to test the influence of emotional intimacy on cognitive and affective identification with the organization. In addition, we tested the effects of EIN on employee collaboration (OCB-Is and CWB-Is). To reduce possible common method biases, we used supervisor's ratings to assess interpersonal consequences of EIN (i.e., OCB-Is and CWB-Is).

We surveyed 481 nurses in a public hospital using a panel design of three waves of data. The hospital was in a southeastern state of the US. One week before the data collection began, the hospital chief executive officer (CEO) contacted all the nurses by e-mail to explain the purpose of the study and reassure them that participation in the survey was voluntary and anonymous. EIN and cognitive and affective identification were both measured at Time 1 and Time 2. A 6 to 8-week interval occurred between measurement waves. Interpersonal consequences of EIN (i.e., OCB-Is and CWB-Is) were assessed through supervisors' rating taken at Time 3, about 6 weeks after Time 2. A total of 255 nurses and their supervisors completed all questions on the survey for the three waves of data, for a response rate of 53 percent. In the final sample, 234 nurses (91.8 percent) were women, and 20 (7.8 percent) men (one person failed to provide socio-demographic information); 216 nurses (84.7 percent) were Caucasian, whereas the remaining 39 nurses belonged to different ethnicities (African-American, Asian Pacific Islander, Hispanic/Latino, and native American). Respondents ranged from 25 to 73 years of age (mean=45.41, s.d.=10.57), and had been employed by their organization on average 7.7 years (s.d. = 8.35) before answering the first questionnaire.

Measures

Emotional intimacy. To measure emotional intimacy, we used three items adapted from previous research on the measurement of psychological intimacy in the healthcare context (Sinclair & Dowdy, 2005). The items assessed how much respondents shared their emotional

experiences with each of three types of organizational representatives with whom they interacted the most in their daily routines at the hospital: one item for the nurse supervisor, one item for work group colleagues, and one item for colleagues outside the work group[1]. As an example, we asked participants "How much sharing of personal thoughts, emotions, and feelings do you do with your work group colleagues?" (ratings range from 1="very little" to 5="very much").

Cognitive identification. We used two items from Bergami and Bagozzi, (2000) and Bagozzi and colleagues (2012) to measure cognitive identification with the organization. One item used a seven-point scale ranging from "no overlap at all" to "very much overlap," with "a moderate overlap" in the middle. The second item showed the amount of overlap graphically by using circles with "no overlap," "very small overlap," "small overlap," "moderate overlap," "much overlap," and "near complete overlap" as response alternatives (see Figure 1A in the Appendix of the manuscript).

Affective identification. Affective identification, a sense of emotional involvement with the organization was measured by two items from Bagozzi and colleagues (2012) and Bagozzi and Lee (2002). The first item asked, "How bonded or attached do you feel to your organization, as a whole?" and was measured on a seven-point scale; "not at all bonded: I have no positive feelings toward the organization" and "bonded very much: I have very strong positive feelings toward the organization" as the endpoints; and "I feel moderately bonded to the organization" as the midpoint. The second item asked, "How strongly do you like your organization?" We used a seven-point scale ranging from "not at all strong" to "very strong", and "moderately strong" as a midpoint.

Interpersonal citizenship behaviors (OCB-Is). OCB-Is were measured using the 8-item organizational citizenship behavior scale of Lee and Allen (2002). For each employee, supervisors rated how much they agreed or disagreed with the assertion that their subordinates performed each OCB-I using a five-point scale (1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree). Sample items are this employee "gives up time to help others who have work or non-work problems", "shows genuine concern and courtesy toward coworkers, even under the most trying business or personal situations", and "helps others who have been absent."

---

[1] Support for the emotional closeness among respondents and their respective targets of intimacy was provided by (a) high significant correlations among the 3 targets/items and (b) constructs internal consistency values ($\rho_\varepsilon = 75 - 79$) well above the minimum requirements for the stipulated convergent validity criteria (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988)

Interpersonal counterproductive workplace behaviors (CWB-Is). To measure the interpersonal dimension of counterproductive workplace behaviors, we used six items from the CWB scale (Robinson & O Leary-Kelly, 1998). Supervisors of employees rated how often their subordinates performed each CWB-I during the last year using a five-point scale (1=very infrequently, 3=sometimes, and 5=very frequently). Sample items include: this employee "said or did something to purposely hurt someone at work", "griped with coworkers", "criticized people at work", and "started an argument with someone at work".

Results

Means, standard deviations, and correlations among all constructs are shown in Table 1. All the models in the study (confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation models) were run using the LISREL program (Jöreskog and Sörbom, 1999).

Insert Table 1 about here

Internal consistency and discriminant validity. We used the composite reliability (ρ_ε) to measure internal consistency of measures, which is analogous to Cronbach's α (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). Estimates of ρ_ε above .60 are considered supportive of internal consistency. The ρ_ε values for all constructs in the model are provided in the diagonal of Table 1. The ρ_ε values for all constructs were significantly higher than the stipulated criteria, and therefore indicative of good internal consistency (ρ_ε range = .75 – .97). Similar results were obtained by computing Cronbach's α for constructs that included more than two items (α range = .74 – .93) and Pearson product-moment correlations for constructs that included only two items (r range = .85 – .90).

Discriminant validity of the latent variables was evaluated using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). A CFA model was built with all the variables used in the study (8 latent constructs and a total of 28 measures). Results showed that the model fits the data well (see Hu & Bentler, 1999). The goodness-of fit indexes for the model were as follows: $\chi^2(315) = 683.55$, p = .00, RMSEA = .067, NNFI = .96, CFI = .97, and SRMR = .057.

The factor loadings (λs) for emotional intimacy at Time 1 ranged from .63 to .77, and for emotional intimacy at Time 2 ranged from .67 to .86, demonstrating good convergent validity for these measures. Similar results were obtained for Time 1 cognitive identification (λs = .88 – .96)

and Time 2 cognitive identification (λs = .91 – .96), Time 1 affective identification (λs = .91 – .99) and Time 2 affective identification (λs = .91 – .97), OCB-Is (λ range = .71 – .87), and CWB-Is (λ range = .77 – .89). In addition, the results indicate that there was a moderately high degree of stability (Heise, 1969) in EIN, cognitive identification, and affective identification over the 2-month period in each case. The stability coefficient for EIN is .58, for cognitive identification .59, and for affective identification .68.

The ϕ matrix (correlations between constructs, corrected for attenuation) is also provided in Table 1. Evidence of discriminant validity is achieved when the correlations among the latent constructs are significantly less than 1.00 (see Table 1). Because none of the confidence intervals of the ϕ-values (+/− two standard errors) included the value of one, this test provides evidence of discriminant validity (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988).

Further measure validation. To further verify the goodness of our measures, we computed internal and discriminant validity of our constructs (i.e., emotional intimacy, cognitive identification, and affective identification) using additional data from the sample of respondents that did not complete the second wave and were therefore excluded from the final analyses (n=109 after listwise deletion). A CFA model was built with all the variables available for this sample (3 latent constructs and a total of 7 measures). Results showed that the model fits the data well. The goodness-of-fit indexes for the model were as follows: the $\chi^2(11) = 11.12$, p = .00, RMSEA = .00, NNFI = 1.00, CFI = 1.00, and SRMR = .037. The ρ_ε values for all constructs were significantly higher than the stipulated criteria, and therefore indicative of good internal consistency (ρ_ε range = .75 – .95). Similar to the sample used for our main analyses, factor loadings for measures demonstrated good convergent validity. Specifically, factor loadings for EIN ranged from .63 to .79, and similar findings were found for cognitive identification (λs = .92 – 1.00) and affective identification (λs = .84 – .96). In sum, the goodness of measures used for our analyses was confirmed also in the excluded sample of respondents.

To see the effects of attrition, we also compared responses on the main variables of interest for the sample of respondents that did not complete the second wave (n=109) with the sample used for the main analyses (n=255). Employees of the excluded sample showed a slightly significant lower EIN (2.90 vs 3.14, p<.01; measured on a five-point scale) and cognitive identification (3.77 vs 4.09, p<.05; measured on a seven-point scale), while there were no differences in terms of their affective identification (5.26 vs 5.54, ns; measured on a seven-point

scale). More importantly, although the means of the variables were slightly different, the correlations between EIN and cognitive OI (r=.30, p<.001), between EIN and affective OI (r=.29, p<.001), and between cognitive OI and affective OI (r=.63, p<.001) were positive and significant, therefore replicating the findings of our main sample and attenuating possible concerns related to sample attrition.

Test of hypotheses

The effects of emotional intimacy on organizational identification

We use a panel design to examine the interrelatedness of EIN and identification with the organization. This type of design provides stronger evidence for the causal relationships between EIN and organizational identification (i.e., cognitive and affective components) than cross sectional analyses where variables are measured simultaneously (Finkel, 1995) because possible reverse causality is examined. We used structural equation modeling to test this model (LISREL 8.70; Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1999). The structural cross-lagged panel model depicts the influence of Time 1 EIN, cognitive identification, and affective identification on Time 2 EIN, cognitive identification, and affective identification. As recommended by Finkel (1995), Time 1 latent variable variances were allowed to covary. Similarly, the error variances of the variables at Time 2 were allowed to covary. In addition, we allowed for autocorrelated error variances by freeing the error covariances of the same measures administered at both Time 1 and Time 2.

Evidence concerning the influence of EIN on organizational identification is provided by statistically significant paths between Time 1 EIN and Time 2 cognitive and affective identification. Because these paths are controlled for Time 1 cognitive and affective identification, such effects are interpretable as the influence of EIN on cognitive and affective identification (Finkel, 1995). Nevertheless, to test for rival hypotheses, we also examined the effects of Time 1 cognitive and affective identification on Time 2 EIN, which, controlling for Time 1 EIN should provide evidence, if any, of the influence of cognitive and affective identification on EIN. We did not find such influence. Figure 1 gives the estimated significant paths with standardized coefficients for ease of interpretation. The overall model shows good fit to the data: $\chi^2(55) = 107.86$, p = .00, RMSEA = .058, NNFI = .98, CFI = .99, and SRMR = .062.

Insert Figure 1 about here

As predicted in Hypotheses 1 and 2, Time 1 EIN influences both Time 2 cognitive identification ($\gamma = .18$, p<.01) and Time 2 affective identification ($\gamma = .14$, p<.01). In contrast, neither cognitive identification ($\gamma = .08$, n.s.) nor affective identification ($\gamma = .09$, n.s.) influences Time 2 EIN. Further, cognitive identification at Time 1 did not influence affective identification at Time 2 ($\gamma = .07$, n.s.), and affective identification at Time 1 did not influence cognitive identification at Time 2 ($\gamma = .12$, n.s.). The model explains relatively high levels of variance for EIN ($R^2 = .42$), cognitive identification ($R^2 = .58$), and affective identification ($R^2 = .63$). In sum, consistent with Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 2, respectively, EIN influences cognitive and affective identification, and this occurs even after controlling for lagged effects of like variables. By contrast, cognitive and affective identification do not influence EIN, and thus the predicted direction of the relationship between EIN and organizational identification is supported.

The effects of emotional intimacy on collaborative behaviors

To test Hypotheses 3 and 4, we examined an extended version of the cross-lagged panel model that adds consequences of EIN (collected at Time 3, after measurement of the variables in the cross-lagged model). In this structural model, we controlled for the effects of cognitive and affective identification on OCB-Is and CWB-Is because previous research has found that these variables are related (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000; Riketta & Dick, 2005). Thus, controlling for the effects of organizational identification (i.e., when testing the effects of EIN on OCB-Is and CWB-Is) provides stronger test of the unique effects of emotional intimacy on employee collaboration. Figure 2 summarizes the paths corresponding to the main effects of Hypotheses 3 and 4. The overall model showed a good fit to the data: $\chi^2 (321) = 694.33$, p = .00, RMSEA = .067, NNFI = .96, CFI = .97, and SRMR = .060.

Insert Figure 2 about here

As it can been seen in Figure 2, Time 1 EIN influenced Time 2 cognitive identification ($\gamma = .18$, p<.001) and Time 2 affective identification with the organization ($\gamma = .14$, p<.01). The model explained moderate levels of variance for Time 2 EIN ($R^2 = .43$), Time 2 cognitive identification

($\underline{R}^2 = .58$), and Time 2 affective identification ($\underline{R}^2 = .63$). Confirming the rest of our hypotheses, we found that OCB-Is were positively and significantly related to Time 2 EIN ($\gamma = .39$, p<.001), while Time 2 cognitive identification ($\gamma = -.08$, n.s.) and Time 2 affective identification ($\gamma = .09$, n.s.) were not significantly related to OCB-Is. Similarly, CWB-Is were negatively and significantly related to Time 2 EIN ($\gamma = -.17$, p<.05), while Time 2 cognitive identification ($\gamma = -.13$, n.s.) and Time 2 affective identification ($\gamma = .05$, n.s.) were not significantly related to CWB-Is**.** The model explained significant amounts of variance for OCB-Is ($\underline{R}^2 = .16$) and CWB-Is ($\underline{R}^2 = .05$). The goodness-of-fit and results of our model remained invariant with the exclusion of direct paths from cognitive and affective identification to OCB-Is and CWB-Is ($\Delta \chi^2 (4) = 4.67$, n.s.). In addition, the effects of EIN on OCB-Is ($\gamma = .40$, p<.001) and CWB-Is ($\gamma = -.22$, p<.01) remained significant and invariant regardless of the exclusion of the paths from cognitive identification and affective identification to OCB-Is and CWB-Is.

Discussion

We examined social interactions at work through interpersonal emotional intimacy (EIN) and explored their consequences on employee perceptions and behavior. This involved examining the interplay between EIN and cognitive and affective identification, and the effects of EIN on OCB-Is and CWB-Is. Accordingly, our findings advance the literature on organizational identification and collaborative behaviors in several important ways (see mention of future research directions in Sluss et al., 2012). First, our study shifts the focus from the traditional emphasis on identification and its basis on the intrapersonal self-concept, whereby individuals identify with the organization because of such motives as self-enhancement or affiliation (Turner, 1984; Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994), to the interpersonal level. Accordingly, our results point to the importance of interpersonal processes of emotional intimacy for the creation and maintenance of organizational identification (OI). Specifically, our findings show that EIN influences employees cognitive and affective identification with the organization, rather than vice versa. These results are important because they challenge previous findings, in which group members share emotions more when they possess similar trait affectivity (George, 1990) or are committed to the group (Totterdell et al., 1998), by demonstrating that levels of emotional intimacy can also influence subsequent identification with the group.

Although not directly hypothesized, an additional contribution of our findings was to show how emotional intimacy motivated interpersonal helping in a distinct way from cognitive and affective dimensions of identification with the organization. Previous research has indeed found that organizational identification is a primary driver of employee collaboration (e.g., Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000; Riketta, 2005). Yet, our findings revealed that EIN was positively related to OCB-Is and negatively related to CWB-Is, while neither cognitive identification nor affective identification had a significant impact on these interpersonal-supporting behaviors, despite exhibiting significant bivariate correlations with them (see Table 1). These surprising results are noteworthy because they extend previous findings on the effects of OI on employee collaboration (Ellemers et al., 1999; Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000; Riketta, 2005) and suggest that EIN may represent an important variable to consider or control for when examining the consequences of OI.

Overall, by investigating the consequences of EIN, our study responds to the call by Dutton et al. (2006) to consider "how features of an organizational context encourage and enable emotional expression, public emotional displays, and emotion-based responses, all of which contribute to compassion organizing" (p. 85). Specifically, our study contributes to a deeper understanding of compassion activation within the organization. Indeed, while dramatic or exceptional events might clearly signal someone's pain and activate appropriate compassion responses, such as in the case of the fire that destroyed the home of three students described by Dutton and colleagues (2006), attending to "everyday" co-members less acute suffering requires a social structure that supports more open sharing of emotions and associated interpretations and enables individuals to notice even subtle signals of pain or distress.

Limitations, Future Research, and Practical Implications

Although the present study makes a number of contributions to the existing literature, its findings need to be treated with caution. Because we conducted a survey research, our results may be subject to common method biases. Two factors reduced such threats. First, we used supervisor ratings for the two dependent variables (i.e., OCB-Is and CWB-Is), which reduces the likelihood of misrepresentations or social desirability biases and reduces considerably the possibility of method bias inflating the findings for effects on the dependent variables. Second, we adopted a three-wave panel design for our data collection. This type of design provides stronger evidence for causal relationships between constructs than cross-sectional studies where

variables are measured simultaneously (Finkel, 1995). Additionally, in testing a cross-lagged panel model, we assessed the effects of EIN on cognitive and affective identification and ruled out the preliminary evidence of reverse causation. Nevertheless, future research should complement these findings by investigating the interrelatedness of EIN and identification in a controlled experimental setting. Further, within the organizational context, future studies should consider investigating the long-term effects of EIN by studying employees from the beginning of their organizational entry, when their identification with the organization is not yet fully developed (see Sluss et al., 2012).

Another possible limitation is that we did not investigate the specific content or the emotional valence of what employees disclosed through EIN (e.g., Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2005). In this regard, our findings show that regardless of what has been specifically shared among employees (e.g., negative or positive events), the general feeling of intimacy among colleagues seems sufficient for enacting organizational identification and collaborative behaviors. Yet, the valence of the emotions and the type of topics shared could represent fruitful avenues for future research in that they may help reveal boundary conditions and precise mechanisms underlying the effectiveness of intimacy. For example, the sharing of self-conscious emotions such as shame or negative events (e.g., a mistake made) with others may benefit the discloser through the release of emotional tension (i.e., catharsis; Omarzu, 2000), while the disclosing of pride and positive events may increase feelings of prestige associated with organizational membership (e.g., Dutton et al., 1994).

Another concern regards the fact that employee emotional intimacy was inferred (i.e., measured by reported levels of emotions shared with colleagues) rather than directly assessed by a specific question. While this approach has the advantage of reducing possible social desirability biases through indirect questioning, it leaves open the question of whether the sharing of emotions is always felt as an act of intimacy. Thus, future research should specifically measure employees' felt intimacy experienced in sharing emotions.

In addition, there are inherent risks involved in revealing information about oneself to another (e.g., loss of control or self-efficacy, reduction of one's integrity, and rejection by the listener; Baxter & Montgomery, 1996; Gibson, 2018). According to Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman (1995), individuals are more willing to incur these risks when they perceive contextual trustworthiness, in terms of benevolence and integrity. Thus, future studies should

investigate the organizational antecedents of emotional intimacy, such as organizational emotional trustworthiness and organizational emotional authenticity (see the literature on emotional capabilities; Huy 1999, 2002).

The authentic expression of emotions is often discouraged in many workplaces. Yet, our findings show that heightened intimacy among employees can improve collaboration and reduce conflict. Managers should therefore encourage employees to share their positive emotions among each other. Similarly, fostering emotional intimacy can help to relieve the effects of negative emotions. For example, customer service employees or nurses are expected to suppress their negative feelings when interacting with external stakeholders (e.g., customers or patients). In these instances, sharing repressed negative emotions with colleagues can help employees to vent frustration, reduce the stress associated with it, and eventually receive interpersonal help.

Accordingly, an important avenue for future research deals with the role of leadership in enhancing or suppressing EIN among organizational members. Leaders are usually the focus of attention of employees and represent role models who provide inspiration, and thus they are important catalysts of group emotion (e.g., Pescosolido, 2002). Through symbolic leadership, leaders can facilitate employee self-disclosure and influence how people notice others' emotional struggles and respond accordingly (e.g., Dutton et al, 2006).

Future research could also investigate the effects of EIN on employees' collaborative behaviors by using social network analysis (SNA). Within large and flat organizations, the use of SNA techniques permits scholars to identify informal cliques (i.e., groups of employees fully connected through EIN) and compare their internal level of collaboration with other formal or informal groups within the organization. In addition, it would be useful to measure shared intimacy by self and by others, as this could differ across relationships in the organization and differentially affect OCBs, CWBs, and other behaviors.

The context of our study—an organization in the public sector (a hospital)—may also limit the generalizability of our findings. For example, although professional and organizational identification differ in their antecedents and effects (see Hekman, Bigley, Steensma, & Hereford, 2009; Hekman, Steensma, Bigley, & Hereford, 2009), the relationship between OI and EIN might also be indirectly influenced by the professional identification of nurses. Future research should investigate similar phenomena in private companies where high levels of vocational commitment are not granted. In addition, our study context may have contained particularistic

organizational norms advocating the expression and mutual understanding of emotions. Similarly, many nurses work in stable teams (i.e., without shift rotation), and this might facilitate strong emotional and intimate interconnections among them. Thus, differences in the level of EIN likely exist across organizations and constitute interesting boundary conditions for future studies. There is evidence, however, that emotional expression is nevertheless pervasive among different types of organizations and industries, spanning from higher education to financial and engineering (see the additional study on the emotional culture of companionate love presented in the discussion by Barsade and O'Neill, 2014, p. 584).

We also note that the large majority of our sample was constituted by women, which may represent a bias in view of interpersonal sensitivity (Montgomery, Kane, & Vance, 2004). That is, the proclivity to interpret and share emotions may vary depending on gender, due to women's possible heightened sensitivity to social relations and affect compared to that of men. In addition, women are more likely than men to engage in self-disclosure and express a wider range of emotions (Martin, Knopoff, & Beckman, 1998). Although our research was performed in a setting where women greatly outnumber men, future research should address this issue by comparing differences between men and women in other settings. Overall, although EIN more likely flourishes in organizations that employ large proportions of women, we believe that our findings on the role of employees' emotion-based social interactions for identification processes and in-group favoritism can be applied to and replicated in many organizational settings.

Despite the potential benefits of fostering EIN, future research should investigate more systematically how an open approach to EIN can cause problems for both organizations and their members. For instance, complying with demands to share authentic emotions can itself become an oppressive form of emotion labor for those who are not comfortable with self-disclosure (Martin, Knopoff, & Beckman, 1998; Elfenbein, 2007). Emotional discretion can help people protect their privacy and prevent others from intruding into their inner or private selves, and this represents an important defensive mechanism for individuals who prefer more impersonality and emotional reserve at work. Thus, the relationships amongst EIN, human dignity, and needs for privacy deserve further study. It is also possible that cultural differences may favor or discourage authentic emotional expressions at work. For example, whereas Western cultures tend to reward individuals who are assertive and outgoing and devalue those who are more reserved, other cultures (e.g., in Japan or Korea) may consider extraverted individuals as emotionally immature

or disruptive in work settings. Respect of cultural diversity related to EIN is important for organizations with growing multicultural workforces. Likewise, as cultural diversity increases within organizations, the likelihood that people from different cultural orientations will interact with each other will also increase. Such intercultural exchanges should be studied as they impact EIN.

Future studies can also investigate whether too much EIN at work could produce harmful outcomes. To start, sharing emotions occupies cognitive capacity, including attention, reasoning, and memory (Clore, Schwarz, & Conway, 1994; Schwarz, 1990). Dealing with emotions requires high levels of psychological resources, which can distract individuals from their tasks, and, in the long run, even lower their sensitivity to others' feelings. Thus, an excess of EIN could compromise organizational functioning and interpersonal compassion. Research should consider boundary-permeability norms. According to Lilius et al. (2011), these norms reflect a collective understanding of how much sharing of emotions is appropriate in a particular situation. Boundary norms reflect the dynamic permeability between work and private life and allow employees to adjust their EIN in ways that guard against excess demands for compassion, fatigue, and task inefficiency.

Conclusion

To conclude, the growing presence of social media technologies is blurring the boundaries between work and nonwork life. Employees increasingly come to experience intimacy with colleagues in the workplace, and organizations will need to learn how to harness these employees' emotional processes. Our study complements advances made by previous scholars on this topic and introduces an important social phenomenon—emotional intimacy—that has been underexplored in shaping the relationship between individuals and their organization but has also implications for employee well-being and organization performance.

References

Allen, N. and Meyer, J. (1996). Affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization: An examination of construct validity. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 49(3), 252-276.

Andersson, L. and Pearson, C. (1999). Tit for tat? The spiraling effect of incivility in the workplace. Academy of Management Review, 24(3), 452-471.

Aron, A. and Aron, E. 1986. *Love and the expansion of self: understanding attraction and satisfaction*. New York: Hemisphere.

Ashforth, B. E., Harrison, S. H., and Corley, K. G. (2008). Identification in organizations: An examination of four fundamental questions. Journal of Management, 34(3), 325.

Ashforth, B. E. and Mael, F. (1989). Social identity theory and the organization. Academy of Management Review, 14(1), 20-39.

Bagozzi, R. P., Bergami, M., Marzocchi, G. L., and Morandin, G. (2012). Customer–organization relationships: Development and test of a theory of extended identities. Journal of Applied Psychology, 97(1), 63-76.

Bagozzi, R. P. and Lee, K. H. (2002). Multiple routes for social influence: The role of compliance, internalization, and social identity. Social Psychology Quarterly, 65(3), 226-247.

Bagozzi, R. P. and Yi, Y. (1988). On the evaluation of structural equation models. Journal of the academy of marketing science, 16(1), 74-94.

Bakker, A. B., and Demerouti, E. (2008). Towards a model of work engagement. Career development international, 13(3), 209-223.

Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., and Schaufeli, W. B. (2005). The crossover of burnout and work engagement among working couples. Human relations, 58(5), 661-689.

Barbulescu, R. and Ibarra, H. (2007). Identity as narrative: Overcoming identity gaps during work role transitions, Working paper. France: INSEAD.

Barsade, S. G. (2002). The ripple effect: Emotional contagion and its influence on group behavior. Administrative Science Quarterly, 47(4), 644-675.

Barsade, S. G., & O'Neill, O. A. (2014). What's love got to do with it? A longitudinal study of the culture of companionate love and employee and client outcomes in a long-term care setting. Administrative Science Quarterly, 59(4), 551-598.

Bennett, R. J. and Robinson, S. L. (2000). Development of a measure of workplace deviance. Journal of Applied Psychology, 85(3), 349.

Bergami, M. and Bagozzi, R. P. (2000). Self-categorization, affective commitment and group self-esteem as distinct aspects of social identity in the organization. British Journal of Social Psychology, 39(4), 555–577.

Boss, R. W. (1983). Team building and the problem of regression: the personal management interview as an intervention. The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 19(1), 67-83

Bowlby, J. (1969). Attachment and loss. New York: Basic Books.

Brickson, S. L. (2013). Athletes, best friends, and social activists: an integrative model accounting for the role of identity in organizational identification. Organization Science, 24(1), 226-245.

Christ, O., Dick, R., Wagner, U., and Stellmacher, J. (2003). When teachers go the extra mile: Foci of organisational identification as determinants of different forms of organisational citizenship behaviour among schoolteachers. British Journal of Educational Psychology, 73(3), 329-341.

Clore, G. L., Schwarz, N., and Conway, M. (1994). Affective causes and consequences of social information processing. In R. S. Wyer and T. K. Srull (Eds.), Handbook of social cognition, Vol. 1: 323-417. Hillside, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Collins, N. L. and Miller, L. C. (1994). Self-disclosure and liking: a meta-analytic review. Psychological Bulletin; Psychological Bulletin, 116(3), 457.

Cooper, D. and Thatcher, S. M. B. (2010). Identification in organizations: The role of self-concept orientations and identification motives. Academy of Management Review, 35(4), 516-538.

Davis, M. H. (1983). Measuring individual differences in empathy: Evidence for a multidimensional approach. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 44: 113-126.

Duffy, M. K., Ganster, D. C., Shaw, J. D., Johnson, J. L., and Pagon, M. (2006). The social context of undermining behavior at work. Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 101(1), 105-126.

Dukerich, J., Golden, B., and Shortell, S. (2002). Beauty is in the eye of the beholder: the impact of organizational identification, identity, and image on the cooperative behaviors of physicians. Administrative Science Quarterly, 47(3), 507-537.

Dutton, J. E., Dukerich, J. M., and Harquail, C. V. (1994). Organizational images and member identification. Administrative Science Quarterly, 39(2), 239-263.

Dutton, J. E., Worline, M. C., Frost, P. J., and Lilius, J. M. (2006). Explaining compassion organizing. Administrative Science Quarterly, 51(1), 59-96.

Elfenbein, H. A. (2007). Emotion in Organizations. Academy of Management Annals, 1(1), 315-386.

Ellemers, N., Kortekaas, P., and Ouwerkerk, J. W. (1999). Self- categorisation, commitment to the group and group self- esteem as related but distinct aspects of social identity. European Journal of Social Psychology, 29(2- 3), 371-389.

Elstak, M. N., Bhatt, M., Van Riel, C., Pratt, M. G., & Berens, G. A. (2015). Organizational Identification during a Merger: The Role of Self-Enhancement and Uncertainty Reduction Motives during a Major Organizational Change. Journal of Management Studies, 52(1), 32-62.

Farmer, S. M., Van Dyne, L., & Kamdar, D. (2015). The Contextualized Self: How Team–Member Exchange Leads to Coworker Identification and Helping OCB. Journal of Applied Pscychology, 100(2), 583-595,

Festinger, L. (1957). A theory of cognitive dissonance. Stanford: CA.

Finkel, S. (1995). Causal analysis with panel data. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Fiol, C. M. (2002). Capitalizing on paradox: The role of language in transforming organizational identities. Organization Science, 13(6), 653-666.

Fiol, C. M. and O'Connor, E. J. (2005). Identification in face-to-face, hybrid, and pure virtual teams: Untangling the contradictions. Organization Science, 16(1), 19-32.

Foreman, P. and Whetten, D. (2002). Members' identification with multiple-identity organizations. Organization Science, 13(6), 618-635.

Gable, S. L., Reis, H. T., Impett, E. A., and Asher, E. R. (2004). What do you do when things go right? The intrapersonal and interpersonal benefits of sharing positive events. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 87: 228–245.

George, J. M. (1990). Personality, affect, and behavior in groups. Journal of Applied Psychology, 75(2), 107.

Gibson, K. R. (2018). Can I tell you something? How disruptive self-disclosure changes who "we" are. Academy of Management Review, 43(4), 570-589.

Gioia, D. A. and Chittipeddi, K. (1991). Sensemaking and sensegiving in strategic change initiation. Strategic Management Journal, 12(6), 433-448.

Gutierrez, B., Howard-Grenville, J., and Scully, M. A. (2010). The faithful rise up: Split identification and an unlikely change effort. Academy of Management Journal, 53(4), 673-699.

Hareli, S., and Rafaeli, A. (2008). Emotion cycles: On the social influence of emotion in organizations. Research in Organizational Behavior, 28: 35–59.

Hatfield, E., Cacioppo, J. T., and Rapson, R. L. (1993). Emotional contagion. Current Directions in Psychological Science, 2(3), 96-100.

Heaphy, E. D., Byron, K., Ballinger, G. A., Gittell, J. H., Leana, C., & Sluss, D. M. (2018). Introduction to Special Topic Forum: The Changing Nature of Work Relationships. Academy of Management Review, 43(4), 558-569.

Heise, D. R. (1969). Separating reliability and stability in test-retest correlation. American Sociological Review, 34(1), 93-101.

Hekman, D. R., Bigley, G. A., Steensma, H. K., and Hereford, J. F. (2009). Combined effects of organizational and professional identification on the reciprocity dynamic for professional employees. Academy of Management Journal, 52(3), 506-526.

Hekman, D. R., Steensma, H. K., Bigley, G. A., & Hereford, J. F. (2009). Effects of organizational and professional identification on the relationship between administrators' social influence and professional employees' adoption of new work behavior. Journal of Applied Psychology, 94(5), 1325.

Herman, H. M., & Chiu, W. C. (2014). Transformational leadership and job performance: A social identity perspective. Journal of Business Research, 67(1), 2827-2835.

Hochschild, A. R. (1983). The managed heart: Commercialization of human feeling. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.

Hu, L. T. and Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff Criteria for Fit Indexes in Covariance Structure Analysis: Conventional Criteria versus New Alternatives. Structural equation modeling, 6(1), 1-55.

Huy, Q. N. (1999). Emotional capability, emotional intelligence, and radical change. Academy of Management Review, 24(2), 325-345.

Huy, Q. N. (2002). Emotional balancing of organizational continuity and radical change: The contribution of middle managers. Administrative Science Quarterly, 47(1), 31-69.

Huy, Q. N. (2011). How middle managers' group- focus emotions and social identities influence strategy implementation. Strategic Management Journal, 32(13), 1387-1410.

Ibarra, H. (1999). Provisional selves: Experimenting with image and identity in professional adaptation. Administrative Science Quarterly, 44(4), 764-791.

James, K. and Greenberg, J. (1989). In-group salience, intergroup comparison, and individual performance and self-esteem. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 15(4), 604-616.

Jöreskog, K. G. and Sörbom, D. (1999). LISREL 8.30. Chicago: Scientific Software International.

Laurenceau, J. P., Barrett, L. F., & Pietromonaco, P. R. (1998). Intimacy as an interpersonal process: The importance of self-disclosure, partner disclosure, and perceived partner responsiveness in interpersonal exchanges. Journal of personality and social psychology, 74(5), 1238.

Lazarus, R. S. (1991). Emotion and adaptation. Oxford: UK.

Lee, K. and Allen, N. J. (2002). Organizational citizenship behavior and workplace deviance: The role of affect and cognitions. Journal of Applied Psychology, 87(1), 131-142.

Levinson, H. (1965). Reciprocation: The relationship between man and organization. Administrative Science Quarterly, 9(4), 370-390.

Lewin, K. (1943). Defining the 'field at a given time'. Psychological review, 50(3), 292.

Lilius, J. M., Worline, M. C., Dutton, J. E., Kanov, J. M., and Maitlis, S. (2011). Understanding compassion capability. Human Relations, 64(7), 873-899.

Livingstone, A. G., Spears, R., Manstead, A. S. R., Bruder, M., and Shepherd, L. (2011). We feel, therefore we are: Emotion as a basis for self-categorization and social action. Emotion, 11(4), 754-767.

Mael, F. and Ashforth, B. E. (1992). Alumni and Their Alma Mater: A Partial Test of the Reformulated Model of Organizational Identification. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 13(2), 103-123.

Martin, J., Knopoff, K., and Beckman, C. (1998). An alternative to bureaucratic impersonality and emotional labor: Bounded emotionality at The Body Shop. Administrative Science Quarterly, 43(2), 429-469.

Montgomery, K., Kane, K., and Vance, C. M. (2004). Accounting for differences in norms of respect. Group and Organization Management, 29(2), 248-268.

Mumby, D. K. and Putnam, L. L. (1992). The politics of emotion: A feminist reading of bounded rationality. Academy of Management Review, 17(3), 465-486.

Ng, T. W. (2015). The incremental validity of organizational commitment, organizational trust, and organizational identification. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 88, 154-163.

Niedenthal, P. M. and Brauer, M. (2012). Social Functionality of Human Emotion. Annual Review of Psychology, 63: 259-285.

Pescosolido, A. T. (2002). Emergent leaders as managers of group emotion. Leadership Quarterly, 13: 583–599.

Peters, K. and Kashima, Y. (2007). From social talk to social action: Shaping the social triad with emotional intimacy. Journal of personality and social psychology, 93(5), 780-797.

Pratt, M. G. (1998). To be or not to be: Central questions in organizational identification. In D. A. Whetten and P. C. Godfrey (Eds.), Identity in organizations: Building theory through conversations: 171-207. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Pratt, M. G. (2000). The good, the bad, and the ambivalent: Managing identification among Amway distributors. Administrative Science Quarterly, 45(3), 456-493.

Pratt, M. G., Rockmann, K. W., and Kaufmann, J. B. (2006). Constructing professional identity: The role of work and identity learning cycles in the customization of identity among medical residents. Academy of Management Journal, 49(2), 235-262.

Reis, H. T. and Patrick, B. C. (1996). Attachment and intimacy: Component processes. In E. T. Higgins and A. W. Kruglanski (Eds.), Social psychology: Handbook of basic principles (pp. 523–563). . NewYork: Guilford.

Riketta, M. and Dick, R. V. (2005). Foci of attachment in organizations: A meta-analytic comparison of the strength and correlates of workgroup versus organizational identification and commitment. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 67(3), 490-510.

Rimé, B. (2009). Emotion Elicits the Social Sharing of Emotion: Theory and Empirical Review. Emotion Review, 1(1), 60-85.

Robinson, S. L. and Bennett, R. J. (1995). A typology of deviant workplace behaviors: A multidimensional scaling study. Academy of Management Journal, 38(2), 555-572.

Robinson, S. L. and O'Leary-Kelly, A. M. (1998). Monkey see, monkey do: The influence of work groups on the antisocial behavior of employees. Academy of Management Journal, 41(6), 658-672.

Rosenthal, R., Hall, J. A., DiMatteo, M. R., Rogers, P. L., and Archer, D. (1979). Sensitivity to nonverbal communication: The PONS test. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press.

Sandelands, L. and St Clair, L. (1993). Toward an empirical concept of group. Journal for the theory of social behaviour, 23(4), 423-458.

Schneider, B. (1987). The people make the place. Personnel Psychology, 40(3), 437-453.

Schwarz, N. (1990). Feelings as information: Informational and motivational functions of affective states. In E. T. Higgins and R. M. Sorrentino (Eds.), Handbook of motivation and cognition: Foundations of social behavior 527–561. New York: Guilford Press.

Schwarz, N. and Clore, G. L. (1988). How do I feel about it? The information function of affective states. In K. Fiedler and J. Forgas (Eds.), Affect, cognition and social behavior: 44–62. Lewinston, NY: Hogrefe.

Simon, H. A. (1947). Administrative behavior. New York: Free Press.

Sluss, D. M. and Ashforth, B. E. (2007). Relational identity and identification: Defining ourselves through work relationships. Academy of Management Review, 32(1), 9-32.

Sluss, D. M. and Ashforth, B. E. (2008). How Relational and Organizational Identification Converge: Processes and Conditions. Organization Science, 19(6), 807-823.

Sluss, D. M., Klimchak, M., & Holmes, J. J. (2008). Perceived organizational support as a mediator between relational exchange and organizational identification. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 73(3), 457-464.

Sluss, D. M., Ployhart, R. E., Cobb, G. M., and Ashforth, B. E. (2012). Generalizing Newcomers Relational and Organizational Identifications: Processes and Prototypicality. Academy of Management Journal, 55(4).

Smith, C., Organ, D. W., and Near, J. P. (1983). Organizational citizenship behavior: Its nature and antecedents. Journal of Applied Psychology, 68(4), 653.

Smith, C. A. and Ellsworth, P. C. (1985). Patterns of cognitive appraisal in emotion. Journal of personality and social psychology, 48(4), 813.

Spoor, J. R., and Kelly, J. R. (2004). The evolutionary significance of affect in groups: Communication and group bonding. Group Processes and Intergroup Relations, 7: 398–412.

Stephens, J. P., Heaphy, E., & Dutton, J. E. (2011). High quality connections. The Oxford handbook of positive organizational scholarship, 385-399.

Tajfel, H. (1978). Social categorization, social identity and social comparison. In H. Tajfel (Ed.), Differentiation between social groups: Studies in the psychology of intergroup relations 61-76. London, UK: Academic Press.

Tajfel, H., Billig, M. G., Bundy, R. P., and Flament, C. (1971). Social categorization and intergroup behaviour. European Journal of Social Psychology, 1(2), 149-178.

Totterdell, P., Kellett, S., Teuchmann, K., and Briner, R. B. (1998). Evidence of mood linkage in work groups. Journal of personality and social psychology, 74(6), 1504.

Turner, J. C. (1984). Social identification and psychological group formation. In H. Tajifel (Ed.), The social dimension: European developments in social psychology, Vol. 2: 518-538. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Turner, J. C., Hogg, M. A., Oakes, P. J., Reicher, S. D., and Wetherell, M. S. (1987). Rediscovering the social group: A self-categorization theory. Oxford, UK: Blackwell.

Van Kleef, G. A. (2009). How Emotions Regulate Social Life The Emotions as Social Information (EASI) Model. Current Directions in Psychological Science, 18(3), 184-188.

Van Knippenberg, D. (2000). Work motivation and performance: A social identity perspective. Applied psychology, 49(3), 357-371.

Weick, K. E. (1995). Sensemaking in organizations. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Weick, K. E. and Roberts, K. H. (1993). Collective mind in organizations: Heedful interrelating on flight decks. Administrative Science Quarterly, 38(3), 357-381.

Willer, R., Flynn, F., and Zak, S. (2012). Structure, Identity, and Solidarity A Comparative Field Study of Generalized and Direct Exchange. Administrative Science Quarterly, 57(1), 119-155.

Williams, M. (2007). Building genuine trust through interpersonal emotion management: A threat regulation model of trust and collaboration across boundaries. Academy of Management Review, 32(2), 595-621.

Xenikou, A. (2014). The cognitive and affective components of organisational identification:

    The role of perceived support values and charismatic leadership. Applied

    Psychology, 63(4), 567-588.

TABLE 1

Descriptive Statistics, Composite Reliabilities, and Correlations

|	Mean	s.d.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Emotional intimacy Time 1	3.14	.95	.75							
2. Emotional intimacy Time 2	3.17	.97	.64***	.79						
3. Cognitive Identification Time 1	4.09	1.34	.36***	.34***	.97					
4. Cognitive Identification Time 2	4.24	1.28	.44***	.49***	.73***	.93				
5. Affective Identification Time 1	5.54	1.27	.34***	.34***	.66***	.57***	.95			
6. Affective Identification Time 2	5.64	1.22	.41***	.52***	.57***	.73***	.78***	.94		
7. OCB-Is Time 3	4.22	.65	.25**	.40***	.13*	.19**	.26***	.22**	.93	
8. CWB-Is Time 3	1.70	.85	-.17*	-.22**	-.12	-.18**	-.15*	-.12	-.60***	.93

Note: composite reliability values for all the variables are shown along the diagonal. $\underline{N}$=255

*p< .05, **p< .01, ***p<.001

Author Manuscript

FIGURE 1

**The interrelatedness of identification with the organization and emotional intimacy**

Time 1   Time 2

Cognitive Identification → .59*** → Cognitive Identification $R^2 = .58$

Emotional Intimacy → .18** → (Cognitive Identification)

Emotional Intimacy → .58*** → Emotional Intimacy $R^2 = .42$

Emotional Intimacy → .14** → (Affective Identification)

Affective Identification → .68*** → Affective Identification $R^2 = .63$
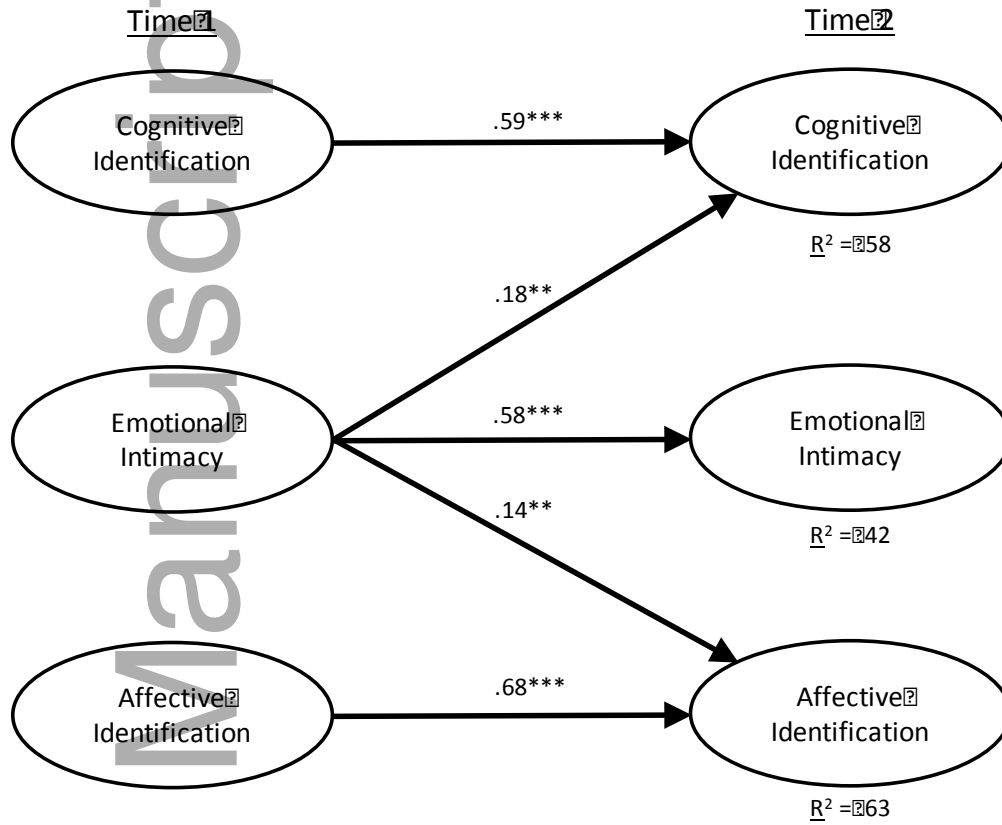
Note: only significant paths are reported.

*p< .05, **p< .01, ***p<.001.

FIGURE 2

Interpersonal Consequences of Emotional intimacy
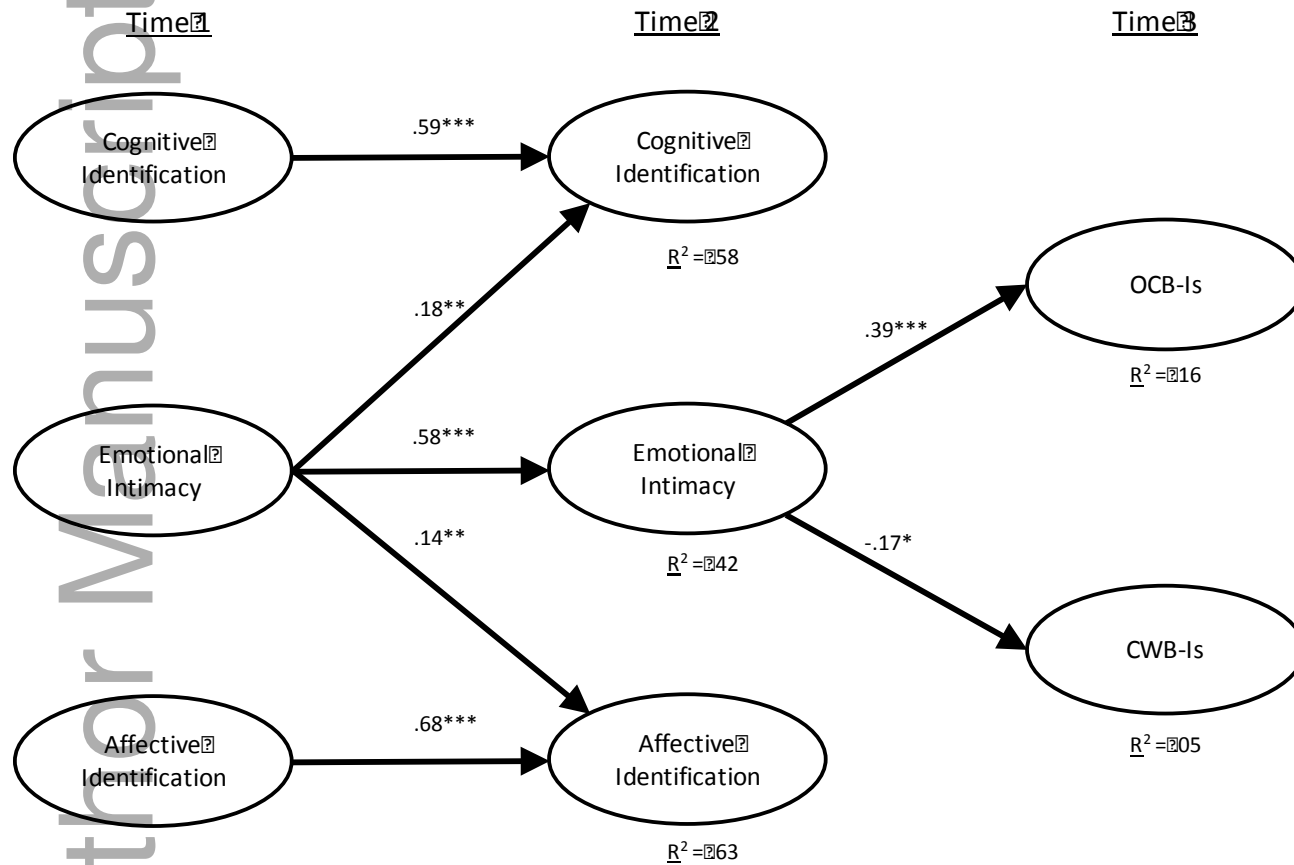
Note: only significant paths are reported.

*p< .05, **p< .01, ***p<.001.

APPENDIX

Figure 1A

Visual Measure of Cognitive Identification

Me **My Organization**

A — No overlap

B — Very small overlap

C — Small overlap

D — Moderate overlap

E — Much overlap

F — Near complete overlap