

THE INFLUENCE OF EMOTION REGULATION ON JOB OUTCOMES

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ABSTRACT

Research has suggested that emotion regulation plays a crucial role in work settings. However, few studies have investigated the possibility of enhancing job outcomes through modifying emotion regulation behaviour. Thus, three studies were conducted. Study 1 involved 230 employees from charitable organizations, while Studies 2 and 3 involved 41 and 45 employees from two of the organizations. In Study 1, participants completed a questionnaire containing measures of emotion regulation, job performance, well-being, commitment, and relationships. Regression analysis showed that different types of emotion regulation strategies influence different kinds of job outcomes, and some of these relationships were moderated by the value placed on particular aspects of job outcomes. Study 2 used an implementation intentions intervention, in which half the participants formed If-Then plans concerning feelings arising from their job and the other half were a control group. Study 3 used a construal-level intervention in which half the sample formed a high-level (*Why*) construal and the other half a low-level (*How*) construal. In both intervention studies, participants completed a pre-post questionnaire, a daily diary for one month, and a follow-up questionnaire after eight months. Multi-level modelling analysis was used to analyse the diary data while ANOVA analysis was used to analyse the pre-post and follow-up data. The results suggested that both interventions significantly enhanced emotion regulation factors as well as most of the job outcomes. More precisely, improving one's own and others' emotions were found to be the most consistent mediators for the effect of the interventions on job outcomes such. It should also be noted that the effects of the interventions on emotion regulation and most of the job outcomes were increased by the time of the follow-up. These findings provide a basis for understanding and enhancing emotion regulation and job outcomes in the workplace.

Chapter One

INTRODUCTION

Emotion has been recognised as a key aspect of employees' work life. Scholars consider emotion as a set of phenomenological, physiological, and facial expressions that are related to the appraisal of situations (Gross, 1998; Levenson, 1999). Employees, for example, experience feelings of joy, happiness, love, anger, sadness, or guilt while doing what they have to do at work (Frijda, 1986). The role of emotions has largely been ignored in organisational literature until recent times (Arvey, Renz & Watson, 1998), mainly because industrial and organisational environments were viewed as rational environments where emotions and feelings had no place. However, in recent years it has been shown that emotions are powerful generators of individuals' actions and thoughts at work (Frijda, 1986). In addition, how employees regulate their own and others' emotions at work appear to play a key role in influencing organisational behaviour. This association is the focus of investigation in this thesis.

Emotion regulation has been characterised as a set of control processes that modify how, where, when, and which emotions individuals express and experience (Gross, 1998). Two reasons highlight the importance of emotion regulation in the workplace: First, Frijda (1986) argued that actions and thoughts in the workplace can be affected either positively or negatively by emotions. It is believed that people have some control over most aspects of emotional processing, such as how attention is affected by emotion (Rothermund, Voss & Wentura, 2008), and can therefore use this control to influence their actions and thoughts. Second, emotion regulation has been linked to certain important outcomes such as job performance (Goldberg & Grandey, 2007; Goodman et al., 2008), social relationships (Brackett & Salovey, 2004), organisational commitment (Nelis, Quoidbach, Mikolajczak &

Hansenne, 2009), and well-being (Makikangas, Feldt & Kinnunen, 2007; Petrides, Pita & Kokkinaki, 2007). Accordingly, emotion regulation in the workplace has been studied widely over the past two decades (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Yongmei, 2006) because it has potential practical implications for important job outcomes.

Despite the impressive studies that scholars have carried out investigating how people regulate emotions at work, some critical issues remain. First, occupational research has primarily focused on self-regulation (i.e., controlling one's own emotions). In addition, scholars have primarily focused on using emotional expression to alter others' emotions (Niven, Totterdell & Holman, 2009). However, there has been little investigation of other forms of interpersonal emotion regulation. Moreover, most scholars have focused on how people improve their own or others' emotions. However, people also tend to worsen their own or other's emotions (Niven, Totterdell, Stride & Holman, 2011). Hence, the current thesis will contribute to the literature by addressing how people positively and negatively regulate their own as well as others' emotions at work. So doing should enrich our understanding about the role of emotions at work.

Second, no studies have addressed the association between emotion regulation and a range of job outcomes (i.e., job performance, work relationship, organisational commitment, and job well-being) such that all of these relationships are studied at the same time. For example, most studies only assessed the association between emotion regulation and job performance or job well-being alone; however, as far as I know, no study has investigated the relationship between emotion regulation and the four main job outcomes mentioned previously at the same time and among the same sample. Knowing how each emotion regulation factor is associated with each job outcome could improve scholars' understanding of the influence of emotions regulation in the workplace. In addition, it may help organisations in devising training programs by showing, for example, that employees who

tend to positively regulate others' emotion are more likely to have better relationship with others. Thus, organisations could train their employees, especially those who work in customer service, on how to regulate others' emotions more positively. This point leads to the next critical issue in the literature.

Third, people tend to augment or reduce their use of emotion according to their values and personal goals too (Trope & Liberman, 2010). However, to date, only one study was found that tested an emotion regulation intervention in the workplace. Totterdell and Parkinson (1999) used an engagement and a distraction strategy as a training intervention in order to enhance mood regulation among trainee teachers. Thus, the literature still lacks studies that assess how to enhance emotion regulation using an experimental design. As a result, the current thesis will propose two interventions that will enhance the use of improving emotion regulation strategies and reduce the use of worsening emotion regulation strategies. The first proposed intervention is implementation intentions. Implementation intentions are described as if-then plans that link specified situational cues with responses that are effective in attaining desired outcomes or goals (e.g., "If situation X arises, then I will respond by doing Y!") (Gollwitzer & Sheeran, 2006). The second intervention involves a manipulation of construal levels. Scholars have distinguished two levels of construal that people use in order to deal with events. High-level construals are more likely to involve abstract, coherent, and super-ordinate goals; while low-level construals are more specific by including contextual and subordinate features or the "irrelevant goals" of events. Thus, the current thesis will seek to use these particular interventions to modify emotion regulation.

Fourth, it is unknown whether modifying people's regulation of emotion can have a sustainable impact on job outcomes such as job performance and well-being? To answer this question, an experimental longitudinal research design is needed. In fact, no experimental study with a long-term follow-up was found to have answered this question. Thus, the current

thesis will aim to answer this question through experimental longitudinal research design using a daily diary study within two organisations for one month, an experimental manipulation within those studies, a pre-post questionnaire in each case, and a follow-up survey after 8 months. If the interventions were successful, it would open up the possibility for introducing changes at work that can enhance employees' well-being and performance. Thus, this thesis will test two promising interventions that have not been used for this purpose before.

By addressing these four critical issues, the current thesis aims to increase our understanding about the role of emotion regulation at work. In addition, organisations could benefit from the finding, e.g., using the design of the interventions as the basis for training. Thus, the current thesis is mainly aimed at achieving the following objectives: (i) to propose a model of association between emotion regulation and job outcome; (ii) to examine how various types of emotion regulation strategies influence different kinds of job outcome; (iii) to investigate whether an implementation intention intervention can promote effective use of emotion regulation strategies in order to enhance job outcomes; (iv) to investigate whether a construal level intervention can promote effective use of emotion regulation strategies in order to enhance job outcomes; and (v) to examine whether the effects of the interventions on emotion regulation and job outcomes are sustained a number of months after the interventions.

The first and second objectives will be achieved through a cross-sectional survey that involved 230 employees from the biggest charitable organisations in Kuwait. The last three objectives will be assessed through two experimental longitudinal studies conducted in two charity organisations in Kuwait that involved about 40 participants in each study.

Overview of the Thesis

The thesis comprises six chapters: this is the first chapter, *the Introduction Chapter*, and it introduces the main research aims and the overview of the thesis. The second chapter is titled *Emotion in the Workplace*. This chapter is a literature review of emotion regulation and its association with job outcomes. Chapter three, the *First Study Chapter*, describes the first study which mainly aims at examining the association between emotion regulation and the job outcomes. The fourth and fifth chapters describe the two experimental longitudinal studies which assess the respective impact of implementation intentions and construal levels in enhancing emotion regulation and thus improving job outcomes. Finally, the thesis concludes with the sixth chapter, the *General Discussion and Conclusion Chapter*, which seeks to discuss the general findings and draw out the contributions of this research. The next paragraphs will describe the structure of the thesis by setting out what each chapter will cover.

The Second Chapter

The second chapter presents a review of research concerning the mechanisms of emotion regulation. What is emotion and what is emotion regulation? What is the core of emotion? How do people regulate their emotions and is there a specific process or model that explains this issue? Are there strategies people can use to regulate their own and others' emotions? These questions are examples of some of the issues that are covered in this chapter. In addition, the chapter aims to illustrate the impact of emotion regulation in the workplace. How does emotion theoretically and practically affect job outcomes such as job performance, work relationship, organisational commitment, and job well-being? Finally, the chapter explores how emotion regulation could be enhanced and how this enhancement might impact upon job outcomes. What are the factors that affect enhancing emotion? And what is

the best practical experimental design for achieving this enhancement? Thus, these are the main aims of this chapter.

The chapter starts with a definition of emotion. Although emotion has been widely studied in the field of psychology, a consensual definition of emotion is still lacking (Yongmei, 2006) as scholars from different backgrounds define emotion in different ways. After that, the chapter introduces the similarities and differences between emotion and other emotional states. It is an important step as it could increase our understanding of emotions. Then, more details about the core features of emotion are discussed, i.e., personal goals, comprehensive affect, automatic/deliberate emotion.

Next, the chapter addresses more specifically the term ‘emotion regulation’ and its related processes. For example, two well-known models, the Process Model of emotion regulation (Gross, 1998) and the Control Processes Model by Koole (2009), are discussed as they provide information about emotion regulation from different viewpoints. A closer look at emotion regulation and its relevant states is offered, e.g., the similarities and differences between them. After that, this chapter discusses three different classifications of emotion regulation strategies, e.g., the rational sorting classification model (Parkinson & Totterdell, 1999).

The second chapter then explores the role of emotion regulation at work. Based on the literature, the thesis assesses the impact of emotion regulation on four outcomes, i.e., job performance, work relationship, organisational commitment, and job well-being. In general, these outcomes provide an acceptable coverage of the different kinds of outcome that are of most interest in understanding organizational behaviour. The chapter then considers how to improve these job outcomes by manipulating emotion regulation. In particular, this section begins by illustrating how people could increase their use of positive emotions and reduce

their use of negative emotions. The literature suggests that by designing an experimental study that encourages employees to monitor their emotion regulation behaviour regularly, the employees' use of positive emotion regulation behaviour could be enhanced while their use of negative emotion regulation could be reduced. Thus, the chapter discusses the most effective methodology that would help enhance emotion regulation and job outcomes. This methodology is based on two interventions, implementation intentions and construal levels. More information about each intervention, their theoretical basis and use in the empirical studies, and how they relate to emotion regulation are discussed at the end of this section. Finally, having considered what is currently known about enhancing emotion regulation, and having identified promising avenues for research and how it might be conducted, I then set forth the main objectives of the thesis.

The Third Chapter

The third chapter describes a study that was conducted to increase our understanding of the role of emotion at work. The chapter begins by examining how various types of emotion regulation strategies influence different kinds of job outcome such as job performance and well-being and then proposes a model of association between emotion regulation and job outcomes. In particular, it is proposed that valuing a particular job outcome will influence the association between emotion regulation and job outcomes. If this hypothesis is supported, then it could be possible that the association can be enhanced by increasing the value of a particular aspect of a job outcome. This would open a new direction in the next two chapters by suggesting that emotion regulation could be manipulated through particular values, goals, and intentions.

The first study in the thesis is then described. Four of the most important charitable organisations in Kuwait participated, with a total of 230 participants. Why and how these

organisations were involved is also discussed. The study uses a cross-sectional design using a self-report questionnaire. In general, the results from this chapter support the research aims by showing that there is an association between emotion regulation factors and job outcomes, and that valuing a particular job outcome can, albeit weakly, influence the relationship between emotion regulation and job outcomes.

The Fourth Chapter

The fourth chapter focuses on whether implementation intentions can be used as an intervention to influence emotion regulation in order to enhance job outcomes. Implementation intentions have been described as if-then plans that link specified situational cues with responses that are effective in attaining desired outcomes or goals (Gollwitzer & Sheeran, 2006). Scholars have found that if-then plans can enable individuals to deal more effectively with self-regulatory problems that may undermine goal striving. For example, Webb and his colleagues (2010) demonstrated that implementation intentions have an effective influence in reducing social anxiety. Implementation intentions can therefore aid self-control efforts including emotion regulation. Thus, the current chapter describes the second study, which tested whether if-then plans could be used as an intervention that will enhance emotion regulation.

As I could not find any previous use of implementation intentions in the work context, it was necessary to design the if-then plans. Thus, four semi-structured interviews were conducted in order to develop this intervention. In addition, forty-one employees, from each of the charitable organisations, voluntarily participated in the research during their work time. They completed daily diaries for one month, and completed pre-post questionnaires at baseline and one month and a follow-up questionnaire eight months after the intervention. Based on multilevel modelling and ANOVA analyses, the findings supported the chapter's

aims by illustrating that implementation intentions enhance emotion regulation factors (compared to a control group) and also positively influenced most of the job outcomes.

The Fifth Chapter

As in the previous chapter, the fifth chapter aims at examining how to enhance emotion regulation in order to improve job outcomes. However, this third study focuses on the impact of high/low levels of construal. Scholars have distinguished two levels of construal that people use in order to deal with events. High-level construal consists of the events and features that produce key changes in the meaning of events. On the other hand, low-level construals are more specific by including contextual and subordinate features of events.

In the current study, high levels of construal are converted to an intervention by asking participants about their most important job outcome and then asking – in increasing depth – “why” they chose this particular outcome. An equivalent procedure was used with the low construal level group; however, instead of asking them why outcomes were important, they were asked about “how” to attain those outcomes. Thus, forty-five employees from one of the charitable organisations voluntarily participated in the research during their work time. The same procedure that was used in the previous study was deployed here, i.e., a daily diary for one month, and a questionnaire at baseline, one-month, and 8-month follow-ups. Based on the multilevel modelling and ANOVA analyses, the findings also support the chapter’s aims: Construal level interventions enhance emotion regulation and positively influenced most of the job outcomes.

The Sixth Chapter

The thesis ends with a general discussion and conclusion chapter that integrates the findings from the three main studies. The main findings support the research aims. In particular, several associations between emotion regulation factors and job outcomes were found. A model that proposes how to enhance emotion regulation was partly supported. Both interventions were found to impact emotion regulation factors and this impact in part affects the job outcomes. These impacts were sustained and in some cases had increased months later. These four main findings help in acquiring a better understanding of the critical role of emotions in the workplace. The chapter ends with a discussion of the limitations and contribution of the research, and the implications of the thesis for research and practice.

Chapter Two

EMOTIONS IN THE WORKPLACE

This chapter will review current understanding of the concepts that form the basis for this thesis. Emotion will be defined and its features and process will also be discussed. More specifically, the current chapter will address the definitions, features, chronological development, and process of emotion regulation. It will also discuss the definitions, features, and strategies of emotion regulation. Moreover, the classification and measures of emotion regulation will be explained and discussed. Then, four main job outcomes, namely, job performance, work relationships, organisational commitment, and well-being at work, will be discussed and linked to emotion regulation behaviour at work. Later on, a theoretical model will be proposed in order to explore how to enhance emotion regulation in the workplace. Then, I will discuss how to improve job outcomes by explaining the theoretical basis for the use of two interventions: implementation intentions, and high/low levels of construal. Finally, the chapter will end by outlining the main research objectives of the thesis.

The Process of Emotion and Emotion Regulation

Emotion: Definition and Core Features

Despite plenty of research on emotion in the field of psychology, a consensual definition of emotion is still lacking (Yongmei, 2006). Scholars from different backgrounds define emotion in different ways. Frijda (1986) argued that some researchers consider cognition as a key and natural part of emotion while others view emotion as a feeling state. Others consider emotion as a set of phenomenological, physiological, and facial expressions that are related to the appraisal of situations (Gross, 1998; Levenson, 1999). This consideration of emotion combines the complex impacts of cognition in addition to the situations that individuals encounter (Yongmei, 2006). The use of the word “emotion” is

generally interchangeable with its close relative “feeling”. Emotions, however, can make people feel like doing something which is more than just making them feel something (Frijda, 1986). The ambiguity in the definition of emotions may be attributed to the large number of approaches that assess emotions, e.g., biological, cognitive, and social, and the various definitions that reflect each approach. For example, in psychological literature, several terms are very much related to emotion such as mood, affect, and feeling. The variety of terms used makes it difficult to understand precisely what emotion is. As a result, Scherer (1984) proposed that affect is a super-ordinate category for various types of states. Figure 1 illustrates emotion and its related affective processes, including: (i) emotions; (ii) moods; (iii) stress responses; (iv) and other motivational impulses such as motivational impulses that are related to pain, sex, aggression, or eating (Scherer, 1984). These various affective processes are different from each other in some way. For example, although emotion and stress involve physiological responses, emotion includes both negative and positive affective states while stress refers to the negative affective states alone (Lazarus, 1993). Regarding moods, Parkinson, Totterdell, Briner and Reynolds (1996) have distinguished emotions from moods. Emotions, for example, usually last for a short time compared to moods. Moods, by contrast, are more diffuse and may introduce broader behavioural responses such as withdrawal. Researchers have distinguished between other motivational impulses, e.g., hunger, and emotion (Lang, 1995). Emotions, for example, are more flexible as they have a broader range of targets. In conclusion, although there is no clear distinction between the affect and its relevant affective processes, affect can be seen as referring to the behavioural component of emotion (Kaplan & Sadock, 1991) or its experiential component (Buck, 1993).

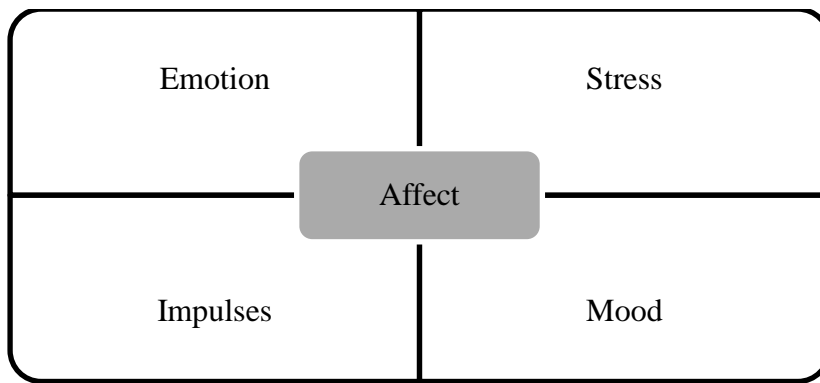


Figure 1 The Main States of Affect (Scherer, 1984).

Gross and Thompson (2009) proposed three core features of emotion. The first is that when people are involved in a situation that is relevant to their goals, emotions will arise. These particular goals may be temporary goals (e.g., win in a competition), or long-term goals such as obtaining a doctoral degree. Also, the goals may be intrinsic to the self (e.g., being a good employee) or extrinsic (e.g., working for money). Goals may also be classified as complicated or simple. They may be highly idiosyncratic (e.g., swimming in the winter) or widely shared and understood (e.g., going to work on time). Regardless of the goals' types or the situational meaning, emotions would arise over time and they could change according to any change in the situation or change in the goals behind it. The second core feature is that emotions are considered to be a whole-body phenomenon that could change behaviour, subjective experience, the intrinsic and extrinsic feeling states, and the related physiological processes such as heart rate (Mauss, Evers, Wilhelm & Gross, 2006). The third core feature has to do with researchers who believe that changes that are related to emotions are rarely compulsory. In this sense, people become aware of what they are doing. This mechanism has been termed by Frijda (1986) "control precedence". The third aspect of emotion is the most important for the current objective as it makes the deliberate regulation of emotion possible (Gross & Thompson, 2009).

The previous three core features of emotion establish what Gross and Thompson (2009) called the “Modal Model of Emotion”. Gross and Thompson believe that this model can explain intuitions about emotion. Figure 2 shows the Modal Model of Emotion.

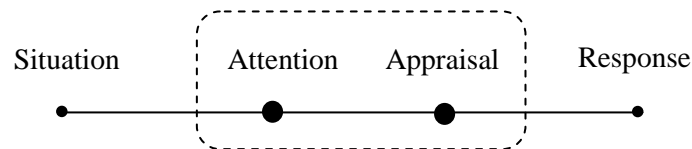


Figure 2 The Modal Model of Emotion (Gross, 1998).

Emotion Regulation: Definition and Core Features

Emotion regulation has been characterised as a set of control processes that manipulate how, where, when, and which emotion individuals express and experience (Gross, 1998). Gross and Thompson (2009) argued that the term ‘emotion regulation’ is vague because it could refer to how emotions could regulate behaviour, attitudes, or anything else, while at the same time it could also refer to how emotions are themselves regulated. Gross and Thompson argued that the second meaning is the acceptable usage of emotion regulation, since the first one could be coextensive with emotion. Gross and Thompson (2009) point out that the roots of emotion regulation have been studied since the psychological defences of Freud in the 19th century. Research has focused on emotion regulation through examining individual differences that are related to emotion regulation (Swinkels & Giuliano, 1995), physiological aspects of emotion suppression (Gross & Levenson, 1993), interactions between controlled and automatic cognitive processes during ongoing emotion regulation attempts (Wegner, Erber & Zanakos, 1993), and the relative effectiveness of regulation strategies (Gross, 1998; Parkinson et al., 1996).

When people give in to impulses, they may feel good immediately, but in the long-term, this behaviour may cost or even harm them. The question here is: what would enable

people to follow their long-term interests and not put their short-term interests first? The answer is self-control. Self-control is defined as “the capacity for altering one’s own responses, especially to bring them into line with standards such as ideals, values, morals, and social expectations, and to support the pursuit of long-term goals” (Baumeister, Vohs & Tice, 2007, p. 351). Researchers have linked self-control to emotion regulation. They believe that emotion regulation is a deliberate and effortful subset of self-control (Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Muraven & Tice, 1998). Self-control has been studied by researchers as it is considered, at least at the theoretical level, as a way to understand the functions and nature of the self. Accordingly, high self-control should be associated with more efficient emotion regulation. For example, insufficient self-control is found to be associated with impulse and behavioural regulation problems such as overspending, smoking, and overeating (Baumeister, Heatherton & Tice, 1994). On the other hand, high self-control is found to be negatively associated with some social problems such as relationship problems and school underachievement (Baumeister et al., 2007).

In the organisational psychology literature, research focusing on emotion regulation has recently emerged (Grandey, 2000) and interest in emotion regulation at work is growing rapidly (Yongmei, 2006). This interest may be attributed to the literature on emotional labour which is defined as “the management of feeling” (Hochschild, 1983). Hochschild assumed that customers could be described as the audience while employees could be described as the actors and the work setting as the stage. According to this framework, achieving organisational or personal goals requires regulating emotion at the workplace. For example, if employees were to display undesired emotions towards colleagues or customers, this would likely often reduce their job performance. Accordingly, Hochschild suggested two methods for employees to regulate their emotion, namely, *surface acting* and *deep acting*. Employees, for example, could regulate their emotional expressions through surface acting; while they

could modify their emotions and display the desired emotions through deep acting. A key idea from this model is that employees expend effort in regulating their emotions to comply with organisational display rules. Display rules refer to specific expressions that are required by the job, especially in service jobs (Brotheridge, 2002). Employees may be selected or trained for displaying what is required by the job (Hochschild, 1983; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1990). Hence, a number of research studies have attempted to link display rules with emotion regulation (Diefendorff, Richard & Yang, 2008; Grandey, 2000; Gross, 1998). Grandey (2000), for example, argued that surface acting is a type of response-focused regulation which is an emotion regulation process that was proposed by Gross (1998). For example, when a patient asks many times and in an annoying way to book an appointment with a doctor at a certain week, the nurse may put a smile on her face and be polite in explaining that there is no way to have an appointment with the doctor in that week. In this case, the nurse tried to change her surface feelings although she was annoyed with the patient's behaviour. On the other hand, Grandey (2000) argued that deep acting is a form of antecedent-focused regulation. An example of association between deep acting and antecedent-focused regulation is an employee regularly looks at a photo of his/her family placed on the workspace. So doing may enable the employee to find meaning in what he/she is doing (supporting one's family) and thus help him/her to express positive feelings at work and better perform tasks. Thus, the previous studies suggest that scholars find value in combining emotion regulation and emotional labour.

Researchers believe that people's spontaneous responses can be overridden by a deliberate effortful process; this is a prototypic instance of emotion regulation (Ochsner & Gross, 2008; Tice & Bratslavsky, 2000). At this level, people utilise an intentional and deliberate response to their emotions by using strategies that aim to produce conscious changes in emotion (Parkinson & Totterdell, 1999). Of course, other forms of emotion

regulation may be effortless and automatic (Koole, 2009; Mauss et al., 2006). In automatic emotion regulation, values of emotion-related variables are displayed without awareness and relevant adjustments are made at the unconscious level (Parkinson & Totterdell, 1999). In this thesis, the focus is on conscious emotion regulation, that is, people who are consciously and deliberately in control of their feelings (Yongmei, 2006).

Emotion regulation may refer to the intrinsic process, i.e., emotion regulation of one's self, or to the extrinsic process, i.e., emotion regulation in relation to other people. The intrinsic process of emotion regulation seems to have been studied more in the literature on adults (Gross, 1998); while the extrinsic process is more studied in the developmental literature as it is especially salient in early childhood (Cole, Martin & Dennis, 2004). Both are relevant in the workplace setting as will be discussed later. Scholars have indicated that the emotion regulation process may also involve attempting to improve one's own or another person's emotion and feelings (which is termed "upward regulation") or to worsen one's own or another person's emotion and feelings (termed "downward regulation") (Parrott, 1993).

Gross (1998) proposed five processes that explain the mechanisms of emotion regulation. Figure 3 illustrates these five processes as "situation selection, situation modification, attentional deployment, cognitive change, and finally the response modulation"(p. 282). The first four processes refer to antecedent-focused regulation as they occur before or during emotion generation while the last process is response-focused regulation which occurs once the emotion has been generated.

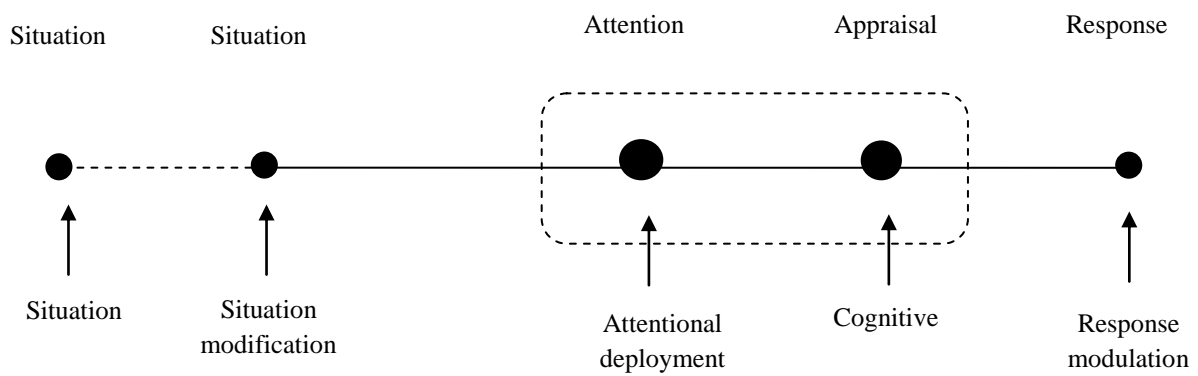


Figure 3 The Gross Model of Emotion Regulation Processes (Gross, 1998).

The first point, situation selection, involves deciding whether or not a situation demands emotional or behavioural responses (Gross & Thompson, 2009). For example, when an employee avoids dealing with a client or a co-worker who seems offensive, the situation was selected by the employee before taking any behavioural or emotional actions. Thus, the employee has to have an understanding about the features of the previous situation and the appropriate emotional responses to those features. Gross and Thompson (2009) suggested that two reasons could make understanding the appropriate emotional responses to these features difficult: (i) Gaining this understanding is difficult because of the difference between “the remembering self” and “the experiencing self” (Kahneman, 2000). Those employees who tend to be “experiencing-self” live in the moment when experiencing a situation. They usually feel and behave positively in delightful moments or negatively in sad moments in any situation; while the employees who tend to be “remembering-self” care more about the outcome of a situation. They usually feel and behave positively or negatively according to a significant moment or the final outcome of that situation. As a result, the bias between the “the remembering self” and the “experiencing self” could mislead making it difficult to make the appropriate situation selection. (ii) Selecting the appropriate situation could also be affected by the short-term versus the long-term benefits that accrue from regulating emotions. For example, a shy employee may attempt not to attend a party with other co-workers after

work time. The avoidance strategy taken by the employee may be beneficial for the short term while he or she avoids such social situations. Avoiding such social interactions, however, may negatively influence the social situation of the employee for the future.

The second point in the emotion regulation process, i.e., situation modification, refers to modifying the external environment or “physical environment”. In the previous example, the employee who avoided the social situation may choose to attend the last 10 minutes of the party as a way of reducing the stress of that social situation. Moreover, situation modification may vary from any behavioural actions (e.g., encouraging an employee to do something) to emotional actions (e.g., showing empathy for an employee). Gross and Thompson (2009) argued that distinguishing between situation selection and situation modification is sometimes difficult.

The third point in the emotion regulation process is attentional deployment. Both situation modification and situation selection help individuals to shape situations. However, Gross (1998) proposes that attentional deployment refers to how attention is directed in a situation in order to impact an individual’s emotions. Attentional deployment may thus be viewed as an intrinsic type of situation selection (Gross & Thompson, 2009). Moreover, attentional deployment can be divided into two main strategies: concentration and distraction. Gross and Thompson (2009) suggested that concentration strategies focus “the attention on the emotional aspects of a situation” (p. 549). Distraction strategies, however, focus “the attention on different aspects of the of the situation or move attention away from the situation” (p. 13). For example, attentional deployment may include changing the internal focus, e.g., invoking particular memories that may impact negatively on the situation (Watts, 2009), or any physical withdrawal from attention (Gross & Thompson, 2009).

The fourth point in the emotion regulation process is cognitive change. Cognitive change refers to the ability to change how people appraise the situation in order to alter its emotional significance. Cognitive change can be related to how individuals think about the situation. As the relative psychological situations or events could be external or internal, cognitive change can also be applied to external or internal experiences (Gross & Thompson, 2009). One type of cognitive change that has been studied most by researchers is reappraisal (Ochsner & Gross, 2009). Reappraisal involves modifying the meaning of a situation in order to alter its emotional influence. When employees are assigned to carry out many tasks within a short period of time, they may remind themselves of their ability to do this work or they may remind themselves about a nice trip in the following weekend and how they should tolerate such hard work in order to get there.

The last point in the emotion regulation process is response modulation. Response modulation is different from all other emotion-generative processes as it occurs after the emotion response has begun. It refers to impacting the experiential, physiological, or behavioural response as directly as possible. Many examples could describe the experiential and physiological response to emotions such as relaxation, exercise or even eating food which could be used as a response to lessen the impact of negative emotions.

It should be noted that Gross (1998) proposed the first four points to represent antecedent-focused regulation, which involves any emotion regulation efforts that target the pre-emotional process; while the last point of the emotion-generative process represents response-focused regulation, which involves any emotion regulation efforts that target the post-emotional process.

In another emotion regulation process model called the “Control Processes”, Koole (2009) proposed that there should be a distinction between other forms of emotions and

emotion regulation processing. Although he suggested that such a distinction is determined by observing the differences between regulated and unregulated emotions, he also pointed out that this distinction is difficult as it is based on people’s ability to manage their emotions rapidly (Rothermund et al., 2008). As a result, it is unclear when the regulation of emotion begins or when it ends (Davidson, 1998). However, the solution may lie in the temporal unfolding of the emotional response (Davidson, Jackson & Kalin, 2000). For example, Koole (2009) suggested that the individual’s primary emotional response may reflect his/her emotional sensitivity. The individual’s secondary emotional response, however, may reflect emotion regulation. He called this process the “Control Process” in which the unwanted emotional response will occur before the regulating of emotions takes place. The individual’s primary emotional response works as a main input for the control process that constitutes the regulation of emotion even if the regulation of those response is not yet processed (Koole, 2009).

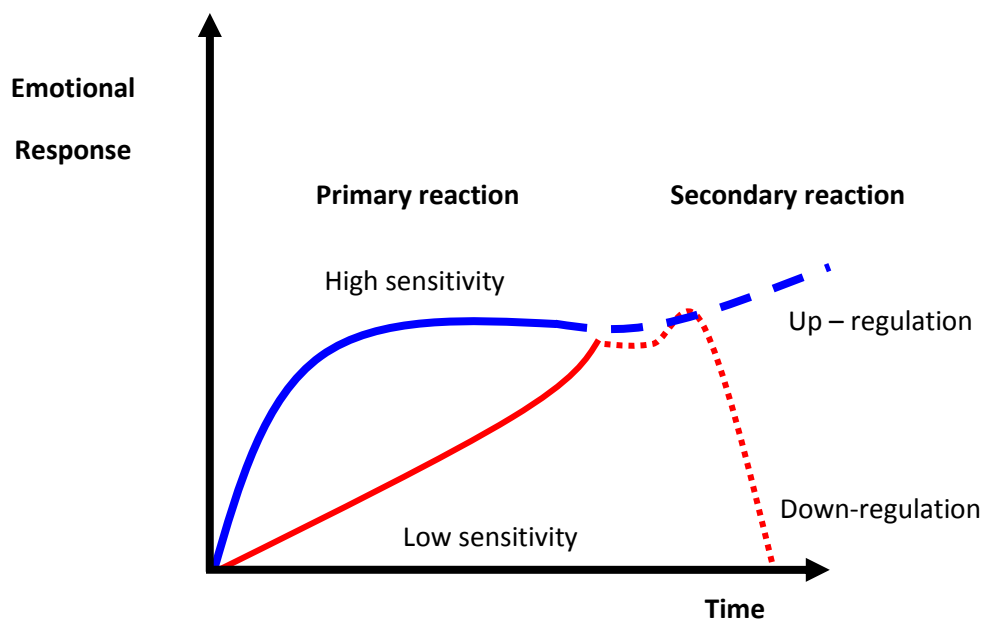


Figure 4 Koole’s Model of Emotion Regulation and Emotional Sensitivity (Koole, 2009, p. 8).

In Figure 4, Koole (2009) illustrated that emotional sensitivity is considered as the entry slope through which the emotional response will arrive at its full power. Any variables that may influence the individual's initial emotional response, e.g., personal characteristics and stimuli that the individual encounters, could determine the emotional sensitivity. The offset in the emotional response line refers to the exit slope through which this response turns back to the normal line. In this case, variables that may affect the exit slope refer to the processes of regulating emotion. Like emotional sensitivity, the regulation of emotions is determined by personal characteristics or even by the broader situation. Up-regulation processes tend to increase the amount of emotional response as when people engage in response exaggeration (Schmeichel, Demaree, Robinson & Pu, 2006). On the other hand, down-regulation processes tend to achieve a quicker return to baseline (Gross, 1998). According to Koole (2009), emotion regulation tends to influence not only the exit gradient, but may also influence the intensity, coherence, goal-directedness, and awareness of emotional responses. When certain forms of emotion regulation occur in a proactive way (Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2007) (e.g., when individuals tend to avoid a situation that seems to elicit undesired emotions), the regulation of emotion precedes the onset of emotions. Accordingly, the distinction between emotion regulation and emotional sensitivity is attributed to the individual's emotion regulation regardless of whether it occurs proactively or not.

Gross, Richards, and John (2006) addressed two issues that are relevant to both Gross's model and Koole's model of the emotion regulation process: (i) People may attempt to regulate positively or negatively their emotions by intensifying or weakening them. Gross and his colleagues (2006) found that people attempt to regulate their negative emotions and focus on changing the behavioural and experiential aspects of such emotions. Also, people tend to regulate negative emotions more frequently than positive emotions. (ii) Although

emotion regulation could be conscious or unconscious, the distinction between them is ambiguous over time. The reason is that the initial emotion could be occurring while conscious; however, it could also be occurring without conscious awareness over time. Although it is difficult to examine the automatic and unconscious regulation process, there are physiological (Hariri & Forbes, 2009) and behavioural approaches (Bargh & Williams, 2009) that illustrate the automatic emotion regulation process.

Emotion Regulation Strategies

Emotion Regulation Strategies: Definition and Core Features

Scholars have concluded that affect regulation includes any process that involves modifying or maintaining moods or emotions, where the operation of the affect regulation depends on the monitoring of affective information (Parkinson et al., 1996). Eisenberg (2001) defined affect regulation as “the process of initiating, maintaining, modulating, or changing the occurrence, intensity, or duration of the internal feeling state, emotion-related psychological processes, and the behavioural concomitants of emotion” (p. 120). Accordingly, people tend to alter, with or without consciousness, their emotions in order to achieve their goals. This tendency refers to strategies that individuals use to manage their emotions. The importance of measuring the individual’s use of emotion regulation strategies lies in the fact that individuals use of affect strategies can have costs or benefits for relationships, performance, and well-being (Gross & John, 2003). Just as emotion is a sub-ordinate of a broader construct of affect, emotion regulation is also a sub-ordinate of affect regulation. Figure 5 shows that affect regulation consists of four overlapping dimensions: (i) emotion regulation, (ii) coping, (iii) psychological defences, and (iv) mood regulation. In this thesis, I will focus on the emotion regulation dimension. It should be noted that the term emotion regulation may sometimes refer to the control of emotions and moods.

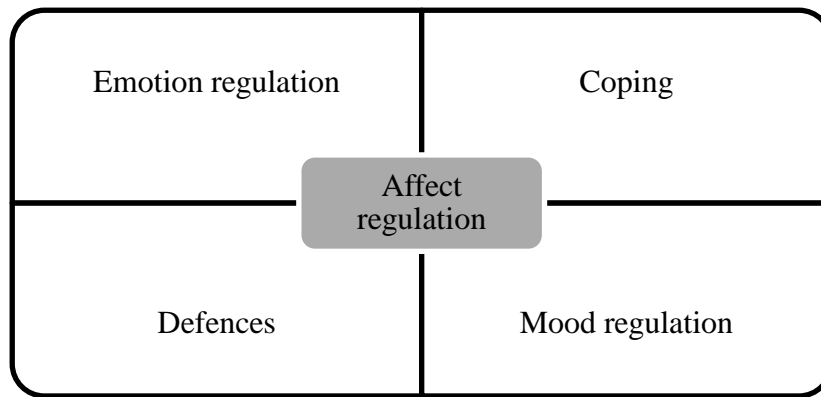


Figure 5 The Processes of Affect Regulation.

Although making a distinction between these four sub-ordinate constructs is difficult, some researchers have attempted to do just that. For example, emotion regulation could be distinguished from coping since coping is focused on reducing the negative affect with the emphasis over longer periods of time. Also, coping is associated more with dealing with a problem of some sort. Mood emphasises longer periods of time than emotion regulation and it involves fewer responses to particular situations than emotions (Parkinson et al., 1996). And like coping, psychological defences are associated more with negative emotion than positive emotion experience, in addition to the fact that defences are classified as automatic and unconscious (Westen & Blagov, 2009).

Classifying Emotion Regulation Strategies

Finding a fundamental order for emotion regulation is a scientific challenge as any activity may impact the individual's emotion (Koole, 2009). The following classifications of emotion regulation strategies concern the regulation of the person's own emotions while the last one concerns the regulation of others' emotions too. (i) The exploratory factor analysis method was used by Thayer, Newman, and McClain (1994) to classify emotion regulation

strategies. Although this classification made a significant improvement towards classifying emotion regulation strategies, it suffers from two problems: the interpretability of the factors and the difficulties in ensuring that the categories derived are comprehensive (Skinner, Edge, Altman & Sherwod, 2003).

(ii) Another theoretical model that was designed to classify emotion regulation strategies is called the “process model”. The theoretical framework of this classification was discussed above as it is dependent on the Modal Model of Gross (1998). According to the model, the effectiveness in emotion regulation strategies depends on where the process occurs in the emotion generation timeline. Four processes on this timeline, “situation selection, situation modification, attentional deployment, and cognitive change”, all refer to the antecedent-focused regulation. “Antecedent-focused regulation strategies” include strategies implemented before the emotional, behavioural, or physiological responses. On the other hand, the last process on the emotion regulation timeline is the response modulation which refers to the response-focused regulation. The response-focused regulation strategies include what individuals do once emotions are underway (Loewenstein, 2009). The antecedent-focused regulation strategies are commonly reflected by the reappraisal strategies while the response-focused regulation strategies are commonly reflected by the suppression strategies. Koole (2009) argued that the process model offers no basis for emotion responses. For instance, behaviour, attention, or cognitive appraisal may occur late or early in the emotion generation process.

(iii) Finally, the third theoretical model which has been used in classifying emotion regulation strategies is “rational sorting”. This model includes categorising 162 emotion regulation strategies into groups that had similar meaning (Parkinson & Totterdell, 1999). Niven, Totterdell, and Holman (2009) suggested that this classification procedure provides solid and conceptual distinctions between self-regulation strategies while the classification of

Thayer et al. (1994) has been based on the frequency of the strategies used. Moreover, this classification has been more concerned with emotion regulation while other models had focused on specific emotion dimensions. For example, in the second classification, Gross' model (1998) focuses on emotion regulation but such focusing may not be appropriate when considering mood regulation for, unlike emotion, it does not usually occur as a response to specific situations (Parkinson et al., 1996). In three studies, scholars used a comprehensive corpus of emotion regulation strategies in order to validate the theoretical framework (Parkinson & Totterdell, 1999). In the first study, 50 undergraduate students participated, and participants were asked to provide open-ended details of the strategies they used in order to change their feelings to being positive in response to a recent event where they faced an unpleasant mood or emotion. In addition, they were asked to provide what strategy they most commonly used to improve their feelings, and the most practical technique they used. The second study used an interview methodology with 12 office workers. The employees were asked to indicate the different ways they used to improve their feelings and moods and rank them according to the most preferred. The third study aimed to involve more in-depth examination of how individuals deliberately improve their feelings using diary and group discussions. An additional list of strategies, from Swinkels and Giuliano (1995), was added to the list of strategies arising from the above three studies. Additional strategies were added within a broader investigation of mood awareness literature, just to be sure that they would cover almost all emotion regulation strategies (Parkinson & Totterdell, 1999). Based on these strategies, four categories were derived: (i) avoidance, which involves diverting attention away from the event or the affect; (ii) distraction, which involves looking for an alternative focus for action; (iii) confrontation, which involves actively working on the action or the affect; and (iv) acceptance, which involves selecting a passive attitude towards the action or affect. Finally, in the fourth study, 88 undergraduate students participated, who were asked to

report each kind of category. They were also asked to list all strategies that did not belong to any category. This procedure left a set of 304 strategies (Parkinson & Totterdell, 1999). Then, twenty-four adults were recruited and undertook a card-sort procedure. By providing statistical evaluation of the combined classification and then using hierarchical cluster analysis, the results indicated that the highest order division is the behavioural and cognitive classification of emotion regulation strategies. The second distinction is between strategies used to alter attention or action away from a situation and those used to engage in an affective state. Figures 6 and 7 illustrate these distinctions:

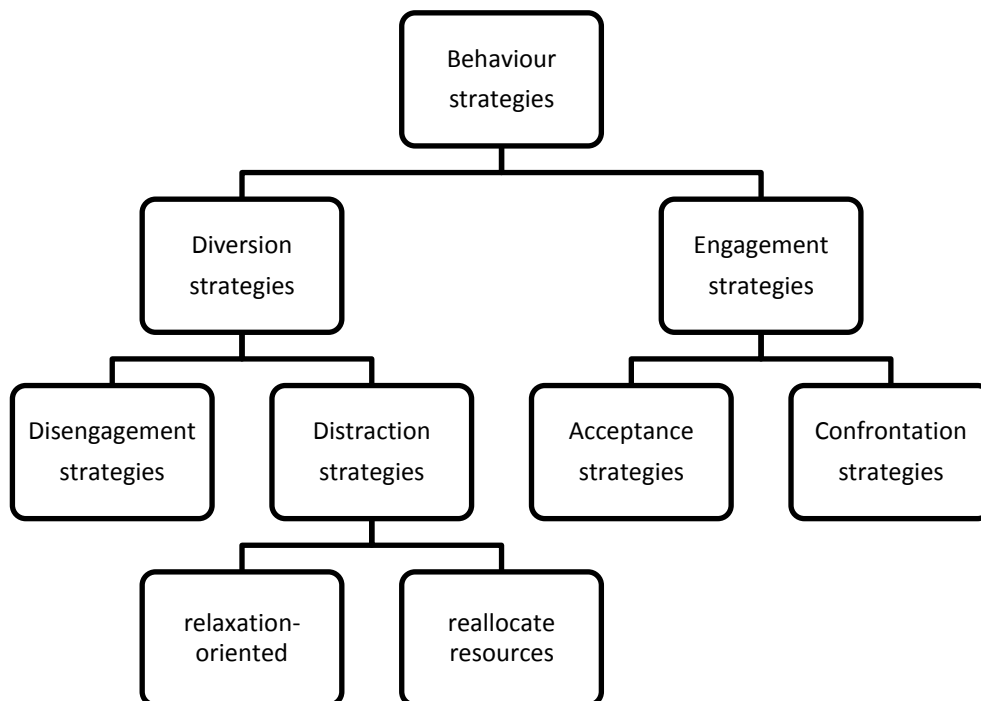


Figure 6 Hierarchical Organisation of Obtained Behavioural Cluster of Emotion Regulation Strategies (Parkinson & Totterdell, 1999).

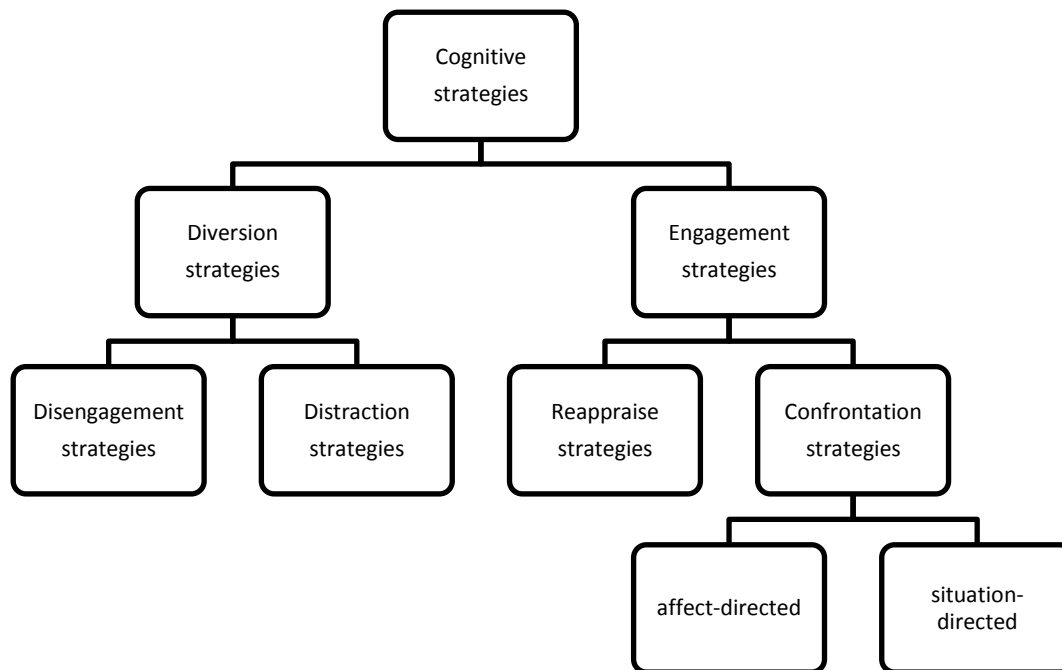


Figure 7 Hierarchical Organisation of Obtained Cognitive Cluster of Emotion Regulation Strategies (Parkinson & Totterdell, 1999).

Although this empirical framework provides an excellent distinction between emotion regulation strategies, there is an important remaining question here: are these strategies also used to regulate others' feelings and emotions? To answer this question, Niven, Totterdell, and Holman (2009) attempted to classify "controlled interpersonal emotion regulation strategies". They defined controlled interpersonal emotion regulation as "a result of deliberate attempts that involve intent and awareness on the part of the person performing the regulation"(p. 6). A great deal of research had examined specific controlled interpersonal emotion regulation strategies such as humour (Cahill & Eggleston, 1994; Francis, Monahan & Berger, 1999; Locke, 1996; Schrock, Holden & Reid, 2004), selecting the situation for others (Gross & Thompson, 2009), and reciprocating and reinforcing reactions (Field, 1994). Although individuals may try to impact how others display their emotion, previous studies have primarily focused on others' experienced emotions (Niven et al., 2009) (e.g., a manager asks the employees to stand-up when new customers come to their desk as a way of showing how the customer is valued by the organisation). In addition, despite the sizable number of

studies that assess interpersonal emotion regulation strategies, a systemic and comprehensive classification of controlled interpersonal emotion regulation strategies was needed. As a result, Niven, Totterdell, and Holman (2009) proposed and tested a conceptual classification of those strategies. Their theoretical frameworks were built on the basis that these strategies could be characterised by motives and the means behind these motives (Totterdell & Holman, 2003). Building on Watson, Clark and Tellegen's (1985) distinction between unpleasant and pleasant affect, they proposed that the principal distinction in these motives would be strategies aimed at worsening or improving others' emotions (Niven et al., 2009).

Figures 8 and 9 illustrate the distinctions between the interpersonal emotion regulation strategies. Niven et al. (2009) adopted three stages in order to test their theoretical framework. The first stage aimed to generate a general list of interpersonal emotion regulation strategies. Three studies were conducted. The first study involved a questionnaire and 72 undergraduate students participated. In the second study, 47 participants from a major city in the UK participated, and involved a different questionnaire which focused on specific mood states and emotion regulation strategies. In the third study, a qualitative diary was distributed to 10 participants that focused on ecological and contextualised valid reports of spontaneous interpersonal emotion regulation strategies. At the end of this study, a total of 955 strategies were reported which resulted in a final corpus of 378 distinct strategies (Niven et al., 2009). The second stage aimed to classify the final corpus. Hence, twenty people participated in order to classify the interpersonal emotion regulation strategies. The third stage aimed to analyse these strategies. By using the construction of similarity matrices during a card-sort task and hierarchical cluster analysis, the final classification showed that there is a significant distinction to be made between strategies used to worsen others' emotion and strategies used to improve others' emotion. Also, a distinction was found between

strategies used to engage targets in a situation versus relationship-oriented strategies (Niven et al., 2009).

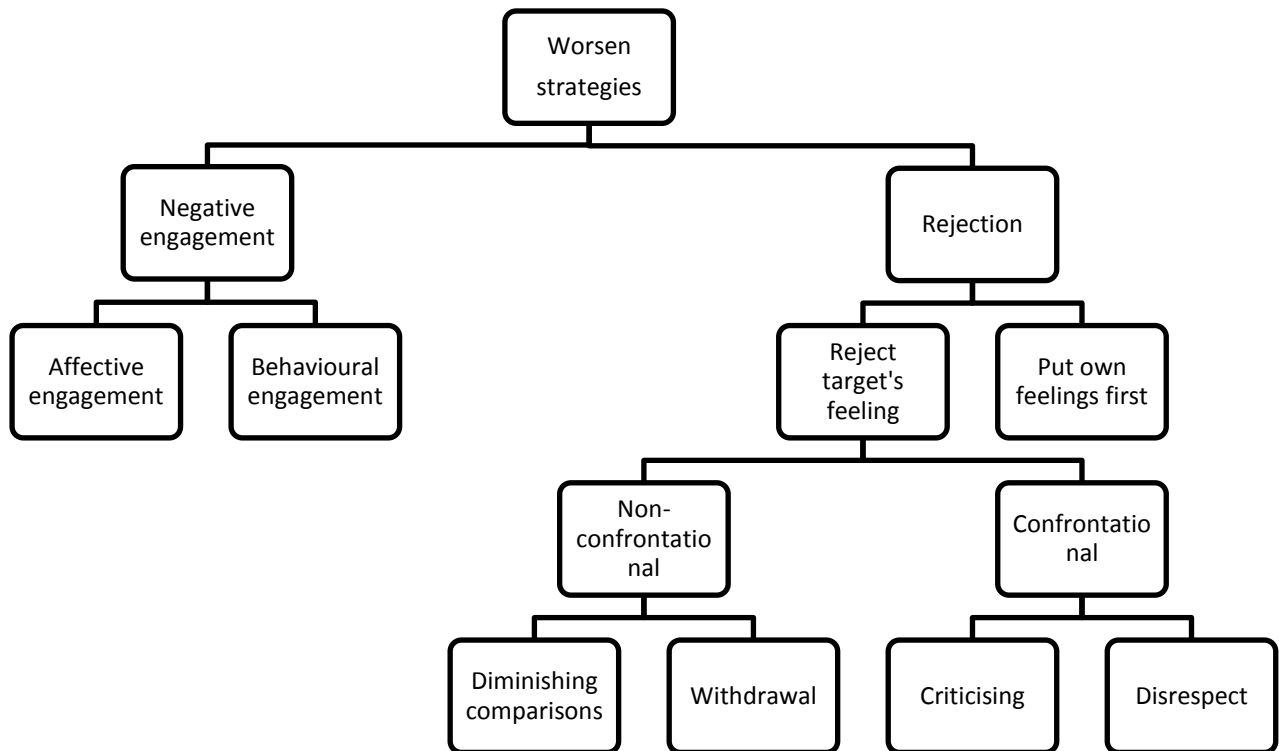


Figure 8 Hierarchical Organisation of Obtained Strategies to Worsen Affect (Niven et al., 2009).

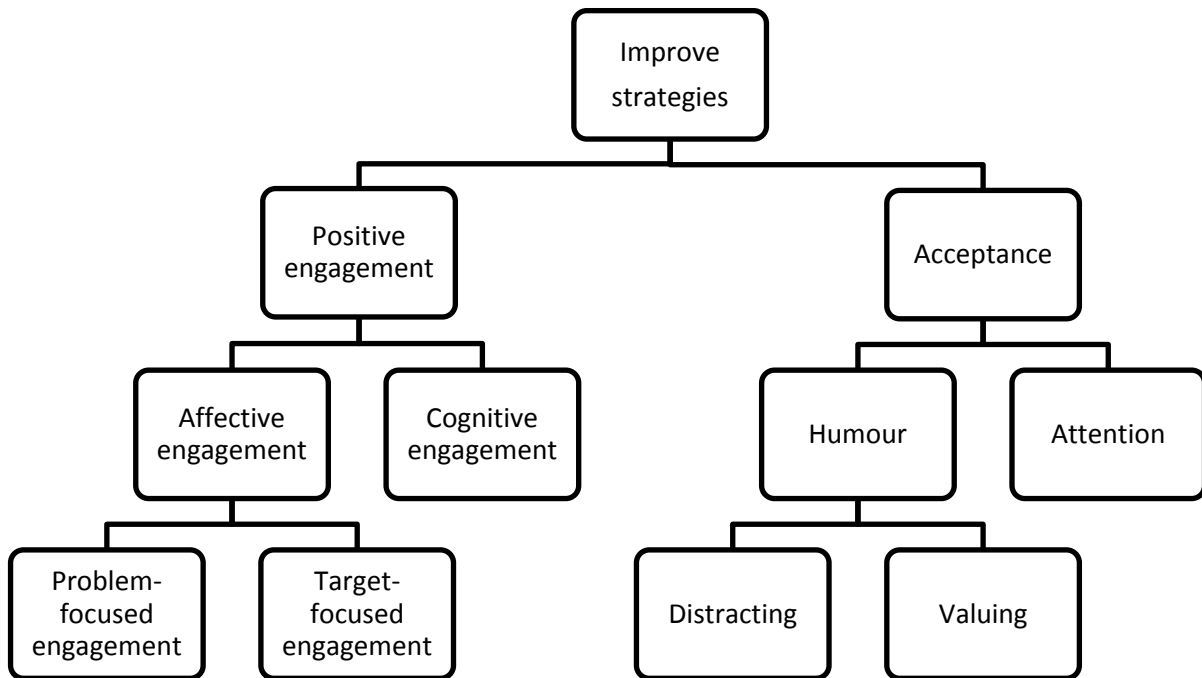


Figure 9 Hierarchical Organisation of Obtained Strategies to Improve Affect (Niven et al., 2009).

Measuring Emotion Regulation Strategies

A number of scales have been designed to measure the use of emotion regulation strategies such as the Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (ERQ) (Gross & John, 2003). The ERQ is designed to measure individual differences in the regular use of expressive suppression and cognitive reappraisal. It consists of 10 items and the response is a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from “I strongly disagree” to “I strongly agree”. The second scale is the Survey of Emotional Intelligence (SEI) (Tett, Fox & Wang, 2005). This self-reported measure was based on Salovey and Mayer’s model of emotional intelligence (1990). The SEI consists of three major sections: expression and appraisal of emotions, utilization of emotions, and regulation of emotions. Within each section, further divisions were added to make 10 sub-sections.

Niven, Totterdell, Stride and Holman (2011) concluded that there are four limitations to the existing scales. (i) In general, most of the measures have focused on internal “intrinsic” emotion regulation, in other words how to regulate one’s own emotion. Yet people may also try to influence people’s emotions as was discussed above (Niven et al., 2009). In fact, a few existing scales have assessed interpersonal emotion regulation; yet, these measures attempt to assess the ability to regulate others’ emotion rather than the actual use of these strategies. For example, the regulation of others’ emotions sub-section in the SEI was designed to assess individual’s ability to manage others’ emotions instead of measuring their use of particular strategies. (ii) The majority of the existing scales attempt to assess strategies used to improve emotions. However, individual also sometimes try to worsen their own emotions (Parrott, 1993) as well as those of others (Niven et al., 2009). People, for example, might think about their shortcomings in order to make themselves feel worse so that they look sad at a funeral. Or people may be mean to someone else to make that person feel worse, and thereby make themselves feel better. Most existing scales, such as the Responses to Positive Affect measure

(Feldman, Joormann & Johnson, 2008), assess only one type of worsening emotion regulation strategy. (iii) Most existing scales were not built on theoretical frameworks of emotion regulation. Hence, these scales may cover only a part of the domain of emotion strategies. (iv) Finally, some measures have been designed for special populations. For instance, scales that have been designed for use with children or clinical purposes may not be suitable for use with other population groups (Niven, Totterdell, Stride, et al., 2011).

Concerning these four limitations and building on the last two theoretical frameworks, intrinsic emotion regulation (Parkinson & Totterdell, 1999) and extrinsic emotion regulation (Niven et al., 2009), scholars designed a behavioural scale to assess emotion regulation strategies, named the Emotion Regulation of Others and Self (EROS) scale (Niven et al., 2011). Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) indicated that the scale is represented by four factors: “intrinsic affect-improving, intrinsic affect-worsening, extrinsic affect-improving, and extrinsic affect-worsening” (Niven, Totterdell, Stride, et al., 2011, p. 61).

So far, this thesis has shown that emotion regulation plays a key role in the life of individuals as well as in their workplace. A brief history about the role of emotions and emotion regulation in the workplace, its definitions, features, and process were discussed. Also, the classification and measures of emotion regulation have been explained and discussed. Accordingly, the next sections in this chapter will address the main job outcomes, including job performance, work relationships, organisational commitment, well-being at work, and how emotion regulation would affect these outcomes. Afterwards, the enhancement of emotion regulation will be discussed as well as how such enhancement would influence job outcomes.

Emotion Regulation and Job Outcomes

How can employees manage their emotions in order to express them in ways that are appropriate and in line with their role at work? As was discussed earlier in this chapter, Hochschild's (1983) work was one of the most crucial in that it focused on the dissonance between employees' emotions and emotional display rules at work. That is, since Hochschild's work, many researchers have focused more on the process of emotional labour and emotion regulation and their impact on job outcomes. Three models will be discussed in the following paragraphs in order to provide a general overview with regard to the role of emotion regulation and its impact on job outcomes.

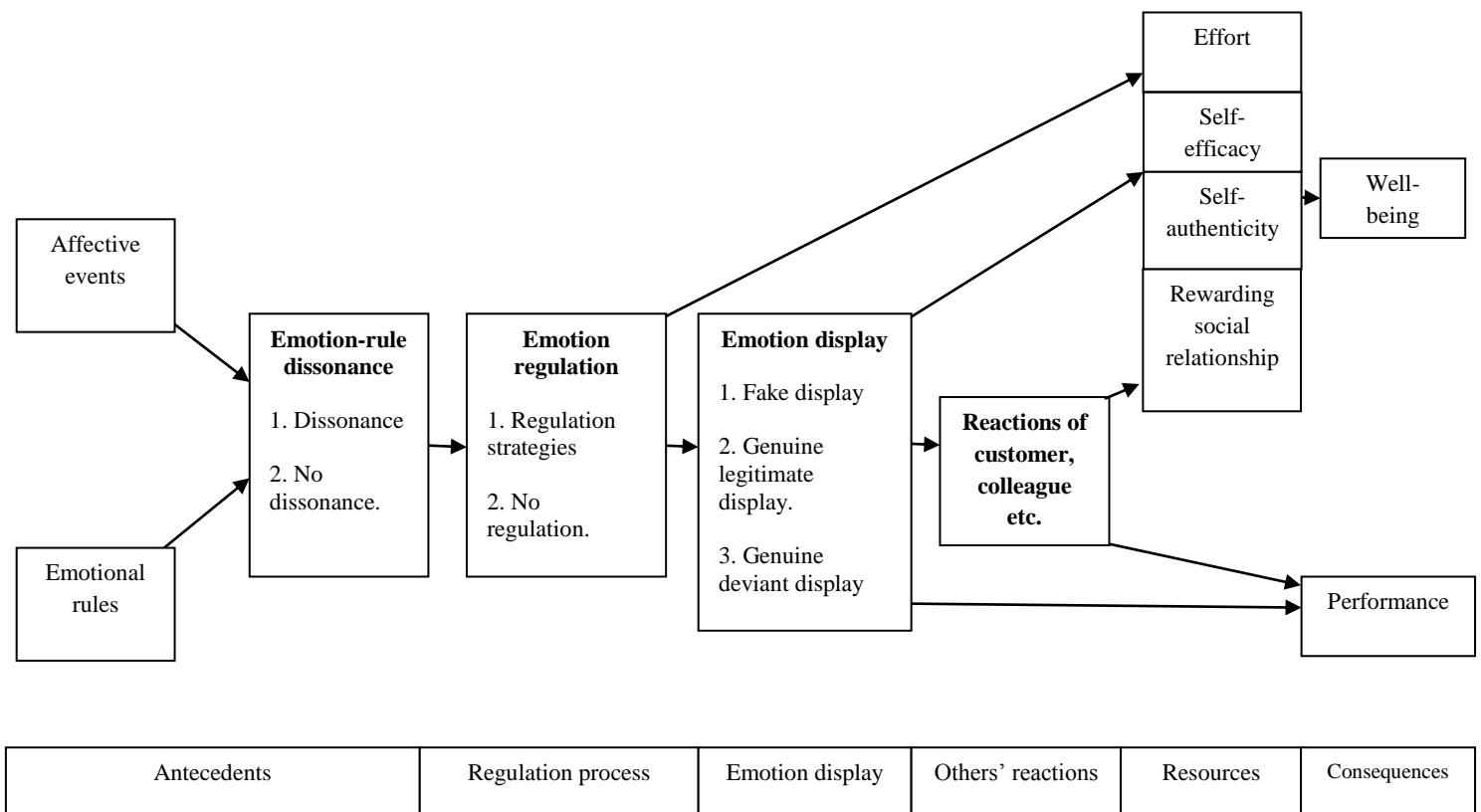


Figure 10 A Model of Emotional Labour and Its Outcomes (Holman, Inigo & Totterdell, 2008).

Based on the models of Holman, Martinez-Inigo, and Totterdell (2008), six processes could explain the process of emotional labour and its impact on job outcomes (see Figure 10).

This model is based on emotional labour since it represents a more specific set of behaviours

that are experienced at work. The first process in this model concerns the antecedents of regulation. These antecedents include the following components: emotional rules, affective events, and dissonance. They illustrated that interpersonal work interactions could be divided into two types of emotional rules: feeling and display rules. Feeling rules are related to the type and extent of emotional feeling while display rules are based on the type and extent of emotional expression. In addition, these rules could be restrictive or expansive. In general, many organisations' rules tend to endorse positive emotions (e.g., enthusiasm) and restrict negative emotions (e.g., anger) (Zapf & Holz, 2006). Also, Holman and his colleagues illustrated that emotional rules in organisations could also be related to personal beliefs in terms of the effects of emotions and moral behaviour. That is, as emotional rules tend to specify the behaviour that is needed to achieve a certain moral behaviour or goal, employees usually behave in accordance with emotional rules. For example, when employees notice a customer in a wheelchair, they tend to feel sorry for the customer. They may then express empathy by helping the customer as soon as they can. In this example, the employees' feelings and emotional expressions are more likely to be in accordance with emotional rules (e.g., priority is for old and sick people). In this case, it is likely that employees' behaviour and emotions were generated automatically, in an effortless process (Zapf, 2002), and constitute a genuine display of emotion. However, this scenario may not always be the case in organizations. There are many events, especially interpersonal events, which may impact positively and negatively on employees' behaviour at work (Totterdell & Holman, 2003). Hence, it is possible to have emotional dissonance between the employees' feelings and emotional rules. It should be noted that two types of dissonance could occur before and after the regulation of emotion. The conflict between felt emotion and those emotions that are required by work has been called emotion-rule dissonance (and occurs before emotion

regulation); while the discrepancy between felt emotion and displayed emotion has been called fake emotional display (occurring after emotion regulation) (Holman et al., 2008).

After discussing the antecedents that may affect emotional labour, Holman and his colleagues (2008) illustrated that when employees experience these antecedents, they are more likely to use specific emotion regulation strategies to cope with the situation. As was discussed earlier, two dimensions could explain the employees' motives. The first is based on the focus of regulation. Antecedent-focused regulation (Grandey, 2000) or the deep acting Hochschild (1983) is concerned with solving emotional feelings. That is, deep acting is concerned with solving the emotion-rule dissonance by changing felt emotion. On the other hand, response-focused regulation or surface acting is aimed at altering emotional display by modifying the response to a situation. This modification could succeed or it could be affected by display rules and thus produce fake emotional display. The second dimension is related to the direction of change in emotion. That is, people usually tend to suppress or amplify their emotion. By combining the two dimensions, deep acting strategies could be used to suppress or amplify emotion and vice versa. This model illustrates the importance of emotion-rule dissonance in assessing emotion regulation. Employees may tend to regulate their emotional feeling and display when faced with emotion-rule dissonance. However, others may just ignore the emotional rules and display their real emotions. In this situation, employees sometimes display deviant emotions that may not accord with the organizations' or customers' expectations.

The third process is based on emotion display. Four pathways could occur when employees display genuine or fake emotions. Zapf (2002) suggested that employees would behave spontaneously and genuinely when there is no emotion-rule dissonance. As a result, there is hardly any need to regulate emotion. Second, when emotion-rule dissonance occurs with no motive to regulate emotion, the behaviour is more likely to be emotionally genuine

but deviant at the same time. Third, when emotion-rule dissonance occurs in a successful attempt to regulate emotion through deep acting, the behaviour is more likely to be genuine. Finally, when the same process occurs but with surface acting, employees tend to display fake emotion. In addition to the four previous pathways, when the emotion regulation process fails, deep or surface acting may lead to fake or deviant behaviour. These pathways provide an integrative view about the process of emotional labour and how it relates to emotion regulation.

The second model is the social interaction model of emotion regulation (Cote, 2005). While the first model is based on a theoretical view of emotional labour, this model concerns the impact of emotion regulation on work strain through interpersonal interaction. Cote (2005) has illustrated this: “I focus on emotion regulation instead of emotional labor because emotion regulation represents a broader and more pervasive set of behaviours” (p. 511).

Cote’s model is mainly based on the idea that emotion display reveals information about the sender’s goals and intentions (Van Kleef, De Dreu & Manstead, 2004). Thus, valuable information could be obtained when the sender’s emotional display provides signals to receivers in a feedback loop. In the first part of this loop, the senders’ emotional display is affected by their own emotion regulation. Researchers have supported this idea by illustrating that emotion regulation leads to emotion display as a consequence (Gross, 1998). In the second part, senders’ emotion display could be considered an event that provokes the receivers’ responses. In particular, scholars have argued that individuals tend to pick up others’ emotional display to guide their own behaviour (Ohman, 2002). In the third part of the feedback loop, senders’ strain would be affected by the receivers’ responses. That is, when a customer responds in an acceptable manner to an employee’s behaviour, this response tends to reduce the employee’s strain. Based on these parts of the feedback loop, Cote (2005) suggested that when employees regulate their own emotions, the customers’ provision of

social support would affect the employees' strain. In other words, the customers' responses would mediate the association between the employees' strain and emotion regulation.

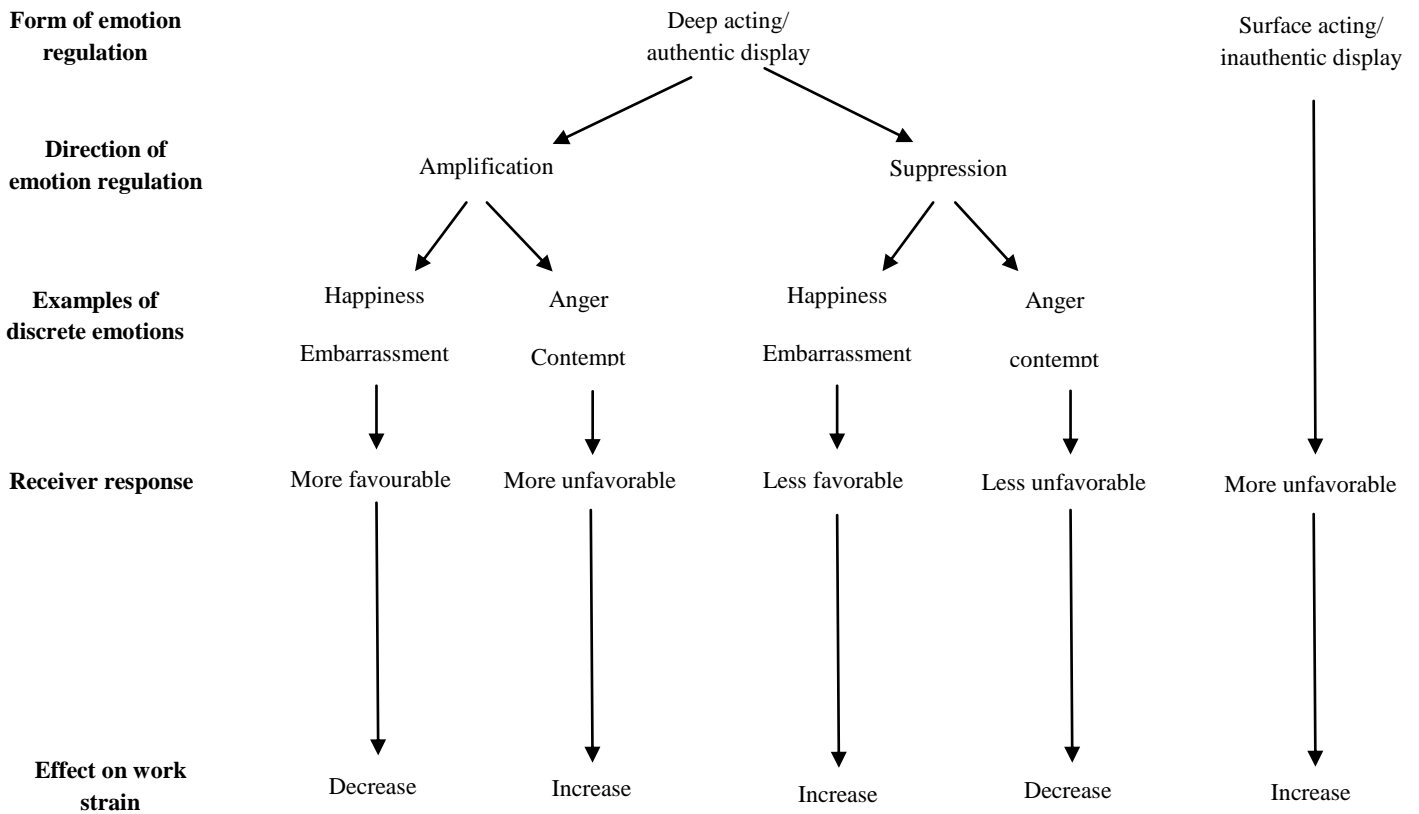


Figure 11 A Decision-Tree Summary of the Core Propositions of the Social Interaction Model (Cote, 2005).

Figure 11 shows that the form of emotion regulation would play a fundamental role in the social interaction model. Cote (2005) and Grandey (2003) argued that deep acting is associated with showing an authentic display because there is a match with internal experience. However, surface acting tends to impact the display of emotion more than the internal experience of emotions. As a result, it is more likely that surface acting is inauthentic. In this case, Cote (2005) suggested that when employees suppress or amplify their emotions through surface acting, customers' responses are more likely to be unfavourable. Hence, the customers' unfavourable responses will increase the employees' strain. On the other hand, when employees amplify certain emotions (e.g., happiness) through deep acting, customers' responses tend to be more favourable which in turn reduces

employees' strain and vice versa. In addition, when employees suppress specific emotions (e.g., anger), customers' responses tend to be more favourable which in turn reduces the employees' strain and vice versa. In conclusion, this model offers a solid theoretical background that supports the impact of emotion regulation on work strain. Also, it suggests a more fundamental view over the impact of social interaction and how it affects emotion regulation at work.

The last model concerns the association between affect and episodic performance. In this model, Beal and his colleagues (2005) tried to view job performance within-person. Beal et al. argue that people cannot be expected to put on their best performance at all times. In other words, they illustrated that "within the daily stream of behaviours engaged in at work are units we refer to as performance episodes. Performance episodes are naturally segmented, relatively short episodes thematically organized around work-relevant immediate goals or desired end states" (p. 1055). That is, people tend to perform differently during the day. Like performance, they also argued that affect is time-bound and has a beginning and end time. They proposed that affect episodes may overlap with performance episodes by sharing the available resources, thereby affecting the attentional focus and resulting in specific responses. More information on how affect impacts performance will be provided later in this chapter.

Imagine an employee who behaves badly towards a client for some reasons. This behaviour is rooted in skills that help the employee understand his/her behaviour and whether or not the behaviour is acceptable within the workplace. Another employee may express positive behaviour towards the same client. The difference between the two behaviours could be attributed to the ability to master the situation effectively in view of the personal goal. Thus, research has shown that using intrinsic and extrinsic improving emotion regulation strategies is associated with a higher ability to regulate emotions while using intrinsic and extrinsic worsening emotion strategies is associated with a lower ability to regulate emotions

(Niven, Totterdell, Stride, et al., 2011). This finding is important for it links emotion regulation to the ability to regulate emotions since organisational literature has widely assessed the impact of this ability on some job outcomes. Within the workplace, employees are expected to do several tasks, communicate with each other and with clients, express positive emotions especially to clients, show loyalty toward the organisation, be on time, and so on. Indeed, there are plenty of outcomes that are expected from employees. Thus, it is expected that these outcomes could be affected by how employees regulate their own and others' emotions. The next section will try to describe four main job outcomes and link them to emotion regulation.

Job Performance

Jobs are traditionally defined as “collections of tasks designed to be performed by one employee” while tasks are defined as “the assigned pieces of work that employees complete” (Grant, 2007, p. 7). Improving job performance is one of the most practical, theoretical, and important issues in organisational literature (Staw, 1984). Over the last 40 years, however, the meaning of job performance has changed from focusing on fixed tasks on the job to broader work roles in the organisation (Ilgen & Hollenbeck, 1991). Job performance was traditionally evaluated according to individual proficiency in completing the tasks specified in the job description (Griffin, Neal & Parker, 2007). Accordingly, to succeed in this job, the individual's behaviours should accord with the specific tasks in the job description. Hence, effectiveness in the workplace could be achieved through those specified job behaviours (Campbell, McCloy, Oppler & Sager, 1993).

Even if effectiveness in the workplace could be achieved through specified job behaviours, two major changes to the individual job performance arose: (i) the increasing uncertainty of work systems; and (ii) interdependent work systems (Howard, 1995).

Campbell et al. (1993) indicated that early job performance approaches did not justify all

behaviours related to effectiveness when the job systems are interdependent and uncertain. According to this limitation, new models and constructs were developed in order to expand the job system such as contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993), citizenship performance (Smith, Organ & Near, 1993), proactive performance (Parker, Williams & Turner, 2006), and adaptive performance (Pulakos, Arad, Donovan & Plamondon, 2000).

Individual Task Adaptivity

Although the number of constructs that identify job performance systems is increasing, overlap among the constructs has been raised as a concern (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). Hence, Griffin, Neal, and Parker (2007) developed a theoretical framework that assesses the integrating and differentiating constructs and their link to effectiveness. Two dimensions from their theoretical framework were adopted in this study: adaptivity and proactivity. *Adaptivity* refers to the ability of an employee to change job roles or systems. Individual task adaptivity reflects the degree to which individuals can respond to, cope with, and support changes that influence individuals' roles in the organisation. This dimension is important especially if the employee faces work redesign, new technology, or changes in strategy.

Individual Task Proactivity

Proactivity refers to the ability to be self-directed so as to be able to initiate or anticipate change in the job role or system. Individual task proactivity reflects individuals engaging in future-oriented or self-starting behaviour to change his/her job situations, roles, or themselves. Griffin et al. (2007) suggested that individual task adaptivity and proactivity are important within the workplace which often involves uncertainty and some work roles that cannot be formalised. Hence, in the current thesis, these two individual tasks were

adopted as the data was collected from “charitable organisations” that involve uncertainty and some work roles that cannot be formalised.

General Job Performance

In addition to individual task adaptivity and proactivity, a standard evaluation of job performance was also adopted in this thesis. In Kuwait, the Ministry of Social Affairs and Labour has a standard job evaluation for charitable organisations, which indeed is the occupational setting studied in this thesis. Hence, this form was adopted. Three reasons lead me to adopt this evaluation of job performance: (i) the managers are more familiar with this form of evaluation compared to other forms; (ii) it is possible to assess within-subject effect of an individual’s job performance over the last two years; (iii) and the opportunity to compare between organisations is greater if the organisations have a standard form.

Emotion Regulation and Job Performance

Research on emotional labour could help shed light on the association between emotion regulation and job performance. Based on Holman’s model (2008) (see Figure 11 and 12), two mechanisms could explain the impact of emotional display on job performance based on customer evaluation. The first mechanism will illustrate the impact of emotion regulation on this mechanism.

The first mechanism suggested that employees’ emotional display would influence customer mood, while customer mood in turn would shape customer evaluation. How the customer will understand the employees’ emotional display is important in this case (Barsade, 2002). Customers may catch the employees’ mood through primitive contagion (e.g., others’ facial expression) or conscious emotional contagion (e.g., people may behave in line with social situations).

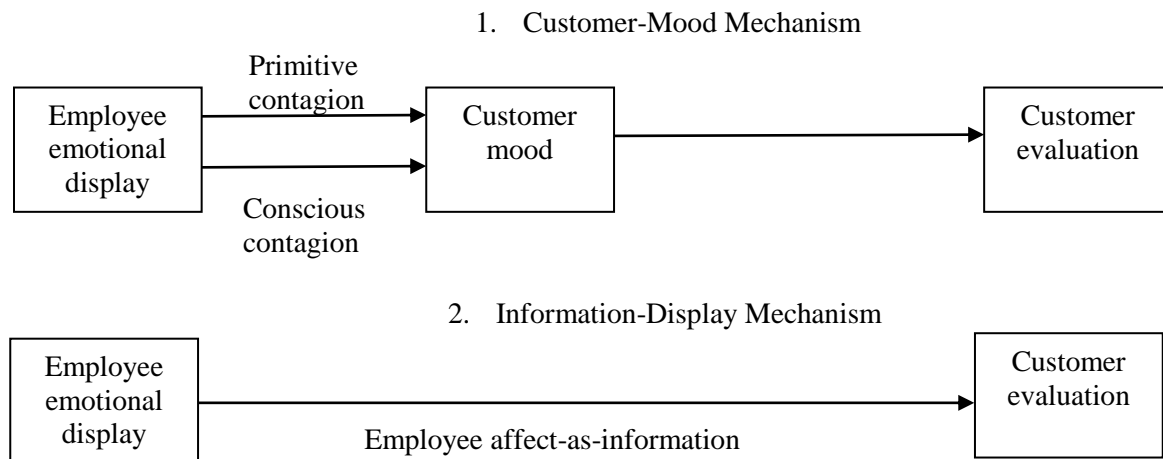


Figure 12 Customer-Mood and Information-Display Mechanisms (Holman et al., 2008).

Based on these two contagions, customers may alter their mood by analysing the employees' mood and then regulating their emotion to correspond to the employee's mood or through automatic regulation. In this case, customers who experience a positive mood may tend to evaluate the employees positively and vice versa (Barger & Grandey, 2006). In this scenario, it would seem that the ability to regulate emotion or the customer's skills when choosing the best strategies to regulate emotion may affect customer evaluation. Although some researchers (e.g., Barger & Grandey, 2006) argued that primitive contagion may not influence the customer's mood in a service setting, there is still no strong evidence for the conscious emotional contagion process. That is, other non-contagion factors such as interpersonal affect regulation could have a significant impact on customer mood (Totterdell et al., 2004).

The second mechanism is not based on how the customer will understand or capture the employees' mood. This mechanism suggests that there is a direct link between the employees' emotional display and the customers' evaluation. This idea is based on social functions that are related to the employees' emotion. That is, employees' emotion tends to impact customer evaluation by means of the social information that could be understood from

displaying emotion (Cote, 2005). It should be noted that it is important to show genuine emotion in order to gain positive evaluation (Grandey, 2003). In other words, those positive faked emotions that are developed by surface acting may lead to negative evaluation while a positive genuine display of emotion brought about by deep acting is more likely to gain positive evaluation.

Research on emotional labour has found impact upon other forms of job performance (Holman et al., 2008). For example, deep acting was found to be better related to self-reported performance than surface acting (Totterdell & Holman, 2003). Also, reappraisal strategy use was found to lead to better job performance compared to suppression of emotion as it needs less resources which leads to a better focus on the task (Wallace, Edwards, Shull & Finch, 2009).

Another model has suggested that affect impacts job performance by sharing the available resources, affecting the attentional focus, and thereby resulting in specific responses (Beal et al., 2005). Beal and his colleagues (2005) suggested that affect and job performance are based on episodes that are in turn based on time-bound units of work-related tasks, experiences, and behaviours. Based on their model, the variation between performance episodes (e.g., focus on the task vs. being distracted from the task) is mainly affected by the resources that are available when performing a task. These resources are affected by the individuals' ability to regulate their attention.

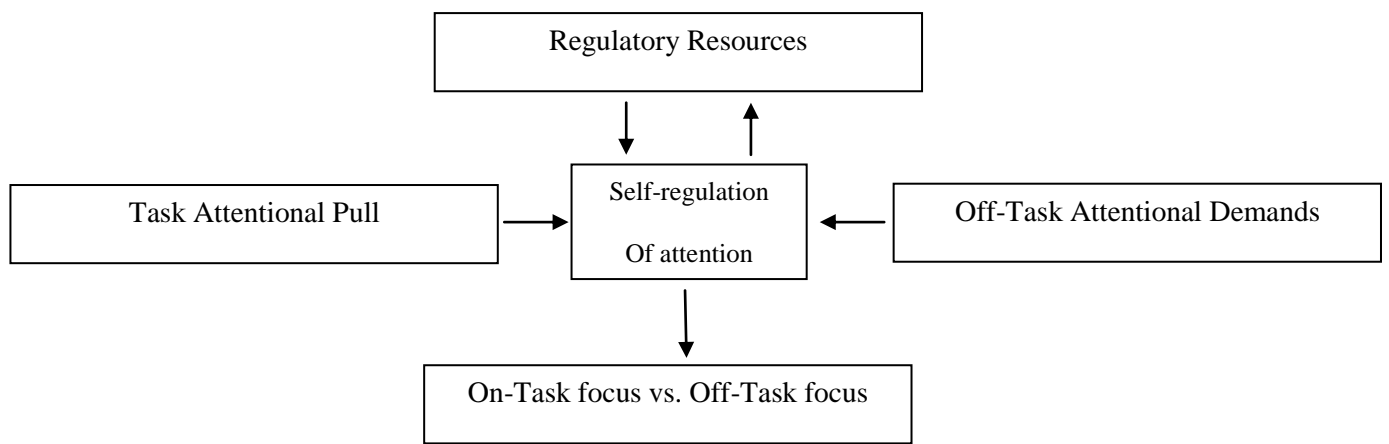


Figure 13 A Conceptual Model of Processes that Determine Within-Person Episodic Performance (Beal et al., 2005).

When people go to work, they usually draw on various resources such as skills, cognitive ability, knowledge, and experiences that are related to job tasks. People, in general, may vary in the amount of resources that are available to them when performing a particular task. As a result, there are significant differences between individuals' performances. That is, when people have the ability to capture these resources and direct their attention to a task, they are more likely to achieve this task (Beal et al., 2005). (Beal et al., 2005). However, when they fail to do so, they are more likely to lose their focus and be distracted from the task. Based on Figure 13, the person's ability to regulate attention (including resources) plays a key role in performing tasks. Three main factors could impact the association between affect and episodic performance. First, affective states and events can produce attentional demands that drive employees off-task. As a result, individuals need to regulate their attention so as to keep it on the task at hand. Second, in order to focus on a task, people need to regulate their own attention to such a task. In this scenario, the role of emotion regulation is important as a way towards keeping focus on the task. Although there are some emotion regulation strategies such as suppression which may not be helpful in focusing on performing a task, there are others such as reappraisal that may help in this situation. Finally, when the task itself is favourable to the employees for any reason (e.g., money, hobby, or holy work), it would then be easier for the employees to regulate their attention (and their emotion) in order

to keep up with the task. Based on these factors, there should be an association between affect and performance episodes.

A meta-analysis was conducted in order to assess the relationship between job performance and emotional intelligence (O'Boyle, Humphrey, Pollack, Hawver & Story, 2010). This meta-analysis was based on a previous meta-analysis but with 65% more studies, which was more than twice the sample size. It was concluded that emotion regulation, as part of emotional intelligence, has a significant influence on job performance. The correlation range for the relationship between job performance and emotion regulation was between .24 and .30. Janovics and Christiansen (2001) also reanalysed data from a seven-year study and found that emotion regulation predicted the job advancement criterion. Another study, which was based on high-cash collector and low-cash collector groups, found that the first group performed better than the second group on the ability to regulate emotion (Bachman, Stein, Campbell & Sitarenios, 2000).

Moreover, a study suggested that how well students managed their emotions predicted their performance when working in teams in the initial stages of a project (Jordan, Ashkanasy, Härtel & Hooper, 2002). In addition, a study that examined 44 analysts and clerical employees from 400 insurance companies found that emotion regulation ability was associated with greater merit and higher company rank (Lopes, Grewal, Kadis, Gall & Salovey, 2006). All these findings indicate that emotion regulation ability should influence job performance. Thus, as emotion regulation behaviour was linked to the ability to regulate emotions (Niven, Totterdell, Stride, et al., 2011), it is to be expected that using positive or negative emotion regulation strategies would affect job performance too.

Work Relationships

Building effective relationships with others is increasingly considered as a healthy, normal, and adaptive means of dealing and coping with life (Jordan, Kaplan, Miller, Stiver & Surrey, 1991). Imagine a workplace without a co-worker who speaks, listens, or laughs with you. Positive relationships at work provide important social resources which could help employees to deal with strain and demands (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner & Schaufeli, 2001). Different types of social behaviour are important within the workplace such as the quality of relationships, social support, and care giving. For example, the organisational literature suggests that care-giving, social support, and friendship would increase job satisfaction, individual well-being, and individual job performance (Kahn, 1993; Riordan & Griffeth, 1995). In the current thesis, the researcher will focus on three directions of relationships at work: the relationship with co-workers, manager, and clients.

Relationship with co-workers

As the meaning of job performance has changed from focusing on fixed tasks within jobs to broader work roles in the organisation (Ilgen & Hollenbeck, 1991), interest in the role of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) has increased substantially (Organ, 1988). Organ (1988) defined OCB as “individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organisation” (p. 4).

Later, Organ (1997) suggested that it is preferable to consider OCB as “performance that supports the social and psychological environment in which task performance takes place” (p. 95). William and Anderson (1991) have distinguished OCB into two main categories: (i) organisational citizenship behaviour toward organisation (OCBO) (e.g., stays late to finish the tasks). (ii) Organisational citizenship behaviour toward individuals (OCBI)

(e.g., has a personal interest in other employees, helps other employees when they have been absent). Organisational behaviour literature has labelled the OCBO dimension as a generalised compliance and the OCBI as an altruism dimension (Smith et al., 1993). Research has shown more concern for the altruism “OCBI” dimension as it is viewed as a behaviour that occurs without external rewards while the compliant “OCBO” dimension is viewed as a behaviour that occurs for an expected reward or the avoidance of punishment (Williams & Anderson, 1991).

Based on Williams and Anderson’s (1991) measure, McAllister (1995) developed a measure that assesses the OCBI and consists of: (i) affiliative citizenship; and (ii) assistance-oriented citizenship. Since some researchers considered the OCBO as a part of the job requirement measured within the assessment of job performance, and that the standard evaluation form of job performance adopted in this thesis consists of some OCBO elements, only the OCBI will be adopted.

Relationship with Manager

In addition to measuring the relationship between co-workers, measuring the relationship with the manager would increase the opportunity for a better understanding of the nature of social relationships at work. Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) designed a measure, namely, *Leader Membership Exchange* (LMX), in order to focus on the relationship from the manager’s perspective rather than the relationship between the employee and the manager. However, the scope of this thesis only covers the relationship from the employees’ perspective. The importance of measuring this relationship is due to the idea that poor relationships between managers and their employees could cause low job performance, low productivity, and high employee turnover.

Relationship with Clients

Clients play a key role in almost all organisations. Without clients, profit organisations, as well as non-profit organisations like charities, would face many financial problems. Hence, Frenkel, Korczynski, Shire, and Tam (1999) argued that front line jobs that require interactive reactions with clients are considered to be very important. As this thesis proposed to collect the data from non-profit organisations, namely, charitable organisations, no scale was found which assesses the relationship with donors despite the large number of scales designed to assess the relationship between the employee and client. As a result, a scale was developed by the researcher to assess the relationship between the employees and donors, namely *The Relationship with Donors Scale (RWD)*.

Work Reputation

Finally, another factor, namely job reputation, has a fundamental role in the workplace. Job reputation is defined as a “complex combination of salient personal characteristics and accomplishments, demonstrated behaviour, and intended images presented over some period of time” (Ferris, Blass, Douglas, Kolodinsky & Treadway, 2003, p. 213). Job reputation has been linked to interpersonal relationships (i.e., peer acceptance) as the most important condition for being an effective employee (Kanter, 1977). According to role theory (Katz & Kahn, 1978), each focal position in the organisational structure comes with certain role expectations. Those expectations are sent and received according to the organisation’s and employee’s desirable attitudes, norms, behaviours, or values. An employee acts “as a receiver or sender” and his/her behaviour should be related to those expectations (Tsui, 1984). As a result, an employee should have high job reputation when he/she is effective with regard to relevant role expectations. Scholars suggest that when employees have improved and developed their job reputation, other employees see them as trustworthy

persons (Ostrom, 2003). Also, scholars believe that reputable behaviour is cast within social exchange interactions. Befu (1977) showed that social exchange theory explains social stability and change as a process of exchanges between people. One basic concept of this theory is benefit, which includes emotional comfort, gaining money, or even desirable behaviour. As a result, when an employee exhibits highly reputable behaviour, others would see him/her as a beneficial person and this mechanism will increase social exchange interaction.

Emotion Regulation and Work Relationships

Information about one's intentions, thoughts, and behaviour during social interactions could be transferred by verbal/nonverbal emotional expressions (Buck, 1984). It has been shown that sociability is associated with positive emotions which tend to elicit favourable responses from others, while negative emotions often drive people away (Argyle, 1990; Furr & Funder, 1998). In addition, in his social interaction model, Cote (2005) argued that the display of emotion reveals information about the sender's goals and intentions and provides signals to receivers in a social feedback loop. In this loop, it was shown that the process of emotion regulation influences social functions. In other words, when employees display a favourable behaviour, which is regulated by emotion regulation strategies, the customer tends to respond in a favourable manner which in turn will affect positively their relationship and the employee's reputation. Accordingly, people need to regulate their emotions effectively to succeed in their social life, which leads to the inference that effective emotion regulation will improve interpersonal relationships at work.

A study among 400 insurance companies indicated that employees who had high ability to regulate emotions obtained better ratings of interpersonal facilitation and stress tolerance from their colleagues and supervisor (Lopes et al., 2006). Research has also found

that a higher ability to regulate emotions is related to positive outcomes, such as positive peer and family relations, parental warmth, and pro-social behaviour (Salovey, Mayer, Caruso & Lopes, 2001) while a lower ability to regulate emotions is associated with self-destructive behaviour, such as cigarette smoking and deviant behaviour (Brackett & Mayer, 2003; Trinidad & Johnson, 2002).

In a study that used a sample of 500 Canadian and 204 Scottish participants, it was concluded that emotion regulation, as part of emotional intelligence, was positively associated with relationship quality (Austin, Saklofske & Egan, 2005). In addition, Pau, Croucher, Sohanpal, Muirhead and Seymour (2004) found that students with a high ability to regulate and manage emotions were more likely to exhibit social and interpersonal skills.

As to the quality of relationships, Lopes et al. (2004) conducted two studies using 118 college students in the first study and 106 undergraduate students in a second, diary study. They found that higher scores for the ability to regulate emotion were positively related to the quality of relationships with friends. In the second study, the ability to regulate emotion was evaluated separately for the relationships between participants and two of their opposite sex friends. They found that the ability to regulate emotion was positively associated the quality of relationships with those friends. Based on these findings, it seems likely that emotion regulation would significantly impact work relationships.

Organisational Commitment

Organisational commitment has an important place in the organisational behaviour literature. Its importance is attributed to the association between organisational commitment, behaviours and attitudes in the workplace (Angle & Perry, 1983; Porter, Steers, Mowday & Boulian, 1974). For example, in a study that measured a type of organisational commitment, the continuance commitment, it was found that this type of commitment is related to how

often the employees were absent (Gellatly, 1995). Another study, among a group of nurses, found that nurses with higher levels of absence had lower levels of organisational commitment (Sommer, Bae & Luthans, 1996). In a study of a group of insurance workers, it was found that employees who had lower levels of absenteeism and turnover had higher levels of commitment (Blau & Boal, 1987). Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993) also found that employees with high commitment showed high organisational citizenship behaviour.

Wastie (2005) argued that early research focused on defining the concept of organisational commitment; and despite the fact that research on organisational commitment has its roots in the 1960s, scholars have yet to agree on an overall scientific definition of organisational commitment. Bateman and Strasser (1984) defined organisational commitment as “multidimensional in nature, involving an employee’s loyalty to the organisation, willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organisation, degree of goal and value congruency with the organisation, and desire to maintain membership” (p. 95). Becker (1960) conceptualised commitment in terms of a consistent body of activities that are attributed to recognition of costs associated with quitting; while Porter et al. (1974) identified commitment-related behaviours and attitudes as “the strength of individual’s identification with an involvement in a particular organisation. Such commitment can be characterized by at least three factors: (i) strong belief in and acceptance of the organisation’s goals, (ii) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation, (iii) and a definite desire to maintain organisational membership” (p. 604). However, Buchanan (1974) had argued that the definition should combine employee commitment and organisational commitment. Accordingly, Meyer and Allen (1991) categorised commitment into three factors: affective commitment, normative commitment, and continuance commitment.

Affective Commitment

Affective commitment is defined as the emotional involvement, identification, and attachment that an employee shares with an organisation (Meyer et al., 1993; Mowday, Porter & Durbin, 1974). Scholars suggest that affective commitment occurs when an employee identifies with an organisation for the sake of gaining membership to facilitate his/her goal or that of the organisation (Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979). Accordingly, employees may prefer to stay with an organisation because of their feelings of attachment to the organisation (Meyer et al., 1993).

Normative Commitment

Bolon (1997) defined normative commitment as the belief that an employee has in the organisation or his/her feeling of obligation towards the workplace. Normative commitment was also once defined as being a “generalised value of loyalty and duty” (Weiner, 1982). It has been argued that normative commitment is affected by the social environment (e.g., it could be explained by family, religion, or marriage commitment). As a result, when it comes to employees’ commitment to their organisations, they believe that they have moral obligations to their organisations (Weiner, 1982). Thus, the employees’ moral obligations would stimulate them to remain with the organisation (Meyer et al., 1993).

Continuance Commitment

Continuance commitment refers to the willingness to remain in an organisation according to the investments that the employees have with “non-transferable” investments. Non-transferable investments consist of things like relationships with other employees, retirement benefits that the employee may receive, or years of employment (Reichers, 1985). Scholars have found that employees who show high continuance commitment rarely leave the

organisation and remain in it because they feel they have to (Meyer et al., 1993). Within organisational literature, affective and continuance commitment have been studied more than normative commitment. Meyer and Allen (1997) suggest that the three types of commitment may have different relationships with job outcomes. For example, affective commitment was found to be positively associated with job satisfaction, job performance, and helping others in the workplace, while continuance commitment was related to the outcomes associated with increasing the salary such as work experience and employment status (Meyer et al., 1993). The different relationships observed between commitment and outcomes in previous research may be attributable to the differences between affective commitment and continuance commitment.

Emotion Regulation and Organisational Commitment

In various studies, scholars found that students' academic commitment and success are related to emotion regulation (Nelis et al., 2009). For instance, a study among 288 university students concluded that the regulation of emotions is related to a high level of commitment within the context of finding a particular job (Brown, George-Curran & Smith, 2003). Another study, conducted within a workplace context, concluded that people who have higher emotional intelligence are more committed towards their organisations than people with lower emotional intelligence, and the authors attributed this relationship to the influence of one's ability to regulate emotion on organisational commitment (Sy, Tram & O'hara, 2006). Another two field studies suggest that emotional dissonance, which refers to a state of conflict between internal experiences of emotions and public displays of emotions (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993), is associated with low organisational commitment (Abraham, 1999; Morris & Feldman, 1997). Carson and Carson (1998) also found that emotion regulation ability has a positive association with organisational commitment. Accordingly, Cooper and Sawaf (1997) suggest that employees who regulate their emotions more

effectively are more likely to be committed, and therefore more likely to be successful in their jobs. Together, these findings provide solid evidence that emotion regulation is related to organisational commitment.

Well-being at the Work

Since the 1950s, the structure of emotional well-being has been widely investigated. Warr (1990) pointed out that organisational researchers have examined how work and career impact on job-related and non-job-related aspects of well-being. Several measures of job-related affective well-being have been developed and cover concepts such as alienation from work, satisfaction, job tension, involvement, job morale, job attachment, burnout, and depression (Cook, Hcpworth, Wall & Warr, 1981).

Scholars indicate that psychological well-being is a multi-dimensional and complex construct. In its simplest form, it refers to “a generalized feeling of happiness” (Schmutte & Ryff, 1997, p. 551). This view relates job-well-being to life satisfaction and happiness. Ryff (1995) viewed well-being as a construct that is more accurately understood as consisting of aspects of positive functioning. In order to capture these aspects, Ryff (1989) suggested a multi-dimensional model of psychological well-being. This model contains dimensions such as self-acceptance, which refers to the breadth of wellness consisting of positive evaluation of one’s life, oneself, and one’s past life. However, two orthogonal dimensions, viz. pleasure and arousal, have become the most accepted dimensions of well-being because they have been found to account for the majority of observed variance (Gehm & Scherer, 1988; Lang, 1995; Warr, 1987; Watson et al., 1985; Zcvon & Tcllegen, 1982). One of the most important theoretical models of job-related affective well-being is that of Warr (1987). Based on arousal and pleasure dimensions, Warr (1987) suggested that three key sub-categories would describe the intensity and content of those dimensions: (i) displeased-pleased; (ii) depression-enthusiasm; and (iii) anxious-contentment. Recently, he changed the third axis to anxious-

comfort (Warr, 1994, 2007). Warr's scales (1990), which consist of 12 items that represent only the second and the third dimensions, has shown high construct validity and reliability (Makikangas et al., 2007). Figure 14 illustrates these three indicators of job well-being:

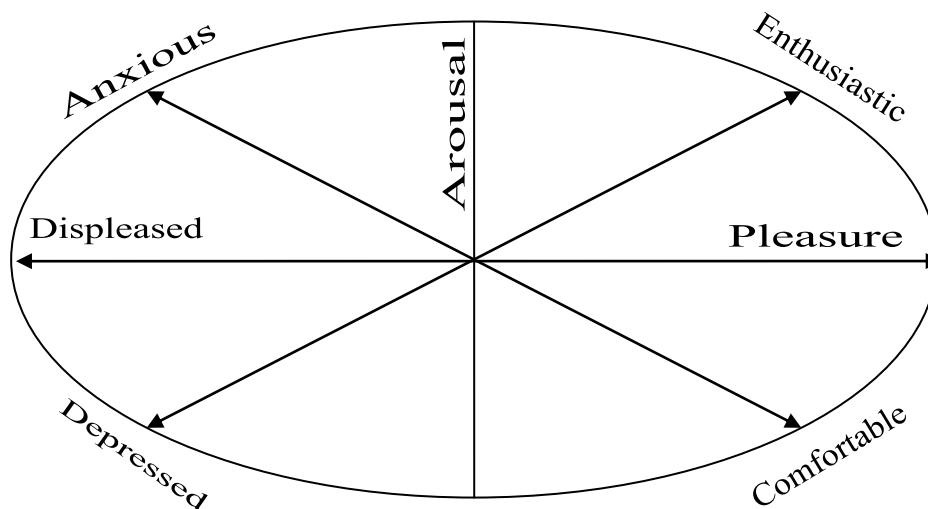


Figure 14 The Three Principal Axes of Warr's Affective Well-being Measure (Warr, 1990).

Job Satisfaction

In addition, scholars have found that job well-being is associated with job satisfaction (e.g., evaluations of working conditions, equitable wages, safe work-environment, and opportunities for advancement) (Mirvis & Lawler, 1984). Scholars have defined job satisfaction as pleasurable emotional states which result from the appraisal of an individual's job (Brief & Weiss, 2001). Baba and Jamal (1991) suggested that well-being is associated with work role ambiguity, job satisfaction, job stress, organisational commitment, job involvement, work role overload, work role conflict, and turn-over intentions. They argue that job satisfaction should be examined as part of job well-being. Warr, Cook, and Wall (1979) also concluded that there are some relevant factors that would affect well-being, including job and life satisfactions. In particular, Warr et al. (1979) showed that a moderate association was found between total life satisfaction and happiness, and total job satisfaction.

One of the most well-known job satisfaction models is the *Affect Theory* which was proposed by Locke (1969). The affect theory proposed that satisfaction is determined by a lack of discrepancy between what an individual has and what an individual wants in a job. Another well-known model of job satisfaction is the *Two Factors Theory* “*Motivator Hygiene Theory*” which was developed by Herzberg (1959). This theory attempts to explain job satisfaction in terms of intrinsic and extrinsic sources (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). It suggests that motivation as an intrinsic source (e.g., advancement, growth, achievement), and the hygiene factor as an extrinsic source (e.g., supervisory practices, company policies, pay), would affect job satisfaction. According to this theory, extrinsic factors are associated with job dissatisfaction while intrinsic factors are associated with job satisfaction (Herzberg, 1968). However, other researchers criticised this model as it was not able to measure hygiene factors or motivation (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). Alternatively, Warr (1979) had developed one of the most acceptable scientific scales, namely the *Job Satisfaction Scale* (JSS), to assess intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction. The scale showed a high construct validity and reliability in many cultures (Magnavita et al., 2007).

Emotion Regulation and Well-being at Work

People usually tend to protect their valued resources (Baumeister, Gailliot, DeWall & Oaten, 2006). These resources could be related to the individual (e.g., self- efficacy) or to context (e.g., social support) (Deci & Ryan, 1985). These resources are important as they help in achieving specific goals and reducing specific demands. Demands within the workplace could be treated as requirements or as threats to resources (Frese & Zapf, 1994). Hence, employees must deal with these demands in order to enhance their resources at work. Also, protecting these resources would require the ability to regulate behaviour. In particular, emotion regulation strategies that are used spontaneously may require less effort and fewer resources, while other strategies that are used consciously would need more effort and

resources (Muraven & Baumeister, 2000). In this scenario, employees may feel the strain when their resources are depleted. That is, replacing job resources is related to a higher sense of well-being. When employees, for example, have to complete many tasks within a short time, they are required to put in more efforts so they can finish them on time. When they have the ability to obtain and develop their efforts, they are more likely to experience an acceptable sense of well-being at work. However, when they fail to maintain these efforts, they are more likely to feel exhausted. In this scenario, employees' ability to regulate emotion may play a key role in obtaining personal resources at work which in turn will affect the employees' well-being.

In addition to the previous view about the association between emotion regulation and job well-being, Cote (2005) argued that emotion regulation affects job strain through social interaction. Cotes' model has been discussed earlier in this chapter (see Figure 11). To summarise social interaction model, he believes that emotion display provides signals to customers. These signals are affected by the employees' own emotion regulation. In this case, customers are more likely to pick up employees' emotion display to guide their own behaviour (Ohman, 2002). Finally, employees' well-being seems to be affected by the customers' responses. In particular, when employees suppress or amplify their emotion through surface acting, customers are more likely to respond in an unfavourable way as the display of emotion seems inauthentic (Cote, 2005). Hence, customers' unfavourable responses will reduce the employees' well-being. On the other hand, when employees amplify certain emotions (e.g., happiness) or suppress other emotions (e.g., anger) through deep acting, customers' responses tend to be more favourable which in turn increases employees' well-being.

Research has suggested that individuals with higher ability to regulate their emotions are able to maintain positive mental states (Mayer, Caruso & Salovey, 1999; Salovey &

Mayer, 1990). Emotion regulation, as part and parcel of emotional intelligence, was found to be a significant positive predictor of well-being and related variables (Makikangas et al., 2007; Petrides et al., 2007); while negatively related to psychopathology (Malterer, Glass & Newman, 2008). Further, emotion regulation was found to be a significant positive predictor of satisfaction with life (Ciarrochi & Scott, 2006). Another study of 102 laboratory employees compared two emotional intelligence measures and concluded that the ability to regulate emotion, compared to other dimensions of emotional intelligence, is the best predictor of life satisfaction (Law, Wong, Huang & Li, 2008). Another study also concluded that people with higher emotional intelligence are more satisfied with their jobs than others, and this relationship is attributable to the influence of emotion regulation ability on job satisfaction (Sy et al., 2006). All of these findings lead to the idea that emotion regulation would positively influence well-being at work.

On the other hand, emotion regulation could also have a negative impact on well-being at work. Research on modern organisations has found that communicating with others (e.g., managers, co-workers, and clients) could be described as demands that individuals encounter on the job. Those demands could positively or negatively affect employees' satisfaction in the workplace. Accordingly, in a longitudinal study among 111 employees, it was shown that suppression of unpleasant emotions as a negative demand reduced job satisfaction and increased intention to quit (Côté & Morgan, 2002). Another two field studies suggest that emotional dissonance is psychologically difficult and is associated with low job satisfaction, while the amplification of pleasant emotions is associated with high job satisfaction (Abraham, 1999). Drawing from the previous findings, it could be concluded that the influence of emotion regulation on well-being at the work depends on factors such as the types of emotions (pleasant or unpleasant) or on the particular emotion regulation strategies that are used (e.g., suppression vs. reappraisal).

In conclusion, the research reviewed here has shown that using emotion regulation strategies enhances the ability to regulate emotion. As organisational literature has suggested that emotion regulation ability influences job outcomes such as job performance and work relationships, it is expected that using particular emotion regulation strategies would affect specific job outcomes too. The next section will discuss the enhancement of emotion regulation behaviour in the workplace and how this improvement could affect job outcomes.

Improving Job Outcomes by Manipulating Emotion Regulation

Recently, the role of emotion regulation has received attention in the workplace development literature. Improving job outcomes through emotion regulation is an important issue within organisational literature (Hochschild, 1983). Research has argued that emotion has a crucial role in job selection and development (Caruso & Wolfe, 2001). According to action theory, which was proposed by Young, Valach, and Collin (1996), emotions play a key role in job development. Action theory suggests that emotions exist within the whole contextual dynamics of people and current events. The role of emotions in a job is played out through everyday situations (e.g., use of specific language when communicating with others). Young, Valach, and Collin (1996) proposed that emotion is associated with individual's goals, purposes, and needs. As a result, they suggested that the importance of emotion in job constructs could be attributed to: (i) emotions regulate and control action. Therefore, regulating emotions has an impact on decision-making in general; (ii) emotions energise and motivate actions. When job actions are considered as challenging or even boring, then people have to be powered by emotions to initiate these actions; (iii) emotions are able to develop and access narratives about jobs. Usually, jobs are related to people's concerns and interests, and emotions are usually used when developing narratives about jobs.

The important question here is: how could emotion regulation be enhanced? Baumeister and his colleagues (2006) discussed this question and suggested that self-

regulation is like a muscle. Muscles usually get tired after physical exercises. In the long-term, however, muscles become stronger than before. Could self-regulation be enhanced after a long-term practice? In general, people usually do better in almost everything when they do it repeatedly. Their improvement may be attributed to an increase in their understanding and knowledge. However, practice may also be effective by influencing the limited resource available for self-regulation (Baumeister et al., 1998). According to Baumeister and his colleagues (2007), this limited resource, which is akin to a form of strength, is the basic mechanism of self-regulation. Consistent with this idea, a longitudinal study showed that participants who engaged in dieting became more capable of suppressing unwanted behaviour or even persevering with hard exercise. These participants also subsequently showed more ability in managing their own money (Oaten & Cheng, 2004). Another longitudinal study indicated that participants who repeatedly engaged in laboratory tasks showed a higher ability to regulate their emotions than those who did not engage in those same tasks (Muraven, Baumeister & Tice, 1999). These two longitudinal studies suggest that self-regulation behaviour could be increased by regular exercise. Hence, by designing an experimental study with a manipulation design that encourages employees to monitor their emotion regulation behaviour regularly (i.e., daily diary), the employees' use of improving emotion regulation strategies could be enhanced while their use of worsening emotion regulation strategies could be reduced within a certain amount of time. As a result, two studies were designed to investigate whether emotion regulation could be enhanced by using two interventions that would require participants to monitor their behaviour on a daily basis.

Recently and based on the impact of emotion in daily life including work, the use of intervention methodology has increased among scholars (Matthews, Zeidner & Roberts, 2002). For example, in an experimental longitudinal study, Nelis and his colleagues (2009) found that participants who received four group-training sessions about using emotional skills

in life, showed a higher ability to regulate their emotions in the training sessions. After six months, the changes in their ability were still apparent. Another study, concerned with the use of attention in emotion regulation strategies, found that a training methodology was an effective way to improve emotion regulation behaviour (Wadlinger & Isaacowitz, 2011). However, using training methodology as an intervention may have short-term effects that do not influence outcomes in the longer term (Goleman, 1995; Matthews et al., 2002). Also, training methodology could be considered a high cost for some organisations (e.g., hiring a consultant, equipment, or a place for the training sessions). In training methodology, the knowledge and ability of the individual trainers themselves may have an important impact on outcomes such that good trainers are effective at enhancing participants' emotion regulation whereas poor trainers are not. Based on these considerations, this thesis sought another effective methodology of interventions, namely, implementation intentions and construal levels.

Research has suggested that both implementation intentions and construal levels are based on achieving goals and values that individuals admire (Gollwitzer & Sheeran, 2006; Trope & Liberman, 2010). The organisational literature suggests that when employees value particular aspects on their work, their job performance is impacted positively. For example, employees who see their job as a calling (e.g., working as a police officer, working in charity) may exert more effort than employees in other jobs in order to make the world a better place (Wrzesniewski, McCauley, Rozin & Schwartz, 1997). Accordingly, the first study in the current thesis is partly aimed at proposing a model that could help explain the effect of valuing a particular job outcome in terms of the relationship between emotion regulation behaviour and job outcomes. More information about this model will be provided later in the first study chapter.

Implementation Intentions

Recently, implementation intentions theory has attracted the attention of many researchers (Gollwitzer, 1999; Gollwitzer & Brandstätter, 1997; Gollwitzer & Sheeran, 2006). Implementation intentions have been described as if-then plans that link responses that are effective in attaining desired outcomes or goals with situational cues such as critical moments or good opportunities to act (Parks-Stamm, Gollwitzer & Oettingen, 2007). Hence, Gollwitzer and Sheeran (2006) indicated that the purpose of implementation intentions is to translate the goal intentions into action through the notion that intention realisation could be enhanced by forming if-then plans. Goal intentions were defined as those instructions that individuals give themselves to achieve certain desired outcomes or to perform particular desired behaviours (Triandis, 1980).

Studies have also indicated that if-then plans would enable individuals to deal more effectively with self-regulatory problems that may undermine goal striving. Moreover, research has shown that if-then plans can develop effective management of various problems in goal striving and increase goal attainment rates (Gollwitzer & Sheeran, 2006). It can be concluded that when goal intentions specify what people hope to achieve, implementation intentions specify the behaviour that people will perform in the situational context in order to secure goal attainment. Such a context spells out where, when, how or what people will achieve or do. Webb and Sheeran (2007) suggested that implementation intentions formation or “if-then plans” build a strong association between the specified opportunity and response. This strong association means that the if-then plan automates behaviour, i.e., action initiation becomes swift and effortless (Bargh, 1994; Sheeran, Webb & Gollwitzer, 2005).

Within the workplace, if-then plans may have a key role in promoting the use of emotion regulation strategies and thereby influence job outcomes. As literature suggested that

intentions may shape employee's job outcomes (Cascio, 2003; Wrzesniewski et al., 1997), it is expected that those intentions may also shape the use of emotion regulation in the workplace which in turn will affect job outcomes. Thus, implementation intention planners were found to deal more effectively with cognitive demands (Brandstätter, Lengfelder & Gollwitzer, 2001), act quickly (Gollwitzer & Brandstätter, 1997), and act automatically at the critical moment (Sheeran et al., 2005). In research directly concerned with emotion regulation, Webb, Ononaiye, Sheeran, Reidy, and Lavda (2010) examined the influence of implementation intentions on social anxiety by using plans to control self regulatory problems and undertake more appropriate appraisals. On the basis of four experimental studies, they concluded that implementation intentions did have an effective influence in controlling self-regulatory problems and reduced the impact of social anxiety. Although implementation intention interventions have been applied in many non-work related contexts, very few studies have applied it in a work setting. The only work-related study to date used three interventions to improve the attendance of employees in a three-month training course, the results showed that the implementation intentions intervention significantly improved attendance when compared to another intervention that was used in the study (Sheeran & Silverman, 2003). In summary, since implementation intentions have been found to be a significantly effective intervention for enhancing emotion regulation (e.g., social anxiety), the current thesis will use implementation intentions as a potentially effective intervention for enhancing emotion regulation in the workplace.

Construal Level Theory

Construal levels have been defined as “the perception of what will occur: the processes that give rise to the representation of the event itself” (Trope & Liberman, 2010, p. 445). Construal Level Theory (CLT) has distinguished two levels of construal that people use

in order to deal with events, namely, a high level and low level construal (Freitas, Gollwitzer & Trope, 2004; Trope & Liberman, 2003).

The first construal is the high-level construal. Trope and Liberman (1998) suggested that high-level construal is more likely to be abstract, coherent, and involve super-ordinate mental representations. High-level construal consists of the events and features that produce key changes in the meaning of events. Three main points would shape the construal structure: (i) scholars suggested that by changing their concern from concrete representations of an action, behaviour or object to more general representations or “abstract representation”, individuals would focus more on the main features and ignore the minor features (Trope & Liberman, 2010). (ii) Some goals may be more important than others. Action identification theory suggested that actions could be categorised into sub-ordinate or super-ordinate goals. Accordingly, construal level theory proposed that high-level construal is related to super-ordinate goals (“central goals”) that may address, for example, why an action is performed (Smith, 1998). For example, when people change their representing behaviour as in “feeling angry at the workplace because of a bad customer” to representing the same behaviour as in “showing unwanted behaviour in the workplace”, employees usually tend to think about their previous behaviour in relation to their personal/organisational goals. They may avoid showing angry feelings, and instead, they may think that showing angry feeling at a customer (e.g., yelling at him) may affect their job reputation. (iii) Employees usually tend to experience the job environment in relation to the present time (e.g., here and now) (Trope & Liberman, 2010). They may, however, also experience the job environment in relation to the past or future, other work environments, or even other people. Accordingly, employees’ plans, hopes, memories and other factors could impact their behaviours, emotions, and actions. For example, employees may not be able to experience what they have not faced in the present; they, for instance, would be able to predict what will be in the future, remember

what has happened to them in the past, or even think about others' feelings. These abilities are considered to be mental constructions that are distinct from present experience. Hence, these mental constructions tend to transform the present experience and introduce objects considered to be psychologically distant. Psychological distance is defined as "a subjective experience that something is close or far away from the self, here, and now" (Trope & Liberman, 2010, p. 441).

The second construal is low-level construal. Low-level construal attempts to be more specific by including contextual and subordinate features or the "irrelevant goals" of events. Although this level is more concrete than the higher level of construal, the changes in features engender minor changes in the meaning of events (Semin & Fiedler, 1988; Trope & Liberman, 2003). In addition, action identification theory suggested that sub-ordinate goals are more related with specific "how" details of an action. For example, an employee who looks forward to having an excellent job reputation and uses low-level construal may think about the specific details that could help him achieve this reputation instead of thinking about why this reputation is important (high-level construal).

In summary, as CLT was found to be related to self-control (Fujita & Han, 2009), and emotion regulation is a key component of self-control (Baumeister et al., 1998), high and low levels of construal should therefore affect emotion regulation. In addition, as the literature has suggested that employees' values and goals may shape their job performance (Cascio, 2003; Wrzesniewski et al., 1997), it is expected that those values and goals may also shape the use of emotion regulation in the workplace which in turn will affect job outcomes. For example, employees who engage in high-level construals should be more likely to activate their goals and values daily, be more likely to use emotion regulation strategies, and should in turn experience better job outcomes.

Research Main Objectives

Despite the great work that scholars have carried out investigating how people regulate their own and others' emotions, some critical issues remain. (i) Research on emotional labour has primarily focused on how employees alter their emotional expression by using self-regulatory behaviour. In addition, scholars have focused on using emotional expression to alter others' emotions (Niven et al., 2009). However, there has been little investigation of other forms of interpersonal emotion regulation. Also, most scholars have focused on how people improve their own or others' emotions. However, people also tend to worsen their own or other's emotions (Niven, Totterdell, Stride, et al., 2011). Hence, the current thesis will contribute to the literature by addressing how people regulate positively and negatively their own as well as others' emotions at work.

(ii) No studies have addressed the association between emotion regulation and a range of job outcomes (i.e., job performance, work relationship, organisational commitment, and job well-being) at the same time so that the relationships are studied under the same conditions. Knowing how each emotion regulation factor is associated with each job outcome could improve scholars' understanding of the influence of emotions regulation in the workplace. In addition, it may help organisations in devising training programs by showing, for example, that employees who tend to regulate positively others' emotions are more likely to have better relationship with others.

(iii) people tend to augment or reduce their use of emotion according to their values and personal goals too (Trope & Liberman, 2010). In this case, personal goals and intentions may intervene in the use of emotion regulation. In relation to this idea, only one study was found to have assessed intervening emotion regulation. Totterdell and Parkinson (1999) used an engagement and a distraction strategy as a training intervention in order to enhance mood regulation among trainee teachers. Thus, the literature still lacks studies that assess how to

enhance emotion regulation by a manipulation design. As a result, the current thesis will propose two interventions that will enhance the use of improving emotion regulation strategies and reduce the use of worsening emotion regulation strategies.

(iv) It is unknown whether modifying people's regulation of emotion can have a sustainable impact on job outcomes, such as job performance and well-being? To answer this question, an experimental longitudinal research design may be needed. In fact, no experimental study was found to have answered this question. Thus, the current thesis will aim to answer this question through experimental longitudinal research design using a daily diary study within two organisations for one month, an experimental manipulation within those studies, a pre-post questionnaire in each case, and a follow-up questionnaire survey after 8 months. If the interventions were successful, it would open up the possibility for introducing changes at work that can enhance employees' well-being and performance. Thus, this thesis will test two promising interventions that have not been used for this purpose before.

(v) Finally, does repeating the regulation of emotions influence people's ability to regulate emotions? As far as I know, no studies have tried to answer this question by using a longitudinal and a manipulation design. Thus, the current study will try to examine this question by using these designs in order to assess the sustainable effects of emotion regulation over time.

By assessing these five critical issues, the current thesis will play a key role in increasing our understanding about the role of emotion regulation at work. Thus, the current thesis is mainly aimed at achieving the following objectives: (i) to propose and test a model of how various types of emotion regulation strategies influence different kinds of job outcome; (ii) to investigate whether an implementation intention intervention can promote

effective use of emotion regulation strategies in order to enhance job outcomes; (iii) to investigate whether a construal level intervention can promote effective use of emotion regulation strategies in order to enhance job outcomes; and (iv) to examine whether the effects of the interventions on emotion regulation and job outcomes are sustained a number of months after the interventions. The next chapter will introduce the first study which is aimed at testing a model of relationship between emotion regulation and job outcomes, and examined how various types of emotion regulation strategies influence different kinds of job outcomes. The main purpose of Study 1 is to increase our understanding of the role of emotion regulation at work.

Chapter Three

STUDY 1

Introduction

Over the years, research indicated that emotion has a significant impact on organisational and individual outcomes (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Yongmei, 2006). Researchers' concern with emotion regulation may be attributed to the fact that it has been linked to certain important outcomes such as job performance (Diefendorff, Hall, Lord & Streat, 2000), relationship satisfaction (Murray, 2005), and social relationship (Brackett & Salovey, 2004). Although the concern with applying emotion regulation in the workplace has increased recently, few studies have tried to assess the relationship between particular emotion regulation strategies and specific job outcomes. For example, among 47 teachers, Maisto and Lester (1997) indicated that suppression of emotions, as a well-known emotion regulation strategy, was found to be negatively related to job satisfaction. However, this study leaves open the questions as to how other emotional regulation strategies may be related to other job outcomes. Thus, designing a study that assesses how various emotion regulation strategies may influence job outcomes would add value to the literature that focuses on handling emotions in the workplace. Since scholars have suggested that individuals' use of different emotion regulation strategies is based on situational demands (Erber, Wegner & Therriault, 1996), the current study is mainly aimed at assessing the link between different emotion regulation strategies and job outcomes. More precisely, the study used the *emotion regulation of others and self* (EROS) scale (Niven, Totterdell, Stride, et al., 2011) that focuses on those strategies used to handle one's own and others' feelings, and whether those strategies either improve or worsen people's feelings. The association between these key dimensions of emotion regulation – target of regulation (Self vs. Other) and the direction of regulation (Improve vs. Worsen) – and job outcomes has not been tested heretofore.

Beside the interests in emotion regulation behaviour in organisations, the organisational literature suggests that valuing a particular job outcome tends to affect employees' emotions and behaviour in the workplace. For example, employees who see their job as a calling (e.g., working as a police officer, working in a charity) may exert more effort than employees in other jobs in order to make the world a better place (Wrzesniewski et al., 1997). A recent general survey showed that people in the USA regard their job and how their job is meaningful and valuable to them as more important than job security, hours, or even income (Cascio, 2003). Therefore, the importance of a job outcome (IJO) - "individual's intentions toward an outcome" - may play a key role in the use of specific emotion regulation strategies within the workplace. For example, when employees who work in charity value their performance as a "holy" work, they would be more likely to improve their (and others') emotion, which in turn may impact their work relationships and/or job performance. More details about this model are given later in this chapter. It should be noted that this chapter is mainly aimed at the following: assessing the link between different emotion regulation strategies and job outcomes; investigating the impact of the association between valuing a particular job and emotion regulation on job outcomes. The main purpose of these two objectives is to increase an understanding about the role of emotion regulation at work.

The Influence of Emotion Regulation on Job Outcomes

Using the *Web of Knowledge* database, few studies were found with a direct link between emotion regulation and job outcomes. For example, when using the keywords "emotion regulation AND job performance", two studies were found; when using "emotion regulation AND job satisfaction", also two studies were found. This lack of studies suggests the importance of assessing the relationship between emotion regulation and job outcomes.

To understand the theoretical association between emotion regulation and job performance, the previous chapter discussed Holman and colleagues' models concerning the influence of employee emotional display and customer evaluation on employee performance. This influence was captured in what they called the customer-mood mechanism. Based on this mechanism, I discussed how emotion regulation could impact the association between emotion display and customer evaluation. To summarise, this mechanism suggests that employees' emotional display influences customer evaluation via customer mood. Customers may capture the employees' mood through primitive contagion (e.g., mimicking others' facial expression) or conscious emotional contagion (e.g., people may behave based on social situations). In this scenario, it seems that the ability to regulate emotion or customer skills when choosing the best strategies to regulate emotion affects customer evaluation. Moreover, Totterdell et al. (2004) argued that other non-contagion factors such as interpersonal affect regulation could have a significant impact on customer mood. Based on this theoretical view, it seems likely that emotion regulation would have a significant impact on job performance. The following paragraphs will discuss important studies that confirm this impact.

Moon and Lord (2006) presented three laboratory studies that showed emotion regulation has a key impact on task performance. In the first study, they found that the capacity to use fast emotional regulation processes predicted task performance, task satisfaction, and depression after controlling for trait affectivity. In study 2 and 3, they have replicated and extended the results of Study 1 and found that emotion regulation predict task performance when verbal ability and Conscientiousness were controlled.

Also, in a recent study that assessed the relationship between job performance and emotional intelligence, which was defined as the ability to facilitate, understand, and regulate emotions (Mayer et al., 1999), Newman and colleagues (2010) found that emotion regulation had the most significant impact on job performance. Moreover, findings from outside the

workplace suggest that regulating others' emotions positively would affect performance. When parents, for example, showed positive and supportive behaviour, as an extrinsic improving regulation strategy in relation to the emotional expression of their children, those children showed more ability to cope adaptively with positive emotion regulation in the long term (Denham, 1998). Accordingly, improving others' emotions might be expected to allow employees to induce positive affect states that improve job performance.

H1a: Extrinsic Improving Regulation Strategies will have a positive relationship with Job Performance.

In a meta-analytic review, Judge and Ilies (2002) indicated that negative emotion was negatively related to goal setting motivation and task self-efficacy. Thus, having a low task self-efficacy and being unmotivated, employees may tend to perform poorly within the workplace. In addition, another meta-analysis, based on 57 studies, indicated that negative emotion has a negative association with task performance and employee citizenship behaviour (Kaplan, Bradley, Luchman & Haynes, 2009). Accordingly, it is proposed that:

H1b: Extrinsic Worsening Regulation Strategies will have a negative relationship with Job Performance.

By involving 456 supervisor-employee dyads, De Stobbeleir, Ashford and Buyens (2011) suggested that self-regulatory behaviours shape employees' creativity in performing their job-tasks. Also, a longitudinal study that focused on the effect of the interrelationship between motivation and self-regulation behaviour on academic performance found that self-regulation plays a key role in predicting academic performance (Ning & Downing, 2010). Another study suggested that self-regulation behaviour was associated with teamwork and performance (Collins & Durand-Bush, 2010). Accordingly, it is proposed that:

H1c: Intrinsic Improving Regulation Strategies will have a positive relationship with Job Performance.

As positive self-regulation behaviour is proposed to positively impact on job performance, negative self-regulation may also affect job performance negatively. For example, when an employee is facing a hard task at work and thinks about his/her shortcomings as a negative self-regulation strategy, this cognitive strategy may distract him/her from performing this task. Therefore, it is expected that:

H1d: Intrinsic Worsening Regulation Strategies will have a negative relationship with Job Performance.

According to the social interaction model (Cote, 2005), emotion regulation affects job strain through social interaction. That is: (i) displaying employees' emotions reveals information about their goals and intentions (Van Kleef et al., 2004); (ii) emotion regulation leads to the display of emotion as consequences (Gross, 1998); and (iii) customers tend to pick up employees' emotional display in order to guide their own behaviour (Ohman, 2002). It is expected that this social feedback loop would impact employees' relationships and reputation. In particular, it is expected that improving others' emotions would lead to a positive association with work relationships. Niven, Totterdell, Stride and Holman (2011) found that extrinsic improving regulation strategies were correlated positively with interpersonal control and the ability to regulate others' emotion. This association would enhance employees' ability to have better organisational citizenship behaviour, relationships with donors, and work reputation. As a result, it is proposed that:

H2a: Extrinsic Improving Regulation Strategies will have a positive relationship with Work Relationships.

On the other hand, Furr and Funder (1998) said that people tend to keep away from others who show negative emotions. Thus, regulating others' emotion negatively would affect negatively on work relationships. Another finding indicated that worsening others' emotion has negative correlation with interpersonal control (Niven, Totterdell, Stride, et al., 2011). Accordingly, it is proposed that:

H 2b: Extrinsic Worsening Regulation Strategies will have a negative relationship with Work Relationships.

Denham et al. (2003) emphasised that self-regulation of emotion would enhance social functioning. For example, employees need to regulate their own emotions effectively to succeed in social life, which leads to the inference that effective self-regulation will improve interpersonal relationships at work. Hence, it is proposed that:

H 2c: Intrinsic Improving Regulation Strategies will have a positive relationship with Work Relationships.

Scholars found that self-destructive behaviour, such as smoking, was associated with a lower ability to regulate emotion (Brackett & Mayer, 2003). Having a lower ability to manage self-regulation may lead individuals to use negative strategies as a way to cope with work demands. Hence, Lopes et al. (2005) suggested that people with a lower ability to regulate emotions tend to have poorer interpersonal relationships. Accordingly, it is expected that:

H 2d: Intrinsic Worsening Regulation Strategies will have a negative relationship with Work Relationships.

Using the *Web of Knowledge* database, one study was found that assessed the association between emotion regulation and job commitment. Carson and Carson (1998) indicated that employees who could manage their emotion positively showed high organisational commitment. In broader terms, Cooper and Sawaf (1997) suggested that employees who trust their organisation and use their emotion more effectively could be more successful in their jobs. To explain that, Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993) defined affective commitment as the emotional involvement, identification, and attachment that an employee shares with an organisation. Also, as Meyer and Allen (1997) suggested that employees may prefer to stay with an organisation because of their feelings of attachment to the organisation.

Therefore, improving emotion regulation should affect positively the employees' emotional involvement with the organisation. It is expected that:

H 3a: Extrinsic Improving Regulation Strategies will have a positive relationship with Organisational Affective Commitment.

H 3b: Intrinsic Improving Regulation Strategies will have a positive relationship with Organisational Affective Commitment.

The converse should also be true – that negative emotion regulation strategies should be associated with less affective commitment to the organisation. Accordingly, it is expected that:

H 3c: Extrinsic Worsening Regulation Strategies would have a negative relationship with Organisational Affective Commitment.

H 3d: Intrinsic Worsening Regulation Strategies would have a negative relationship with Organisational Affective Commitment.

People usually tend to protect their valued resources (Baumeister et al., 2006). These resources are important as they help achieve specific goals and reduce specific demands. Employees must deal with these demands in order to enhance their resources at work. For example, when employees face workload, they are required to put in more effort so they can finish them on time. When they have the ability to put in those efforts, they are more likely to feel happy. However, when they fail to keep these efforts up, they are more likely to feel exhausted. In this scenario, employees' ability to regulate emotion may play a key role in acquiring personal resources at work; this, in turn, will affect the employees' well-being.

In addition, Cote (2005) argued that emotion regulation affects job strain through social interaction. That is, emotional display provides signals to customers and these signals are in turn affected by the employees' own emotion regulation. In this case, customers are more likely to be affected by the employees' emotional display (e.g., guide their own behaviour) (Ohman, 2002). As a result, employees' well-being seems to be affected by

customers' responses, which would have been affected by employees' emotion regulation in the first place.

Mayer and his colleagues (1999) suggested that individuals with higher ability to regulate their emotions are able to maintain positive mental states. Using intrinsic and extrinsic improving regulation strategies may thus influence job well-being. For example, when an employee regularly regulates other's emotion positively such as smiling at others or exhibiting his/her positive characteristics in the workplace, these behaviours would reinforce positive social feedback. In particular, positive emotions are related to greater sociability such that people who express positive emotions are more likely to have better connection with others (Fredrickson, 2001). Thus, people who improve others' emotions positively may appear to be trustworthy persons and build strong relationships with others which ultimately increases their job well-being (Staw, Sutton & Pelled, 1994). Hence, scholars found that positive emotions are closely associated with job satisfaction (Liu, Prati, Perrewé & Brymer, 2010). Accordingly, it is expected that:

H 4a: Extrinsic Improving Regulation Strategies will have positive relationship with Well-being at Work.

H 4b: Intrinsic Improving Regulation Strategies will have positive relationship with Well-being at Work.

However, Liu et al. (2010) suggested that negative emotions in the workplace are also expected to be associated with poorer job satisfaction. When an employee routinely regulates his/her or others' emotions in negative way such as displaying irritation toward others or thinking about his/her negative characteristics in the workplace, this behaviour would drive colleagues and customers away (Furr & Funder, 1998) which, in turn, may reduce the employee's well-being at work. Also, research has suggested that communicating with others could be classified as demands (Côté & Morgan, 2002). Negative regulation of others'

emotion in relation to those demands may also decrease individuals' well-being at work.

Therefore, it is expected that:

H 4c: Extrinsic Worsening Regulation Strategies will have negative relationship with Well-being at Work.

H 4d: Intrinsic Worsening Regulation Strategies will have negative relationship with Well-being at Work.

These hypotheses concerning the association between emotion regulation factors and job outcomes raise the following question: do people use the same emotion regulation strategies on themselves as they use with others? Knowing whether individuals use the same emotion regulation strategies with others may be a key to enhancing emotion regulation. Gross and Thompson (2009) concluded that managing our feelings requires the same predictive judgment for the situational selection used to regulate others' feelings. Further, people have to estimate the emotional consequences for other people (Gross & Thompson, 2009). An empirical study showed that when people try to regulate others' feelings or emotions positively/negatively, their own well-being improves/worsens (Niven, Totterdell, Holman & Headley, in press). One explanation of this effect is based on the idea of positive/negative social feedback (Niven, Totterdell, Holman & Headley, 2011). Whether the similarities between intrinsic and extrinsic emotion regulation strategies are based on social feedback or not, these studies suggest that people who use improving/worsening strategies on themselves are more likely to use these strategies with others. Therefore, it is expected that:

H 5a: There will be a positive relationship between using Intrinsic Improving Regulation Strategies and Extrinsic Improving Regulation Strategies.

H 5b: There will be a positive relationship between using Intrinsic Worsening Regulation Strategies and Extrinsic Worsening Regulation Strategies.

Emotion Regulation and the Importance of Job Outcomes

This study hopes to assess the joint influence of valuing job outcomes and emotion regulation on job outcomes - based on the idea that emotion regulation effects could be enhanced by the employee's values and intentions. Beal and his colleagues (2005) argued that when the tasks are interesting for the employees, they regulate their attention (and emotion), thereby making it easier to focus on the tasks. However, when they have no interest in the tasks at hand, it is more likely that off-task demands will impact their attention which will in turn impact their performance negatively (e.g., being distracted from the task). In addition, Beal et al. (2005) argued that task attentional pull (e.g., the importance of the task or the interest in a task) plays a key role in determining the association between affect and performance at work. That is, it is possible that the value employees have toward an outcome will interact with positive and/or negative emotion regulation strategies, which in turn will affect job outcomes. Thus, when employees who work in charity value their performance as a "holy" work, they would be more likely to improve their (and others') emotion, which in turn may impact their work relationships and/or job performance.

Although the literature supports the general idea that valuing a job outcome influences the work-related variables, there is no specific model which proposes the interactive effect of valuing a job outcome and emotion regulation on the job outcomes. Hence, in the current study, employees were asked to rate how meaningful and valuable their job outcomes are to them. These outcomes are job performance, organisational commitment, work relationships, job reputation, job satisfaction, and well-being at work. It is expected, for example, that employees would have a better job performance and relationships when they both improve their own emotion and place more value on their job reputation. Thus, four general hypotheses were proposed:

H 6a: The Importance of Job Outcomes and Emotion Regulation will have a joint influence on Job Performance.

H 6b: The Importance of Job Outcomes and Emotion Regulation will have a joint influence on Work Relationships.

H 6c: The Importance of Job Outcomes and Emotion Regulation will have a joint influence on Organisational Affective Commitment.

H 6d: The Importance of Job Outcomes and Emotion Regulation will have a joint influence on Work-related Well-being.

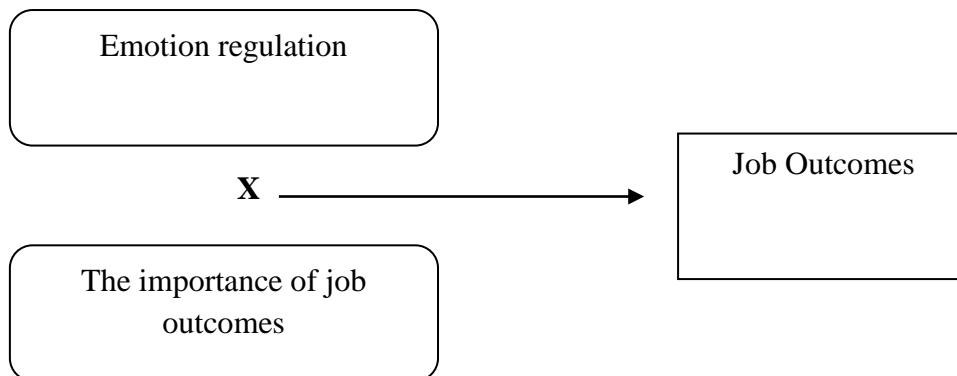


Figure 15 The Interaction Model.

On the basis of those research hypotheses, a better understanding about the mechanism of the association between emotion regulation and job outcomes would be achieved. More importantly, it would help to build a model that could improve job outcomes through emotion regulation strategies.

Method

Occupational Context

The number of non-profit organisations that are registered every year is growing by 5-6% in the United Kingdom and United States. The number of non-profit organisations in the UK has increased to 210,000 (Pharoah, 2005) and more than 1.2 million in the USA (Giving Institute, 2002). This growth is attributed to the fact that these organisations are becoming more competitive and more professional (Giving Institute, 2002). The reason for collecting data from charitable organisations was to involve a type of work where interpersonal emotion

regulation in particular is common. In addition, the regulation of emotion in these organisations is likely to have an impact on job outcomes because the nature of the job involves a high level of interpersonal interaction. As is the case for any non-profit organisation, charitable organisations are sensitive about their reputation. They may gain this reputation by building a strong relationship with clients (i.e., donors). To establish this relationship, employees need to be aware of how to regulate their emotions. To ensure that the four organisations from which data were collected would experience a high level of interpersonal interaction, the researcher met with one administrative manager from each organisation. The managers confirmed that almost all employees experience high levels of interpersonal interaction with their co-workers or with donors. For example, some employees work outside their office. They collect donations from houses, streets, markets and deal with people who may express undesired behaviours, such as shouting at the employees. This situation requires the ability to regulate one's own emotions and those of others. Moreover, the researcher invited employees from each organisation to attend a workshop on the importance of emotions in the workplace. At the end of the workshop, many employees even those who have office work, e.g., a financial job, said that working in a charity requires expressing positive emotion behaviour with their managers, co-workers, or donors. For example, if there is a financial problem with a donor, a financial analyst may be required to go to this donor to solve this problem even if he/she is not working in a front-line job. Accordingly, whatever the job in charitable organisations, most employees need to regulate their emotions and those of others regularly.

Participants

A total of 550 questionnaires were submitted to the biggest four charitable organisations in Kuwait, and 230 questionnaires were returned for a 42% response rate. In a comprehensive analysis of 175 studies that included around 200,000 responses, Baruch

(1999) concluded that the average response rate is 55.6%. The response rate in the first study could be considered adequate because of the length of the questionnaire and the workload involved in completing it. The participants voluntarily participated in the research during their work time, and comprised 182 males and 35 females (13 participants did not indicate their gender), aged between 23 to 63 years ($M = 38.03$ years, $SD = 8.62$). The average experience for working in charity was 11.53 years and ranged from 1 to 42 years ($SD = 7.16$). About half of the sample (55.3%) had higher-level education (e.g., bachelor or master's degree). As the employees participated voluntarily and were randomly sampled within the organisations, the four main job-types that are found in charities were included in the study: administrative job (52.6%), fundraiser job (15.7%), finance job (14.8%), technical job (3.8%) and other job types (13.1%).

Measures

The participants completed a structured questionnaire booklet during their working time. In accordance with Brislin's guidelines (1976), all of the scales were translated into Arabic by using the back and forward translation method. A committee of three psychologists who teach at Kuwait University and are proficient in the English language in addition to being researchers translated the questionnaires to Arabic. Then, another committee translated the Arabic version to English and no changes were recommended. The purpose of the committee of psychologists was to be sure that the psychological meanings were not lost or changed in the translation process. The response format for the majority of the scales was a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from "I strongly disagree" to "I strongly agree"; while other scales' response format was a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from "Not at all" to "Great deal". The scales' response formats were not changed to match each other because the scales were based on validated measures and this procedure might have changed their validity and reliability.

The questionnaire booklet consisted of three sections and comprised 8 pages. Section one concerned emotion regulation while section two contained the job outcomes. The last section concerned the control variables that may influence emotion regulation behaviour in the workplace. Also, the questionnaire booklet included demographic questions such as age, job tenure, educational level, marital status, number of family members, citizenship status, job status, and job type. A copy of the questionnaire booklet is presented in Appendix 4.

Section I:

Emotion regulation: Emotion regulation was measured by the *Emotion Regulation of Others and the Self (EROS)* which was developed by Niven, Totterdell, Stride, and Holman (2011). EROS has been used in this thesis for four reasons. These reasons were discussed in the second chapter when introducing the measuring of emotion regulation strategies. Niven et al. (2011) have divided EROS into two major dimensions and each one of them consists of two sub-scales: the first assesses the strategies that are used to handle one's own feelings and whether those strategies are used to either improve (6 items) or worsen feelings (4 items), while the second assesses the strategies that are used to handle others' feelings and whether those strategies are used to either improve (6 items) or worsen feelings (3 items). Sample items are: "I thought about my positive characteristics to try to make myself feel better" (Intrinsic Improving strategies); "I looked for problems in my current situation to try to make myself feel worse" (Intrinsic Worsening strategies); "I gave someone helpful advice to try to improve how s/he felt" (Extrinsic Improving strategies); "I told someone about their shortcomings to try to make him/her feel worse" (Extrinsic Worsening strategies). In this study, the internal consistency reliability of four sub-scales, i.e., Intrinsic Improving strategies, Intrinsic Worsening strategies, Extrinsic Improving strategies, and Extrinsic Worsening strategies, was .86, .75, .88, and .64 respectively.

The importance of job outcomes: As the literature suggests, people regard their job and how their job is meaningful and valuable to them as more important than job security, hours, or even income (Cascio, 2003). An item was therefore thus designed by the researcher to assess the importance of seven job outcomes. Participants indicated which job outcome is the most important to them by giving it the highest number (7) until the least important outcome which was given the lowest number (1). For example, if the relationship with co-workers is the most important outcome for an employee, he/she will give it the highest number (7), whereas if he/she indicates that organisational commitment is the least important outcome, he/she will give it the lowest number. These outcomes are job performance, organisational commitment, work relationships, job reputation, job satisfaction, and well-being at work. More information about each outcome will be discussed in section II.

Section II:

Job Performance: Six items developed by Griffin, Neal, and Parker (2007) were used to measure *Individual Task Adaptivity* (3 items) and *Individual Task Proactivity* (3 items) (*ITAP*) as important elements for job performance. The reason for using this particular measure was that the work in charity organisations is uncertain. According to Griffin et al. (2007), proactivity and adaptivity are important especially when the work context is uncertain and some of the work roles cannot be formalised. Sample items are: “I adapted well to changes in core tasks” (Individual task adaptively); “I initiated better ways of doing my core tasks” (Individual task proactivity). The response format for this scale was a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from “very little” to “a great deal”. Alpha coefficient for individual task proactivity and adaptivity was reported as .73 and .67, respectively (Griffin et al., 2007). The current study suggested that the alpha coefficients for individual task proactivity, individual task adaptivity, and the combination of them (*ITAP*) were .74, .76, and .82, respectively.

The second job performance measure was designed by the researcher and consists of one self-report item that assesses the *General Job Performance (GJP)*. Due to the booklet's length, minimising the number of questions became necessary. This item summarised the expectation of individuals about their job performance at work. The item is, "In general, how you evaluate your job performance?" The response format is a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from "Fair" to "Excellent".

The third job performance measure is the *Standard Evaluation of Job Performance Measure (SEJP)*. In Kuwait, the Ministry of Social Affairs and Labour has a standard job evaluation for charitable organisations. Hence, this form was used in the current research. Also, three reasons lead me to adopt this evaluation form on job performance: (i) the managers are more familiar with it; (ii) it is possible to compare an individual's job performance with the last two years; (iii) and the chance to compare between organisations is greater if they have a standard evaluation form. The job performance form consisted of three sections: Individual Performance Tasks (7 items); Collective Performance Tasks (4 items); and Personal Capabilities (4 items). The scale's items are presented in Table 1. The current study showed that the internal reliability (Cronbach's alpha) for SEJP, Individual Performance Tasks, Collective Performance Tasks, and Personal Capabilities was .95, .72, .97, and .96, respectively.

Table 1

The Standard Evaluation Form of Job Performance among Charitable Organizations in Kuwait.

Individual Performance Tasks
1. Maintain the official opening hours
2. The amount and precision performance
3. Take responsibility and the ability to act and work with minimal supervision
4. The ability to work under pressure and exceptional circumstance
5. Maintain the implementation of rules and regulation
6. Maintain the assets and property of the work place
7. Initiative in offering constructive suggestions
Collective Performance Tasks
8. Cooperation with colleagues or teamwork members
9. Effectiveness of oral and written communication
10. Dealing with bosses
11. Work on transferring experience to others
Personal Capabilities
12. Personal appearance and commitment of good behaviour
13. Acceptance of criticism and suggestions
14. Development of endogenous capacities in the area of work
15. language skills and Computer skills

Relationships at work: Four main scales were adopted in this study. The first assesses *Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)*. It was developed by McAllister (1995) and includes 10 items that measure affiliative and assistance-oriented citizenship. This measure was adopted because Organ (1988) suggested that OCB could positively affect the effectiveness in the workplace. Sample items are: “I take time to listen to the problems and worries of other employees” (Affiliative citizenship) and “I help other employees with difficult tasks even when they don’t directly ask for assistance” (Assistance – oriented citizenship). The reliability of affiliative citizenship and assistance-oriented citizenship was reported as .81 and .82 respectively (McAllister, 1995). Because the large number of

variables included in the study, the total scale (OCB) was used instead of two sub-scales. The current study showed that the internal reliability for OCB was .78.

The second scale was the *Relationship with Donors Scale (RWD)*, which was developed by the researcher to assess the relationship between employees and donors in charitable organisations. As this thesis intends to collect the data from non-profit organisations such as “charitable organisations”, no scale was found which assesses the relationship with donors despite the large number of scales designed to assess the relationship between the employee and client. The RWD scale consists of 6 items that measure the relationship with donors. Sample items are: “I established a personal and distinct relationship with donors” and “I made easily new relationships with new donors” (the diversity of the relationship). The current study showed that the internal reliability for RWD was .92. Four criteria were used in order to assess suitability for factor analysis. First, there are significant correlations between all the RWD’s items ($r_s \geq .57$). This would suggest that there are acceptable correlations between the RWD’s items. Second, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .85, which is above the recommended value of .6. Third, Bartlett’s test of sphericity was significant ($\chi^2 = 335.17, p < .01$). That is, this test suggests that the correlation matrix is not an identity matrix. Finally, the communalities, which are the proportion of each variable's variance, were all above .8. This would suggest that all items might share some common variance. Based on these criteria, factor analysis was conducted with all 6 items. Principal components analysis was used as its main purpose is to identify the factors that may assess the relationship with donors. The initial Eigen values showed that only one component could be extracted. That is, PCA showed that the six items extracted 1 component and explained 71% of the variance. Since only one factor was extracted, no rotation of the factor-loading matrix was used. During the previous steps, all items showed a primary loading over .80.

The third scale is *Leader Membership Exchange (LMX)* (Graen & Uhl-Bien 1995). As the LMX is focused on the manager's perspective more than the employee's perspective, one item was adopted. That item was, "How would you characterise your working relationship with your supervisor?" The response format is a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from "Extremely ineffective" to "Extremely effective". One item was designed and added to the previous item to assess the relationship between employees and supervisors: "When compared to your colleagues, how good is your relationship with your supervisor?" The response format is a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from "Bad relationship" to "Ideal relationship". The scale had an acceptable alpha coefficient (.80). In addition, three criteria were used to assess suitability for factor analysis. First, there are significant correlations between the two items ($r = .67$). Second, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .50, which is below the recommended value of .6. Principal components analysis showed that only one component could be extracted. That is, PCA showed that the two items extracted 1 component and explained 83% of the variance. Both items showed a primary loading over .80.

Finally, an item from *Relative Reputational Effectiveness (RE)* scale developed by Tsui (1984) was used to measure reputation in the workplace. Work reputation has been linked to interpersonal relationships (i.e., peer acceptance) as the most important condition for being an effective employee (Kanter, 1977). The participants answered this one item in relation to themselves. The item is, "Relative to all other employees that you know in the organisation, what is your personal view of your reputation in terms of your overall effectiveness in your job role". The response format is a 9-point Likert-type scale ranging from "A great deal lower" to "A great deal higher".

Organisational commitment: *Organisational Commitment Scale (OC)*, developed by Allen, Meyer, and Smith (1993), was used in this study. It consists of three sub-scales:

Affective Commitment (AC), Normative Commitment (NC), and Continuance Commitment (CC). This scale was adopted since it has been used widely among researchers and factor analyses has shown that AC, NC, and CC are distinct from one another (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Each sub-scale has 6 items. Sample items are: “I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation” (Affective Commitment); “I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer” (Normative Commitment); “Right now, staying with my organisation is a matter of necessity as much as desire” (Continuance Commitment). The Alpha coefficient for AC, NC, and CC in Study 1 was .66, .69, and .53, respectively.

Well-being at work: Two scales were used to assess well-being at work. The First scale is *the Job-Related Affect Scale (JRA)*. It was developed by Warr (1990) and consists of 12 items that index positive and negative affects at work. The positive affects include two main components: Comfort (3 items) and Enthusiasm (3 items), while the negative affects include Anxiety (3 items) and Depression (3 items). Participants were asked to indicate how often their job made them feel positive or negative during the last month. The response format was a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from “Never” to “Always”. The current study showed that the Alpha coefficient for the overall affect scale, Anxiety, Depression, Comfort, and Enthusiasm is .84, .76, .73, .64, and .74 respectively.

The second scale is the *Job Satisfaction Scale (JSS)* by Warr, Cook, and Wall (1979). This scale was adopted as it has shown high reliability and validity and it has been one of the most widely used measures for assessing job satisfaction (Stride, Wall & Catley, 2007). The JSS scale consists of 16 items that measure intrinsic and extrinsic job motivation. Sample items are: How satisfied are you with “The freedom to choose your own method of working” (Intrinsic Satisfaction); “The amount of responsibility you are given” (Extrinsic Satisfaction). The scale had an acceptable alpha coefficient (.88) (Lawson, Noblet & Rodwell, 2009), while

The current study showed that the internal reliabilities for Job Satisfaction, Extrinsic Satisfaction, Intrinsic Satisfaction were .91, .87, and .78, respectively.

Section III:

Suppression: Four items were used from the *Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (ERQ)* which was developed by Gross and John (2003). As there is a negative predicted association between suppression and both well-being and interpersonal functioning (Gross & John, 2003), suppression of emotion may play a key role in the workplace. An example item is, “When I am feeling positive emotions, I am careful not to express them”. The response format was a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from “Disagree very much” to “Agree very much”. The scale’s reliability was .71 in the pre-college assessment and .77 in the on-campus assessment (Srivastava, Tamir, McGonigal, John & Gross, 2009), while the current study indicated that the scale’s reliability is .70.

Religious behaviour and work: Five items were designed by the researcher to assess the impact of *Religious Behaviour in Workplace (RBW)*. Many studies have suggested that religion plays a significant role in helping individuals to cope with stress, and even to protect themselves from it (Watts, 2009). Working in charitable organisations tends to attract people with faith. This faith may influence the employee’s behaviour as well as the job outcomes. An example of the items is “I tried as much as I could not to be absent from work without excuse as it is a religious virtue”. The response format was a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from “Never” to “Always”. The alpha coefficient for the RBW was .71. Four criteria were used to assess suitability for factor analysis. First, there are significant correlations among all the RBW’s items. However, these correlations are between weak and moderate correlations. For example, the correlation between the item “I commit to maintain the work regulations as a responsibility established by religious virtue” and the item “I do my

best at work as a religious virtue more than anything else (salary, bonus)” is .55; while the correlation between the item “I try as much as I could not to be absent from work without excuse as it is a religious virtue” and the item “I increase doing the religious virtues as I believe that it will increase the pleasure and decrease the stress at work” is .18. Second, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .75, above the recommended value of .6. Third, Bartlett’s test of sphericity was significant ($\chi^2 = 194.20, p < .01$). Finally, the communalities have a variance scores from .30 to .60. This would suggest that all items might share some common variance. Based on these criteria, factor analysis was conducted with all 5 items. Principal components analysis showed that only one component was extracted and explained 47% of the variance. Regarding factor loading, almost all items showed a satisfactory primary loading of over .60 except this item “I increase doing the religious virtues as I believe that it will increase the pleasure and decrease the stress at work” which showed an acceptable loading of .56.

Procedure

After having acquired the ethical approval from the Department of Psychology’s Ethics Committee for conducting this research, the researcher was looking to collect the data from organisations that experience a high level of interpersonal interaction. As a result, one meeting was arranged with a manager from the Ministry of Social Affair and Labour in Kuwait. This manager suggested that charitable organisations may be among the most experienced organisations in terms of the high level of interpersonal interaction. Among dozens of charitable organisations in Kuwait, he suggested that four organisations are considered the biggest charitable organisations in Kuwait. According to the International Islamic Charitable Organisation’s website, these organisations are involved with: “Providing essential care for the needy; Removing the suffering of needy people and helping them attain

lasting improvements in their life so that they live in dignity and never be in need again; Helping people help themselves through self-sustainable projects that give the needy the opportunity to rely on themselves, be productive, and not be a burden on others; Elimination of illiteracy, one of the main obstacles that hinder the development of poor countries” (International Islamic Charitable Organization, 2011). Accordingly, the researcher arranged meetings with the administrative managers of these four organisations to discuss and explain the research and how the organisation would benefit from applying the research. They all agreed to participate in the research after the meetings. Also, It was agreed that each organisation would receive feedback on the results as a condition for collecting the data from them.

The researcher then invited the employees from each organisation to attend a workshop on the importance of emotion in the workplace. The invitation was sent to every employee and manager in those organisations by the internal office outlook. About 50 to 80 employees from each organisation attended these workshops. The purposes of these workshops were to discuss the role of emotion in the workplace, explain the main objectives of the research, and invite them in person to participate in the research. As a result, some employees agreed to participate in the research. Later, the researcher handed the questionnaire booklet out to the participants in person and asked them to complete it. In addition, personal and demographical data questions were included in the questionnaire booklet. The participants were assured that (i) their data would be treated confidentially and used for research purposes only, (ii) only the researcher would have access to individual data, and (iii) managers would not have any access to individuals’ responses to the questionnaires. Participants were asked to write down their job number as an identification number that would help the researcher access their personal data in the organisation without knowing their names. Examples of their personal data include how many times they were absent and their

annual job evaluation. The participants were asked to return the booklet within four weeks and during these weeks, the researcher would visit each organisation twice a week to answer any questions related to the research. After one month, about half of the employees had returned the booklet, sealed in an envelope and dropped it in a box so that nobody else could look at the booklet. It was important that the employees did not submit the booklet via their managers as so doing could have affected their answers.

Statistical Data analysis

The distribution of the data was checked and nine outliers were removed. A statistical outlier was defined as “an outlying observation, or outlier, is one that appears to deviate markedly from other members of the sample in which it occurs” (Grubbs, 1969, p. 1). A small amount of missing data was also found which could be attributed to the length of the booklet. As a result, the predictive mean matching method, which “imputes missing values by means of the Nearest Neighbour Donor where the distance is computed on the expected values of the missing variables conditional on the observed covariates, instead of directly on the values of the covariates” (Di Zio & Guarnera, 2006, p. 1) was used in order to render missing values less problematic (Cohen, Cohen, West & Aiken, 2003; Schenker & Taylor, 1996). As the current study design was correlational, regression analysis was used to test the research hypotheses. The interaction models were tested and interpreted using Aiken and West method (1991).

During the statistical analysis, some variables were statistically controlled according to the expectation of their influence on the workplace. For example, there is substantial variability in job types in charitable organisations. Some of the employees are fundraisers. Sometimes, they do not have offices in the workplace as they are often required to do field work for weeks. Hence, there is a variance between their job types with those of

administration employees who would normally carry out their regular tasks in workplace offices. For that reason, the job type variable was dummy coded and covaried in the analyses. Controlling this variable was also justified by a study concerning the influence of the office design on job outcomes among 469 employees which showed that the office type had an impact on participants' job satisfaction and health status (Danielsson & Bodin, 2008).

Results

Descriptive Analysis

A descriptive analysis was conducted to assess both the distribution and frequency for the variables included in the analysis. The results showed that extrinsic improving strategies (EIS), followed by intrinsic improving strategies (IIS) were the most frequently used among participants while extrinsic worsening strategies (EWS) was the least used, EIS: $M = 3.83$, $SD = .82$; IIS: $M = 3.46$, $SD = .83$; IWS: $M = 1.77$, $SD = .78$; EWS: $M = 1.51$, $SD = .70$). The strategy that is most frequently used in the EIS is "I gave someone helpful advice to try to improve how they felt" ($M = 4.00$, $SD = .94$), while the item "I thought of the positive aspects in my situation to try to improve how I felt" ($M = 3.70$, $SD = 1.09$) is the most frequently used IIS strategy. The item "I looked for problems in my current situation to try to make myself feel worse" ($M = 2.05$, $SD = 1.12$) is the most frequently used IWS strategy while the most frequently used EWS strategy is "I explained to someone how they had hurt myself or others, to try to make the person feel worse" ($M = 1.66$, $SD = .99$). Table 2 illustrates the descriptive analysis for all items of EROS.

Table 2

The Means and Standard Deviations for Emotion Regulation Items

Items	Mean	Standard deviation
Intrinsic Improving Strategies		
I thought of positive aspects of my situation to try to improve how I felt	3.70	1.09
I thought about my positive characteristics to try to make myself feel better	3.65	0.97
I laughed to try to improve how I felt	3.39	1.06
I did something I enjoy to try to improve how I felt	3.55	1.09
I sought support from others to try to make myself feel better	3.06	1.14
I thought about something nice to try to make myself feel better	3.46	1.12
Intrinsic Worsening Strategies		
I looked for problems in my current situation to try to make myself feel worse	2.05	1.12
I expressed cynicism to try to make myself feel worse	1.69	1.01
I thought about negative experiences to try to make myself feel worse	1.70	1.01
I thought about my shortcomings to try to make myself feel worse	1.66	0.99
Extrinsic Improving Strategies		
I gave someone helpful advice to try to improve how they felt	4.00	.94
I did something nice with someone to try to make them feel better	3.80	1.03
I discussed someone's positive characteristics to try to improve how they felt	3.78	1.07
I made someone laugh to try to make them feel better	3.75	1.09
I listened to someone's problems to try to improve how they felt	3.99	0.99
I spent time with someone to try to improve how they felt	3.68	1.10
Extrinsic Worsening Strategies		
I told someone about their shortcomings to try to make them feel worse	1.55	0.98
I acted annoyed towards someone to try to make them feel worse	1.33	0.74
I explained to someone how they had hurt myself or others, to try to make the person feel worse	1.66	0.99

The descriptive analysis also concluded that the job performance factors seemed to have moderate correlations. For example, Table 3 shows that individual task adaptivity and

proactivity has a moderate correlations with general job performance (GJP), $r(222) = .36, p < .01$; and standard form for job performance (SEJP), $r(222) = .38, p < .01$. Also, Table 3 indicates that there is a moderate correlation between GJP and SEJP, $r(222) = .31, p < .01$. Job reputation (REP) was also found to have moderate correlation in terms of the relationship with supervisor (RWS), $r(222) = .47, p < .01$, the relationship with donors (RWD), $r(222) = .24, p < .05$, and organisational citizenship behaviour, $r(222) = .28, p < .05$. The results indicated that both job satisfaction and job well-being have a moderate positive correlation, $r(222) = .45, p < .01$. It should be noted that significant correlations were found between some of the job outcomes and emotion regulation strategies such as the correlations between: RWD and EIS, $r(222) = .32, p < .01$, REP and EIS, $r(222) = .24, p < .05$, and REP and EWS, $r(222) = -.28, p < .05$.

Table 3

Means, Standard Deviations, Reliability, and Correlation Values of the Variables

	Mean	Standard Deviation	Alpha Coefficient	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
OCB	3.89	0.53	.78	1.00													
RWD	3.94	1.85	.92	.19	1.00												
REP	7.76	1.16	-	.28*	.24*	1.00											
RWS	4.14	0.78	.80	.22	-.07	.47**	1.00										
ITAP	3.85	0.67	.80	.43**	.22	.29*	.14	1.00									
GJP	5.66	1.44	-	.19	.08	.28*	.37**	.36**	1.00								
SEJP	7.58	1.74	.95	.31**	-.08	.14	.26*	.38**	.31**	1.00							
AC	5.54	1.03	.69	-.09	.12	.18	.14	.20	.01	-.01	1.00						
JSS	4.96	1.07	.90	.01	.10	.13	.27*	.17	-.10	.01	.51**	1.00					
WEL	3.74	0.89	.84	.02	-.08	.22	.31**	.14	.05	-.01	.20	.45**	1.00				
IIS	3.46	.83	.86	.03	.06	.00	-.10	.19	-.12	.14	.28*	.07	.09	1.00			
IWS	1.77	.78	.88	.21	.32**	.24*	-.02	-.22	.04	.09	.16	.08	.06	.56**	1.00		
EIS	3.83	.82	.75	-.01	.04	-.18	-.10	-.09	-.15	-.09	-.03	-.03	.09	-.10	-.10	1.00	
EWS	1.51	.70	.64	-.13	.01	-.28*	-.12	-.11	-	-.08	-.20	.04	.01	-.05	-	.39**	1.00
									.32**						.13*		

Note: N = 224, * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. OCB: Organisational Citizenship Behaviour, RWD: Relationship with Donors, REP: Job Reputation, RWS: Relation with Supervisor, ITAP: Individual Task Adaptivity and Proactivity, GJP: General Job Performance, SEJP: Organisation's form of Job Performance, AC: Affective Commitment, JSS: Job Satisfaction, WEL: Well-being at Work, IIS: Intrinsic Improving Regulation Strategies, IWS: Intrinsic Worsening Regulation Strategies, EIS: Extrinsic Improving Regulation Strategies, EWS: Extrinsic Worsening Regulation Strategies. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$

The Influence of Emotion Regulation on Job Outcomes

Hypotheses 1a to 1d

Research hypothesis 1a proposed that extrinsic improving strategies (EIS) would have a positive relationship with job performance factors. Table 4 shows the unstandardised and standardised regression coefficients for emotion regulation factors and job performance variables. It should be noted that the regression analysis was conducted via a two-step hierarchical regression: the control variables (job types: administrative, fundraiser, finance, and other jobs) included in step 1, and emotion regulation factors included in step 2. The results of forced entry regression analyses somewhat support the hypothesis 1a. EIS has a positive association with individual task adaptivity and proactivity, (ITAP), $\beta = .18$, $t(229) = 2.84$, $p < .01$, and organisation's form of job performance (SEJP), $\beta = .13$, $t(229) = 2.12$, $p < .05$. EIS also explained a significant proportion of variance in ITAP scores, $R^2 = .03$, $F(4, 229) = 2.84$, $p < .05$, and SEJP scores, $R^2 = .02$, $F(4, 229) = 10.43$, $p < .01$. On the other hand, research showed that there was no significant association between EIS and general job performance (GJP), $\beta = .12$, $t(229) = 1.85$, *ns*.

Research hypothesis 1b proposed that extrinsic worsening regulation strategies (EWS) would have a negative relationship with job performance factors. From Table 4, regression analyses showed significant negative association between EWS and GJP, $\beta = -.24$, $t(229) = -3.76$, $p < .01$, and SEJP, $\beta = -.17$, $t(229) = -2.96$, $p < .01$. In addition, EWS explained a significant proportion of variance in GJP scores, $R^2 = .06$, $F(4, 229) = 3.67$, $p < .01$, and SEJP scores, $R^2 = .03$, $F(4, 229) = 11.46$, $p < .01$. Finally, no significant association was found with ITAP, $\beta = -.02$, $t(229) = -.39$, *ns*.

The results did not support hypothesis 1c; there was no significant relationship between intrinsic improving regulation strategies (IIS) and job performance factors. For

example, no significant association was found with ITAP, $\beta = .12$, $t(229) = 1.89$, *ns*, and GJP, $\beta = .05$, $t(229) = .81$, *ns*.

Finally, Table 4 shows that the regression results partially supported hypothesis 1d by indicating that one job performance factor, GJP, has a negative association with intrinsic worsening regulation strategies (IWS), $\beta = -.13$, $t(229) = -2.05$, $p < .05$, and accounted for a significant proportion of variance in GJP scores, $R^2 = .02$, $F(4, 229) = 1.65$, $p < .05$. The previous hypotheses suggested that job performance was associated more with extrinsic positive/negative emotion regulation strategies than intrinsic emotion regulation strategies.

Table 4

The Unstandardised and Standardised Regression Coefficients for Emotion Regulation and Job Performance Factors

	(1) ITAP			(2) GJP			(3) SEJP		
	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β
Administrative job	-.49	.22	-.35	-.15	.46	-.05	.94	.51	.26
Fundraiser job	-.48	.23	-.26	-.08	.50	-.02	-.67	.55	-.14
Finance job	-.37	.24	-.20	-.03	.51	.01	.160	.56	.33**
Technical job	-.57	.30	-.16	.82	.65	.11	1.55	.71	.17*
IIS	.10	.05	.12	.09	.11	.05	.12	.12	.05
IWS	-.02	.05	-.03	-.24	.12	-.13*	-.13	.13	-.06
EIS	.15	.05	.18**	.21	.11	.12	.27	.12	.13*
EWS	-.02	.06	-.02	-.49	.13	-.24**	-.43	.14	-.17**

Note: the presented variables refer to step 2. IIS: Intrinsic Improving Regulation Strategies, IWS: Intrinsic worsening Regulation Strategies, EIS: Extrinsic Improving Regulation Strategies, EWS: Extrinsic worsening Regulation Strategies, ITAP: Individual Task Adaptivity and Proactivity, GJP: General Job Performance, SEJP: Organisation's form of Job Performance. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Hypotheses 2a to 2d

Research hypothesis 2a proposed that extrinsic improving regulation strategies (EIS) would have a positive relationship with work relationships. Table 5 suggests that there is a positive association between EIS and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), $\beta = .28$, t

(229) = 4.50, $p < .01$, relationship with donors (RWD), $\beta = .18$, $t(229) = 2.95$, $p < .01$, and job reputation (REP), $\beta = .26$, $t(229) = 4.06$, $p < .01$. Thus, EIS explained a significant proportion of variance in OCB scores, $R^2 = .08$, $F(4, 229) = 6.26$, $p < .01$, RWD scores, $R^2 = .04$, $F(4, 229) = 6.16$, $p < .01$, and REP scores, $R^2 = .06$, $F(4, 229) = 4.15$, $p < .01$. Finally, no significant relationship was found between emotion regulation factors and the relationship with supervisor (RWS), $\beta = .03$, $t(229) = .43$, *ns*.

In relation to hypothesis 2b, extrinsic worsening strategies (EWS) were found to have a negative association with REP, $\beta = -.21$, $t(229) = -3.26$, $p < .01$, and RWS, $\beta = -.15$, $t(229) = -2.31$, $p < .05$. It was found that EWS explained 5% of the variance for REP and 2% for RWS. However, no significant association was found with OCB, $\beta = -.12$, $t(229) = -1.92$, *ns*, and RWD, $\beta = .01$, $t(229) = .27$, *ns*.

Hypothesis 2c suggested that intrinsic improving regulation strategies (IIS) would have a positive relationship with work relationships. The results partly supported this hypothesis by showing a positive association between IIS and REP, $\beta = .16$, $t(229) = 2.51$, $p < .05$. However, other relationship factors showed no significant association, e.g., OCB, $\beta = .10$, $t(229) = 1.58$, *ns*.

Finally, the results also partly supported hypothesis 2d by indicating a negative association between intrinsic worsening regulation strategies (IWS) and one work relationship factor, RWS, $\beta = -.14$, $t(229) = -2.24$, $p < .05$. IWS explained a significant proportion of variance in RWS scores, $R^2 = .03$, $F(4, 229) = 2.37$, $p < .05$. No significant association was found with other relationship factors, e.g., REP, $\beta = -.11$, $t(229) = -1.78$, *ns*. Like the association between emotion regulation and job performance, the previous four hypotheses suggested that work relationships have more association effects with extrinsic improving/worsening emotion regulation strategies than intrinsic emotion regulation.

Table 5

The Unstandardised and Standardised Regression Coefficients for Emotion Regulation and Relationship at Work Factors

	(1) OCB			(2) RWD			(3) REP			(4) RWS		
	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β
Administrative job	-.37	.17	-.33	-.23	.35	-.10	-.18	.38	-.80	-.42	.25	-.25
Fundraiser job	-.56	.18	-.39	.71	.38	.23	.05	.39	.02	-.35	.27	-.16
Finance job	-.34	.18	-.23	-.04	.38	-.01	.20	.40	.06	-.63	.28	-.28*
Technical job	-.38	.23	-.14	-.10	.49	-.02	-.07	.51	-.01	-.17	.35	-.04
IIS	.06	.04	.10	.05	.08	.04	.22	.08	.16*	-.04	.06	-.04
IWS	-.04	.04	-.07	.07	.09	.05	-.16	.09	-.11	-.14	.06	-.14*
EIS	.18	.04	.28**	.25	.08	.18**	.35	.08	.26**	.02	.06	.03
EWS	-.09	.05	-.12	.02	.10	.01	-.33	.10	-.21**	-.17	.07	-.15*

Note: the presented variables refer to step 2. IIS: Intrinsic Improving Regulation Strategies, IWS: Intrinsic worsening Regulation Strategies, EIS: Extrinsic Improving Regulation Strategies, EWS: Extrinsic worsening Regulation Strategies, OCB: Organisational Citizenship Behaviour, RWD: Relationship with Donors, REP: Job Reputation, RWS: Relation with Supervisor.* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Hypotheses 3a to 3d

Research hypotheses 3a and 3b proposed that extrinsic improving/worsening regulation strategies would have a positive/negative effect on affective commitment (AC), respectively. The results supported these hypotheses, EIS: $\beta = .13$, $t(229) = 2.07$, $p < .05$; EWS: $\beta = -.16$, $t(229) = -2.53$, $p < .05$. Table 6 suggests that both of EIS and EWS explained 2% of the variance in AC, EIS: $F(4, 229) = 4.29$; EWS: $F(4, 229) = 4.01$, both $ps < .05$. On the other hand, hypotheses 3c and 3d were not supported; no significant association was found between intrinsic improving/worsening regulation strategies and affective commitment, IIS, $\beta = .11$, $t(229) = 1.70$, *ns*; IWS: $\beta = -.10$, $t(229) = -1.51$, *ns*. Again, it seems that extrinsic emotion regulation strategies have stronger associations with job outcomes.

Hypotheses 4a and 4d

The results indicated that there was only one significant association between emotion regulation factors and job satisfaction and well-being. Hypothesis 4d was supported. The results indicated that employees who used less negative emotion regulation on themselves (IWS) had higher work well-being, $\beta = -.21$, $t(229) = -3.25$, $p < .01$. IWS explained a significant proportion of variance in job well-being scores, $R^2 = .04$, $F(4, 229) = 3.72$, $p < .01$. Hence, only hypothesis 4d was supported while hypotheses 4a, 4b, and 4c were not.

Table 6

The Unstandardised and Standardised Regression Coefficients for Emotion Regulation, Commitment and Well-being Factors

	(1) AC			(2) JSS			(3) WEL		
	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β
Administrative job	-1.04	.33	-.48**	-.54	.34	-.24	.47	.28	.25
Fundraiser job	-.73	.36	-.25*	-.15	.37	-.05	.78	.31	.32*
Finance job	-.71	.36	-.24*	-.18	.38	-.06	.56	.31	.22
Technical job	-.56	.46	-.10	-.05	.48	-.01	.69	.40	.15
IIS	.13	.08	.11	.11	.08	.09	.01	.07	.01
IWS	-.13	.08	-.10	-.14	.09	-.10	-.23	.07	-.21**
EIS	.17	.08	.13*	.14	.08	.11	-.06	.07	-.06
EWS	-.24	.09	-.16**	-.10	.10	-.07	-.12	.08	-.09

Note: the presented variables refer to step 2. IIS: Intrinsic Improving Regulation Strategies, IWS: Intrinsic Worsening Regulation Strategies, EIS: Extrinsic Improving Regulation Strategies, EWS: Extrinsic Worsening Regulation Strategies, AC: Affective Commitment, JSS: Job Satisfaction, WEL: Well-being at Work. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Hypotheses 5a and 5b

The descriptive analysis indicated that there was a moderate positive relationship between using intrinsic and extrinsic improving regulation strategies, $r(222) = .56$, $p < .01$. In addition, it was found that when people attempt to use worsening regulation strategies with

others, they are more likely to use the same with themselves, $r(222) = .39, p < .01$. Hence, both of hypotheses 5a and 5b were supported (see Table 7).

Table 7

Means, Standard deviations, Reliability, and Correlation Values of Emotion Regulation Factors

Variables	Means	Standard deviation	Alpha coefficient	1	2	3	4
IIS	3.46	.83	.86	1.00			
IWS	1.77	.78	.75	-0.10	1.00		
EIS	3.83	.82	.88	0.56**	-.10	1.00	
EWS	1.51	.70	.64	-0.05	0.39**	-0.13*	1.00

Note: N = 224. IIS: Intrinsic Improving Regulation Strategies, IWS: Intrinsic Worsening Regulation Strategies, EIS: Extrinsic Improving Regulation Strategies, EWS: Extrinsic Worsening Regulation Strategies. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

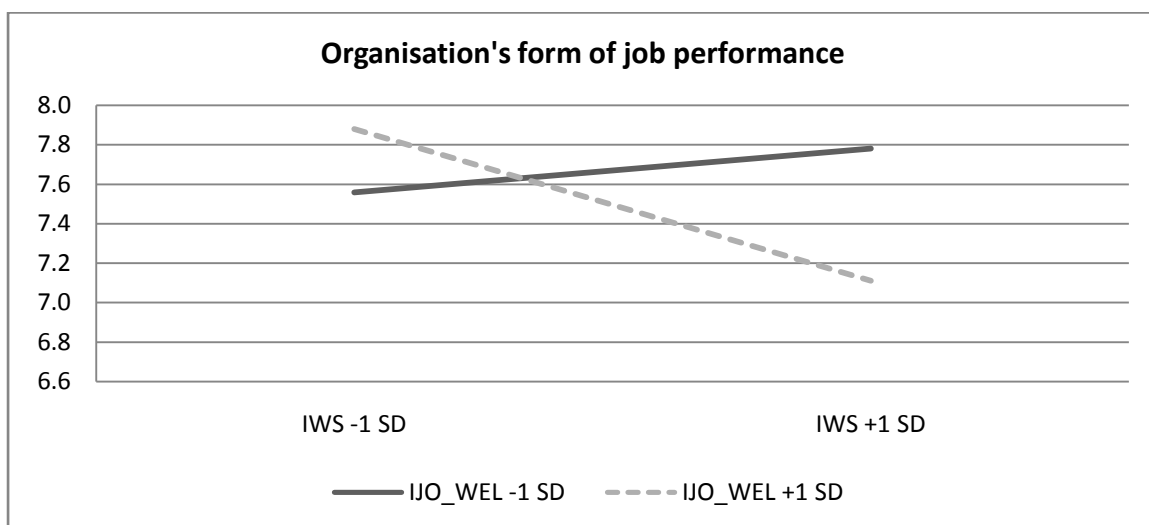
Emotion Regulation and the Importance of Job Outcomes

Two analyses were conducted in order to test the interaction between valuing a particular job outcome and emotion regulation on the job outcomes. The first analysis aimed to assess the interaction effect. A three-step hierarchical regression was conducted: step 1 assessed the impact of the control variables (job types) on the job outcomes, step 2 added the standardised values of the predictor variables (emotion regulation factors AND the importance of job outcomes), while step 3 included the interaction effect between the predictor variables. The second analysis aimed to compute simple slopes for emotion regulation factors at two levels (Aiken & West, 1991): one standard deviation below the mean for the importance of job outcomes, and one standard deviation above the mean for the importance of job outcomes. The results showed that the participants viewed job performance as the most important of the job outcomes ($M = 4.74, SD = 1.77$), then job commitment ($M = 4.62, SD = 1.52$), while job well-being was the least important job outcome ($M = 3.20, SD = 1.90$).

Hypothesis 6a

It was proposed that the importance of job outcomes and emotion regulation would interact to influence job performance. The results partly supported hypothesis 6a. The interaction term between valuing job reputation and using extrinsic worsening regulation strategies (EWS) explained 19% of the variance in job performance, $\beta = -.12$, $F(6,229) = 7.57$, $p < .01$. In particular, a greater use of EWS is associated with poorer job performance when participants highly value their reputation, $B = -.43$, $SE = .14$, $p < .01$. However, EWS is not associated with performance when participants attached less value to their reputation, $B = -.12$, $SE = .15$, *ns*.

In addition, the interaction term between valuing job well-being and using intrinsic worsening regulation strategies (IWS) explained 16% of the variance in job performance, $\beta = -.12$, $F(6,229) = 8.91$, $p < .05$. Figure 16 suggests that a greater use of IWS is associated with poorer individual performance when participants placed more value on their well-being at work, $B = -.47$, $SE = .15$, $p < .01$. However, IWS did not associate with performance when participants attached less value to their well-being at work, $B = .02$, $SE = .14$, *ns*.



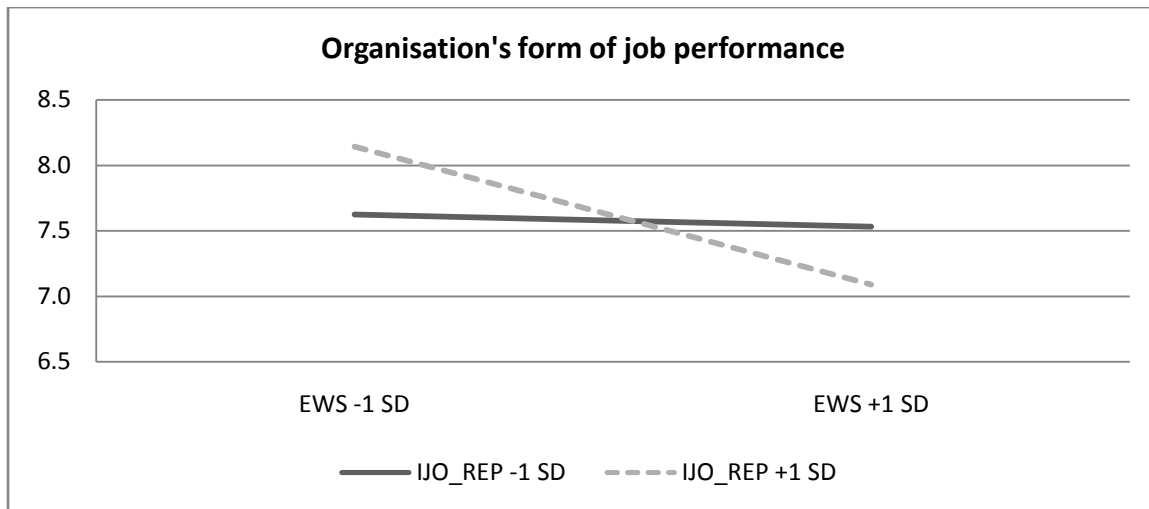


Figure 16 The Impact of the Interaction Models on Organisation's Form of Job Performance.

Hypothesis 6b

Hypothesis 6b proposed that emotion regulation and the importance of job outcomes will interact to influence work relationships. This hypothesis is supported. (i) The employees' perception of the importance of job outcomes and using intrinsic emotion regulation accounted for a significant proportion of variance in employee citizenship behaviour (OCB). For example, the interaction term between valuing work relationship and using intrinsic improving regulation strategies (IIS) explained 7% of the variance in OCB, $\beta = .14$, $F(6,229) = 3.70$, $p < .01$. Figure 17 shows that a greater use of IIS is associated with better work citizenship behaviour when participants highly value their work relationships, $B = .11$, $SE = .04$, $p < .05$. However, IIS did not associate with OCB when participants attached less value to their relationships at work, $B = .03$, $SE = .04$, *ns*. The results also suggested that the interaction term between valuing job well-being and using intrinsic worsening regulation strategies (IWS) explained 4% of the variance in OCB, $\beta = -.13$, $F(6,229) = 2.32$, $p < .05$. In addition, it was found that when participants used more IWS, they are more likely to experience poorer citizenship behaviour when they highly value their job well-being, $B = -.11$, $SE = .05$, $p < .05$. However, IWS did not associate with OCB when participants attached

less value to their job well-being, $B = .04$, $SE = .04$.

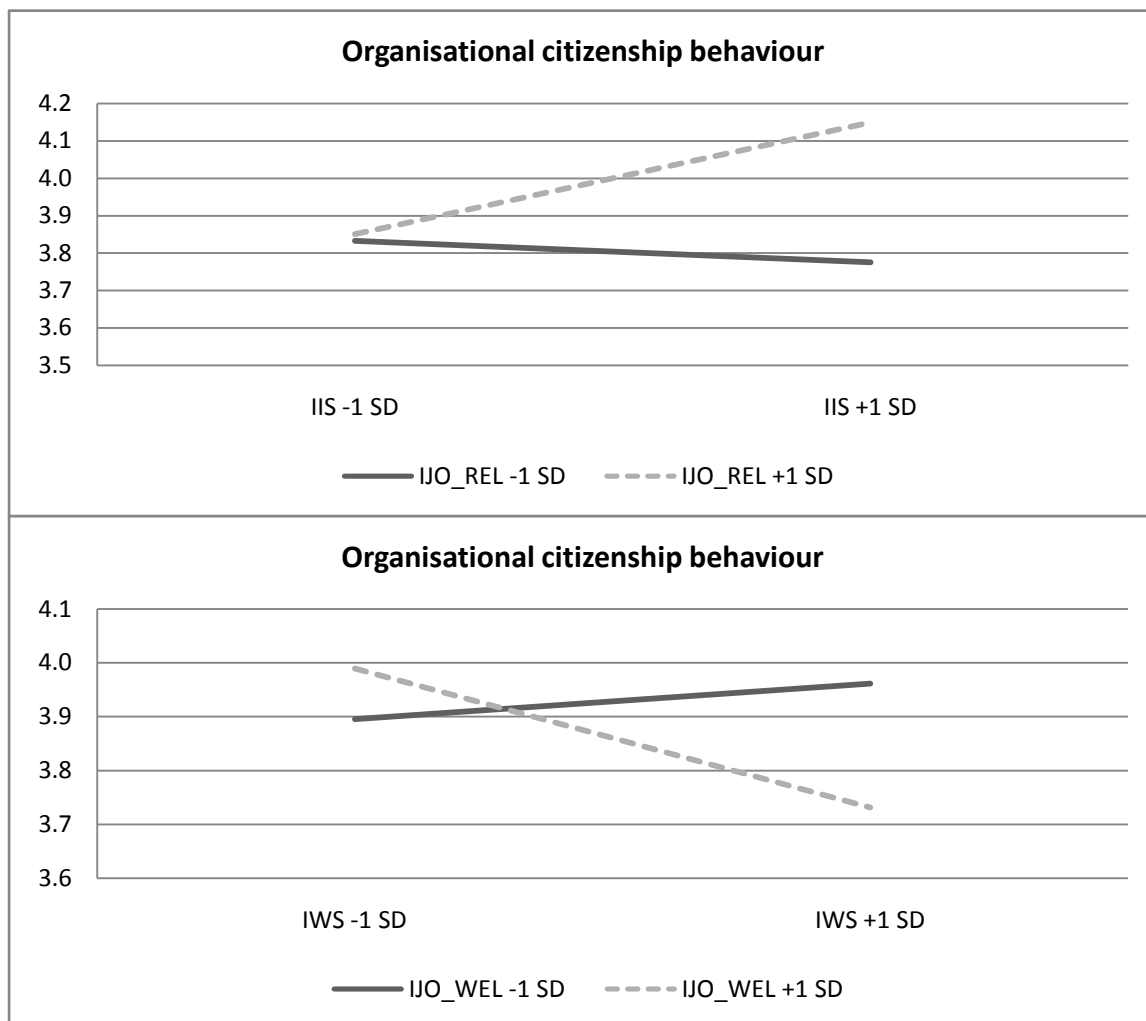
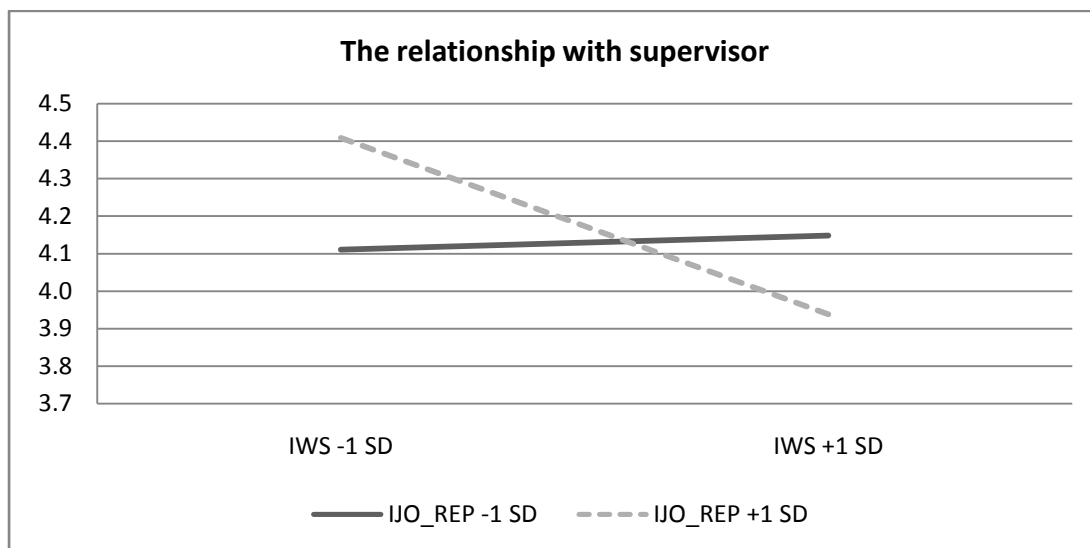


Figure 17 The Impact of the Interaction Models on Organisational Citizenship Behaviour.

(ii) Concerning the relationship with supervisor (RWS), the employees' perception of the importance of job outcomes and using worsening regulation strategies accounted for a significant proportion of variance in RWS. First, the interaction term between valuing job reputation and using IWS explained 4% of the variance in RWS, $\beta = -.14$, $F(6,229) = 2.37$, $p < .05$. Figure 18 shows that a greater use of IWS is associated with poorer relationship with supervisor when participants highly value their job reputation, $B = -.17$, $SE = .05$, $p < .01$. However, IWS did not associate with RWS when participants attached less value to their job reputation, $B = -.03$, $SE = .07$, *ns*. Second, the interaction term between valuing job reputation and using extrinsic worsening regulation strategies (EWS) explained 5% of the variance in

RWS, $\beta = -.15$, $F(6,229) = 2.59$, $p < .05$. Again, a greater use of EWS is associated with poorer relationship with supervisor when participants highly value their job reputation, $B = -.17$, $SE = .06$, $p < .01$. However, EWS did not associate with RWS when participants attached less value to their job reputation, $B = .04$, $SE = .06$, *ns*. Third, the interaction term between valuing work relationship and using EWS explained 6% of the variance in RWS, $\beta = -.17$, $F(6,229) = 3.06$, $p < .01$. In particular, it was found that a greater use of EWS is associated with poorer relationship with supervisor when participants highly value their relationships at work, $B = -.18$, $SE = .06$, $p < .01$. However, no association was found between EWS and RWS when participants attached less value to their work relationships, $B = .03$, $SE = .06$, *ns*. Finally, the interaction term between valuing organisational commitment and using IWS explained 6% of the variance in RWS, $\beta = -.14$, $F(6,229) = 2.37$, $p < .05$. As with the previous findings, a greater use of IWS is associated with poorer relationship with supervisor when participants highly value their organisational commitment, $B = -.18$, $SE = .06$, $p < .01$. However, no association was found between IWS and RWS when participants attached less value to their organisational commitment, $B = .01$, $SE = .07$, *ns*.



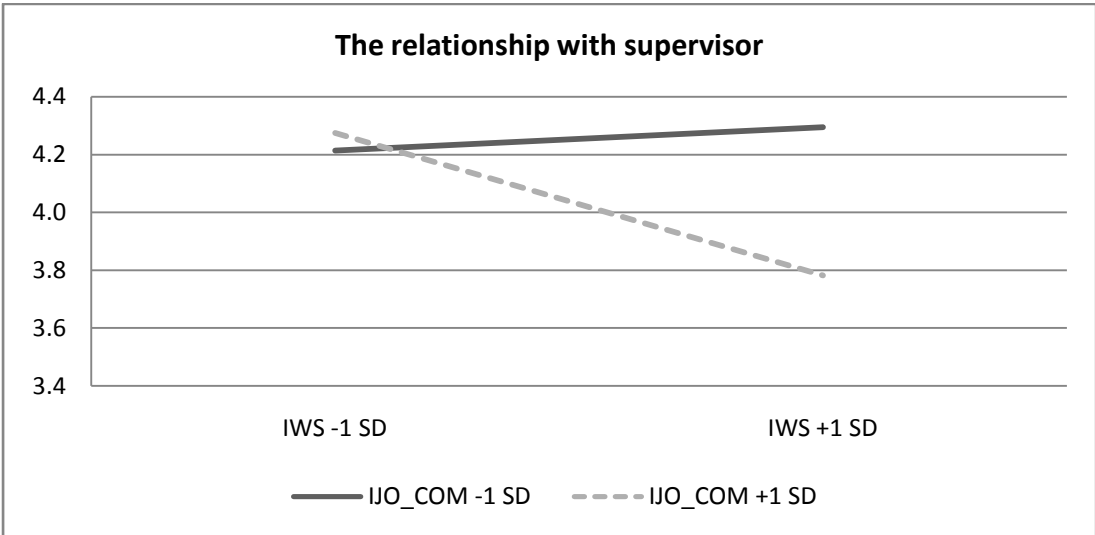
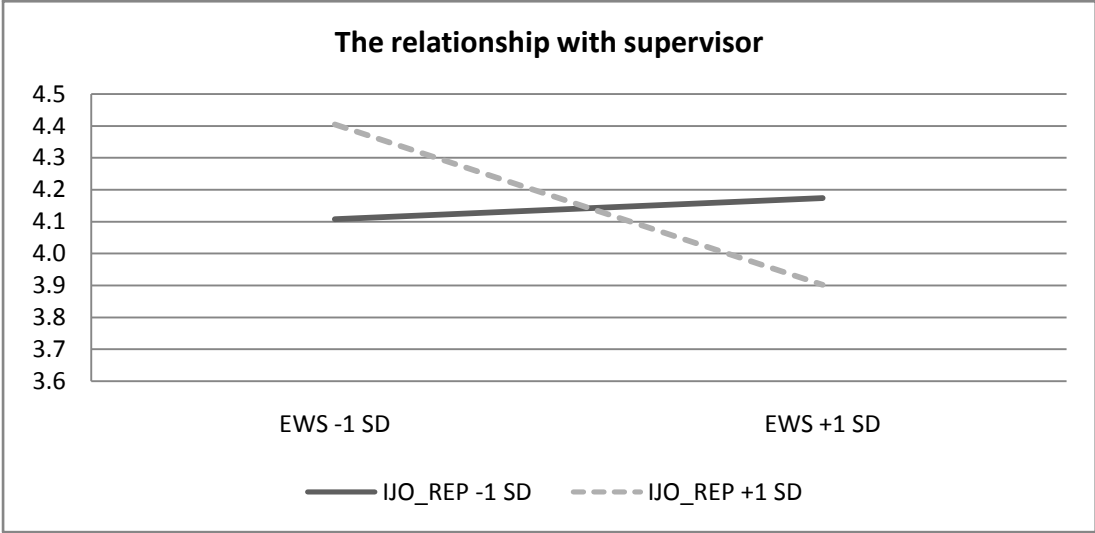
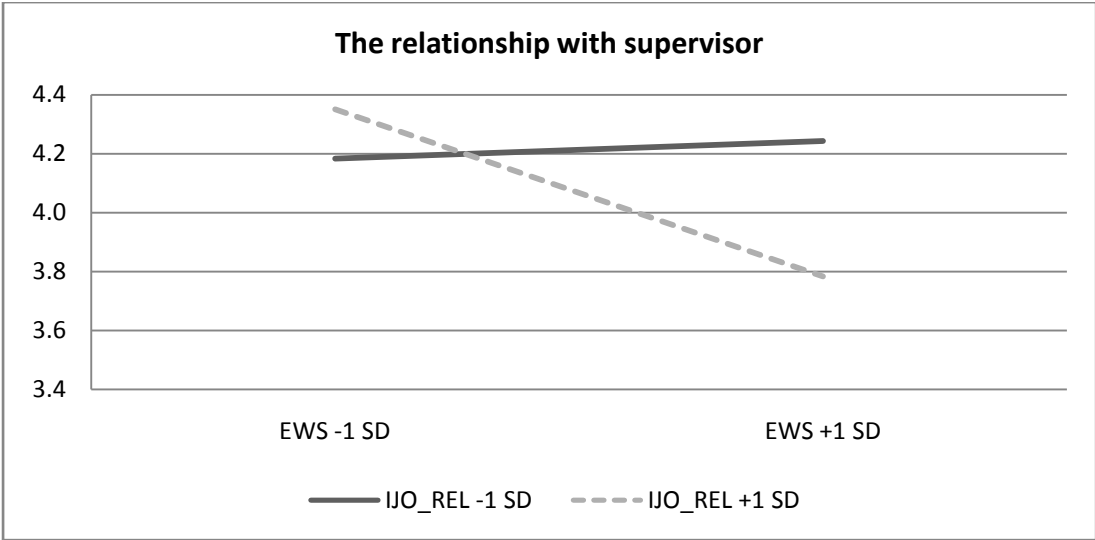
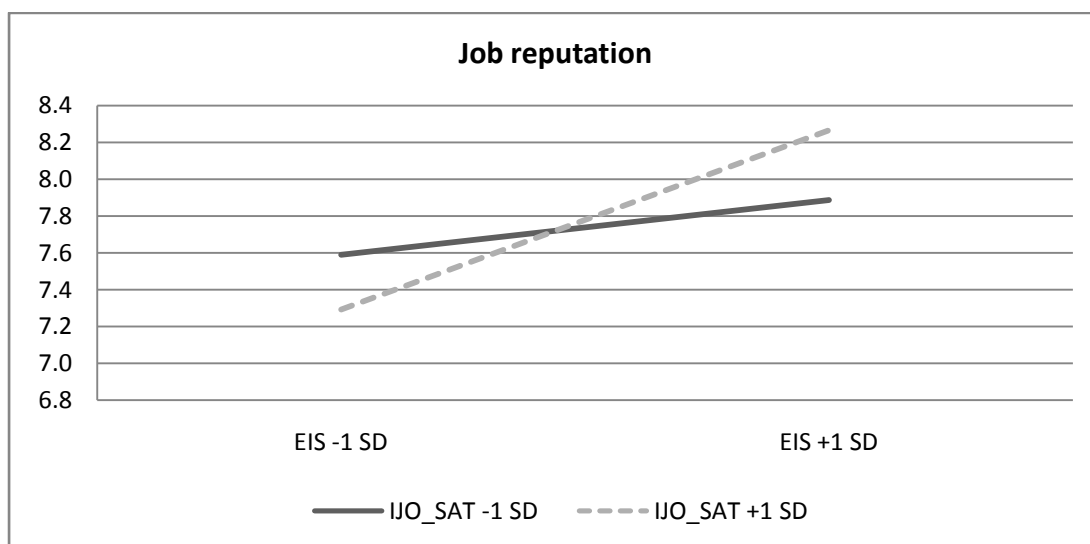


Figure 18 The Impact of the Interaction Models on the Relationship with Supervisor.

(iii) The results also indicated that the importance of job outcomes and using extrinsic regulation strategies accounted for significant proportion of variance in job reputation (REP). For example, the results indicated that the interaction term between valuing job satisfaction and using extrinsic improving regulation strategies (EIS) explained 8% of the variance in REP, $\beta = .14$, $F(6,229) = 3.70$, $p < .01$. Figure 19 shows that a greater use of EIS is associated with better job reputation when participants highly value their job satisfaction, $B = .37$, $SE = .09$, $p < .01$. However, EIS did not associate with REP when participants attached less value to their job satisfaction, $B = .01$, $SE = .08$, ns . In addition, the interaction term between valuing work relationships and using EWS explained 7% of the variance in REP, $\beta = -.18$, $F(6,229) = 3.35$, $p < .01$. In particular, a greater use of EWS is associated with poorer job reputation when participants highly value their work relationship, $B = -.37$, $SE = .09$, $p < .01$. However, no significant association was found between EWS and REP when participants attached less value to their work relationships, $B = -.04$, $SE = .09$, ns .



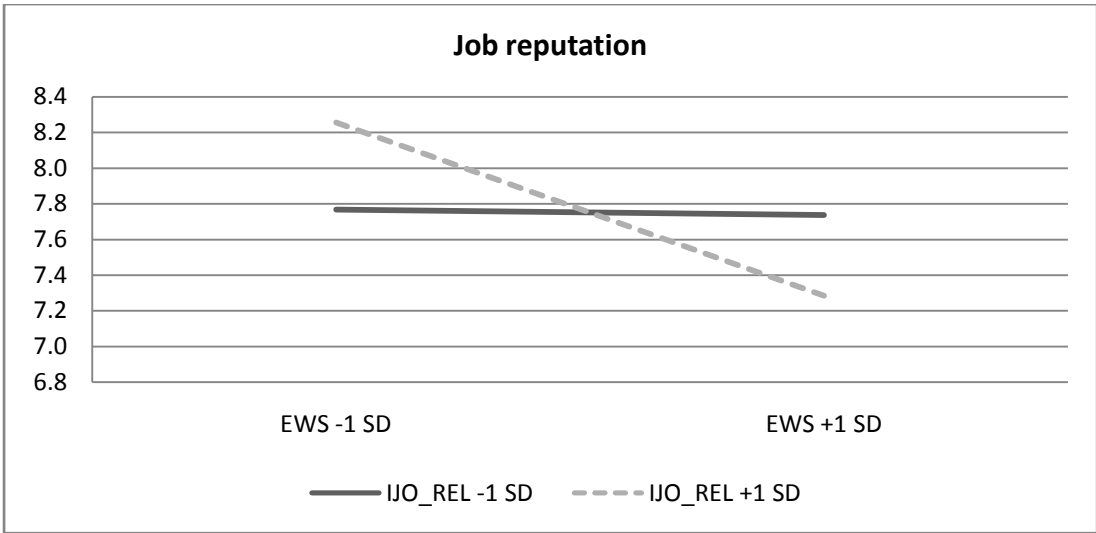


Figure 19 The Impact of the Interaction Models on Job Reputation.

Hypothesis 6c

Hypothesis 6a proposed that emotion regulation and the importance of job outcomes will interact to influence organisational commitment. The results partly supported this hypothesis since only the importance of job satisfaction interacts with IIS and this interaction influences affective commitment, $\beta = .15$, $F(6,229) = 4.29$, $p < .01$. Figure 20 suggests that a greater use of IIS is associated with better commitment when participants highly value their job satisfaction, $B = .23$, $SE = .09$, $p < .01$. However, no significant association was found between IIS and AC when participants attached less value to their job satisfaction, $B = -.07$, $SE = .07$, *ns*.

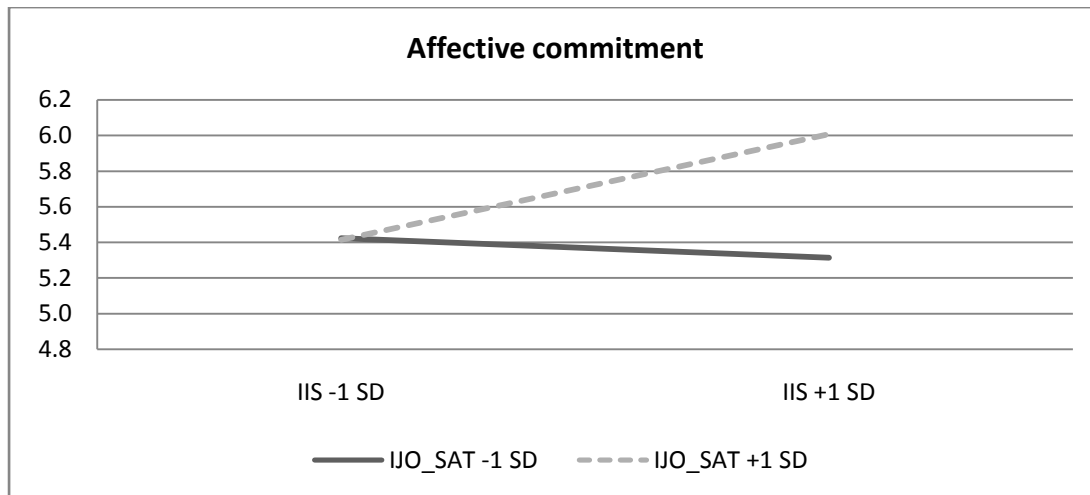


Figure 20 The Impact of the Interaction Models on Affective Commitment.

Hypothesis 6d

Finally, Figure 21 indicates that placing more value on job well-being and satisfaction would have a joint influence with emotion regulation on job well-being. In particular, the results also indicated that the interaction term between job well-being and EIS explained 6% of the variance in job satisfaction (JSS), $\beta = .15$, $F(6,229) = 3.05$, $p < .01$. It was found that a greater use of EIS is associated with better job satisfaction when participants highly value their well-being at work, $B = .08$, $SE = .05$, $p < .01$. However, EIS did not associate with JSS when participants attached less value to their well-being, $B = -.08$, $SE = .10$, *ns*. In addition, the interaction term between valuing job well-being and using IWS explained 8% of the variance in well-being, $\beta = -.14$, $F(6,229) = -4.01$, $p < .01$. In particular, a greater use of IWS is associated with poorer job well-being when participants highly value their job well-being, $B = -.24$, $SE = .08$, $p < .01$. However, no significant association was found between IWS and job well-being when participants attached less value to their well-being, $B = -.06$, $SE = .07$, *ns*. Hence, hypothesis 6d was partly supported.

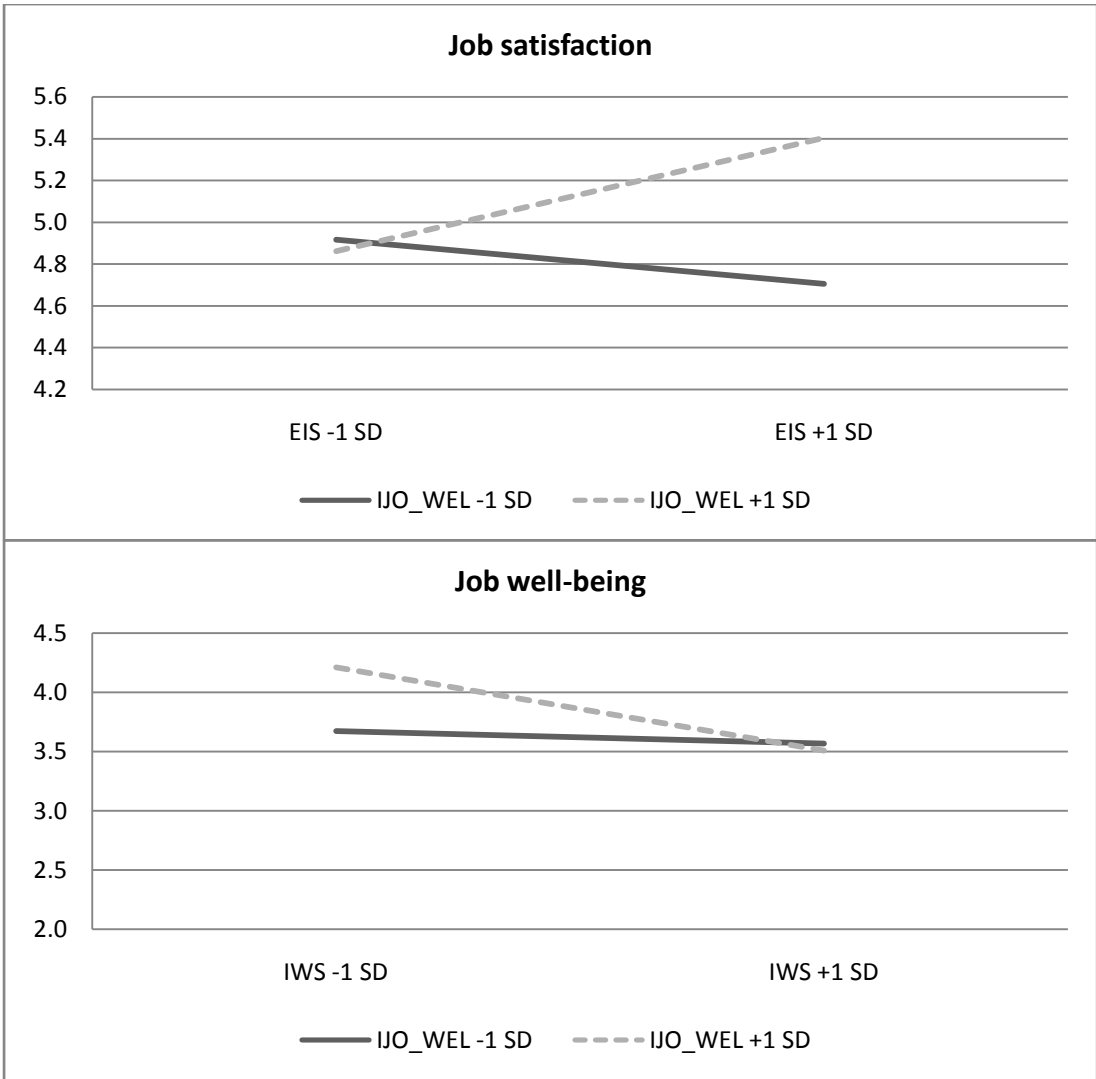


Figure 21 The Impact of the Interaction Models on Job Satisfaction and Well-Being.

Discussion

The current study was mainly aimed at investigating whether employees use different types of emotion regulation strategies and whether these types influence different kinds of job outcomes. The findings suggest that employees use different emotion regulation strategies to deal with different job outcomes. For example, a positive association was found between improving others’ emotion and work relationships. On the other hand, worsening others’ emotion was negatively related to job performance and commitment. Figure 22 illustrates how each emotion regulation strategy associates with each job outcome. In addition, the current study was mainly aimed at proposing an interaction model that could help develop a

intervention design for enhancing emotion regulation and job outcomes. Although most of the interactions were found to be not significant, the results still suggest that emotion regulation has stronger associations with job outcomes when relevant job outcomes are valued.

The descriptive analysis suggested that the most frequently used emotion regulation strategies are extrinsic improving emotion strategies (EIS), followed by intrinsic improving emotion strategies (IIS), intrinsic worsening emotion strategies (IWS), and finally extrinsic worsening emotion strategies (EWS). The descriptive analysis showed that EIS was the most commonly used strategy. Most of the employees prefer to use positive affective engagement strategies as a way to improve others' emotion. More specifically, these engagement strategies are focused on the problem. A sample item is: "I gave someone helpful advice to try to improve how s/he felt". This finding may reflect the nature of working within charity organisations as employees may encourage helping others in general. Then, employees preferred to use IIS as a second most commonly used strategy. Most of them mainly engage cognitively in the situation as positive self-regulation strategies. A relevant item is: "I thought of the positive aspects of my situation to try to improve how I felt". The previous findings suggest that when employees try to improve their (and others') emotion, they are more likely to engage behaviourally or cognitively instead of using diversion strategies. The descriptive analysis also showed that IWS is the third strategy that employees would use at work. In this case, most of them would cognitively diverse from the situation as a negative self-regulation (e.g., "I looked for problems in my current situation to try to make myself feel worse"). Finally, EWS was found to be the least used strategy within charity organisations in Kuwait. Most of the employees would inform others how they hurt themselves as a way of worsening their emotion. The item is: "I explained to someone how they had hurt myself or others, to try

to make the person feel worse” These descriptive findings provide the basic information for understanding the use of emotion regulation at work.

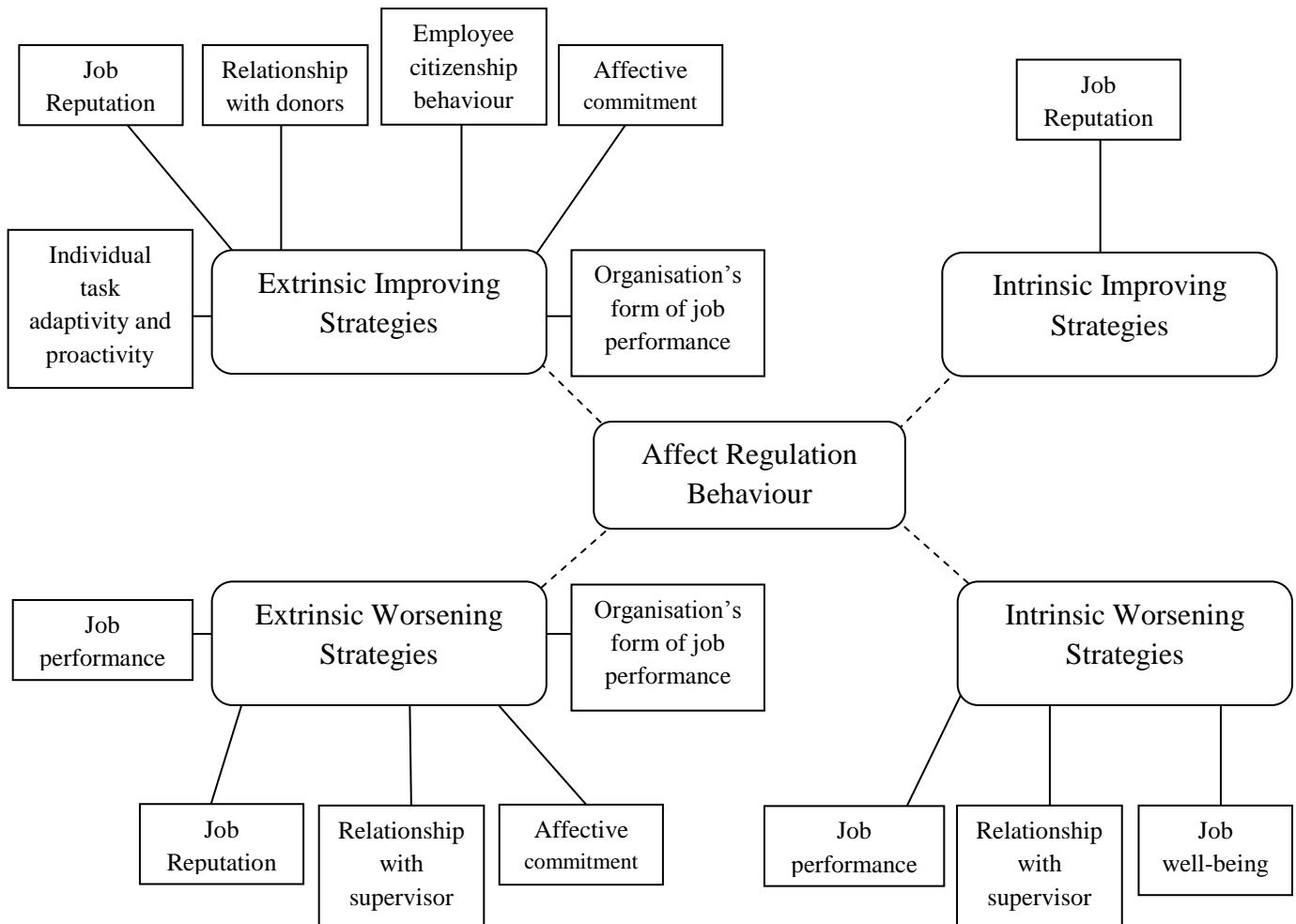


Figure 22 The Associations Between Emotion Regulation Factors and the Job Outcomes.

Hypotheses 1a to 1d

Research hypothesis 1a proposed that using extrinsic improving strategies (EIS) would affect positively job performance. As described at the start of this chapter, Moon and Lord (2006) and later Newman et al. (2010) demonstrated that emotion regulation positively predicts job performance. Beyond the perspective of organisation literature, Denham (1998) also suggested that regulating other’s emotion positively tend to change people’s performance. The current results are consistent with the literature by showing that EIS had a

significant prediction for individual task adaptivity and proactivity (ITAP). In other words, when individuals regulate other's emotion in positive way, this behaviour is more likely to impact positively on the employee's job performance. Two recent studies that sought to assess individual differences in emotion regulation and its impact on job performance also support the hypothesis. These two studies confirmed that when employees regulate other's emotion positively, they are more likely to do better in their job (Liu et al., 2010). Even when assessing the influence of affect, which is a broader term that consists of emotion, moods, stress, and impulses (Scherer, 1984), scholars demonstrated that positive affect impacts people's performance (Erez & Isen, 2002). Together, these results provide support for the idea that job performance is influenced positively by improving others' emotions. To explain this effect, imagine an employee who sometimes helps colleagues when they have many tasks to do in an attempt to improve how they feel. This particular strategy may cheer up those colleagues and encourage them to do better at work as they have been supported (emotionally or physiologically) by other employees. Hence, improving others' emotions could prove to be a key towards enhancing job performance.

As mentioned earlier in this chapter, a meta-analytic review suggested that people who show negative affect are more likely to have low task self-efficacy and motivation (Judge & Ilies, 2002). Another meta analysis suggested that people who tend to have negative affect are more likely to have low job performance (Kaplan et al., 2009). Therefore, the current study proposed that worsening others' emotions are more likely to associated with poor job performance. The results support hypothesis 1b. A negative association was found between EWS, general job performance (GJP), and the job performance form used in charitable organisations (SEJP). In other words, when employees regulate other's emotion negatively, their negative emotion and behaviour are more likely to reduce their job performance. In fact, negative emotion could impact job performance in another way.

Organisational literature has suggested that employees who worsen others' emotions negative tend to be more distracted, and therefore, are less able to deal with job problems (Beal et al., 2005). Hence, whether the negative emotion has an impact on job performance through being unmotivated or unable to cope with job problems, further research may be able to address the direct/indirect link between the use of negative emotion regulation strategies and job performance.

Hypothesis 1c proposed that the use of intrinsic improving strategies would positively affect job performance. Although the literature suggested that emotion regulation impacts job performance (see Collins & Durand-Bush, 2010; De Stobbeleir et al., 2011; Ning & Downing, 2010), the results were not consistent with the literature. However, some support was found for research hypothesis 1d – which proposed that using intrinsic worsening strategies (IWS) would affect negatively job performance. Findings showed a negative association between IWS and one job performance factor, namely, general job performance. *Web of Knowledge* database showed that there was a lack of studies that assess negative self-regulation and job performance. Many alternative terminologies were used (e.g., affect, suppression, task, job, and performance) to determine the previous association but no directly comparable study was found. However, the indirect impact of self-regulation on job performance could be related to the resource allocation theory (Kahneman, 1973). Resource allocation theory indicated that there is an association between self-regulation and task performance (Kahneman, 1973; Kanfer & Ackerman, 1989). For example, when employees face a new, hard job-task, they could deal with this situation positively or negatively. They may think about how they could achieve this task as a positive self-regulation strategy or they may think about their shortcomings as a negative self-regulation strategy. If they think about their shortcomings, they are more likely to face difficulties in dealing with the new task,

which in turn may affect their resources and job performance negatively. Hence, the literature on resource allocation theory would seem to support hypothesis 1d.

From the previous four hypotheses, it could be concluded that regulating other's emotions positively/negatively influences employees' job performance more than using self-regulation strategies. This finding maybe attributable to the work environment examined in the present study. When work involves more social interactions as is the case in charity organisations, the influence of extrinsic improving/worsening emotion regulation could be expected to be higher. Future research may compare the impact of intrinsic/extrinsic emotion regulation on work environments that involve fewer or less intensive social interactions.

Hypotheses 2a and 2d

Research hypothesis 2a proposed that EIS would have a positive effect on work relationships. As mentioned before, extrinsic improving regulation strategies were found to have a positive association with interpersonal control (Niven, Totterdell, Stride, et al., 2011). The results are consistent with this idea; participants who used to improve others' emotions had better relationships with them. Especially within charitable organisations, it is expected that employees improve others' emotions and behaviours in positive ways. The current finding is also consistent with the non-work environment. In a recent series of studies that involved 544 college students, scholars found that the positive and affective response to a situation was negatively related to conflict with other people (Lopes et al., 2011). Although measuring conflict with others is beyond the scope of this thesis, organisational researchers may wish to address this association in the future.

It was proposed that worsening others' emotions may also negatively influence work relationships. As was discussed earlier in this chapter, Argyle (1990) and Furr and Funder (1998) indicated that displaying negative emotions toward others often drives people away.

In support of this hypothesis, there was a negative association between EWS on both job reputation and relationship with the supervisor. Employees who regulate others' emotions negatively tend to have a poor relationship with their supervisor and a low job reputation. The literature suggested that people who express negative emotion are more likely to have poor communication with others and build relationships with "bad" people (Vittengl & Holt, 1998). As the current study was based on a self-reported questionnaire, there was no way to assess how others look at employees who express negative emotions. Their view would help to better understand this association. The next two experimental studies would include the employees' own view, his/her colleagues, and the direct managers, as a way to have a better understanding of emotion.

Both hypotheses 2c and 2d proposed that intrinsic improving/worsening regulation strategies would have a positive/negative impact on work relationships, respectively. It has been shown that social functioning could be enhanced through self-regulation (Denham et al., 2003) while poor interpersonal relationships are related to negative self-regulation (Lopes et al., 2005). The results are partly consistent with the literature by showing a negative association between intrinsic worsening regulation and both job reputation and relationship with the supervisor. Since the first four hypotheses had concluded that extrinsic improving/worsening strategies were found to have a higher impact than intrinsic strategies on job performance, the current four hypotheses are also consistent with the previous ones. Hence, it seems that extrinsic strategies may be particularly important in organizational contexts.

Hypotheses 3a to 3d

Hypotheses 3a and 3c proposed that extrinsic improving/worsening emotion would relate to affective commitment. The literature suggested that employees who have high

affective commitment are more likely to stay in the organisation because of their feelings of attachment toward the organisation (Meyer et al., 1993). Therefore, whether employees try to regulate others' emotions in positive or negative ways, this regulation would affect job commitment. For example, if an employee gives his/her colleague helpful advice in order to help him/her in performing a particular task, his/her positive behaviour could reinforce his/her feeling of attachment that would finally enhance job affective commitment. On the other hand, he/she may tell his/her colleagues about their shortcomings which could weaken his/her attachment feelings and therefore reduce affective job commitment. Thus, hypotheses 3a and 3c were supported. One question should be addressed here: Does regulating other's emotion cause affective commitment or is it caused by affective commitment? It could be argued that when employees have high commitment, they will regulate others' emotions in positive way and vice versa. On the other hand, it could be expected that regulating others' emotions would enhance/reduce attachment feelings which ultimately impact upon affective job commitment. Future research may pay more attention to the cause-effect relationship between affective job commitment and extrinsic improving/worsening emotion regulation by using a longitudinal, or ideally, an experimental design.

Hypotheses 3b and 3d proposed that intrinsic improving/worsening strategies would impact affective job commitment. The results did not support these hypotheses. One explanation as to why a relationship was not found could be related to the organisation's display rules. Whether employees used to improve or worsen their own emotion, they may be required to show specific emotions, e.g., smile at work. An employee, for example, could have a low commitment towards the organisation that he/she works for and use negative self-regulation but may still display positive emotional behaviour. Hence, future research may address the impact of the display rules as it could moderate the relationship between self-regulation and affective job commitment.

Hypotheses 4a to 4d

These research hypotheses 4a and 4c proposed that improving and worsening others' emotions would affect well-being at work. These hypotheses have not been supported because there was a non-significant effect of extrinsic emotion regulation behaviours on job satisfaction and general well-being at work. In fact, emotional labour and display rules have an important impact on the use of emotions in the work place (Hochschild, 1983). Although many studies reported the association between emotion regulation and well-being at work (Kafetsios & Zampetakis, 2008; Mayer et al., 1999; Salovey & Mayer, 1990), the influence of display rules should be considered. For example, an employee may have to exhibit positive emotion (e.g., smile) even if s/he is not satisfied with the job. This "surface acting" is attributed to the display rules in the organisation which state that the employee should show only positive behaviour (Brotheridge, 2002). Accordingly, improving or worsening others' emotional and behavioural responses may or may not relate to a high well-being.

Finally, research hypothesis 4b proposed that intrinsic improving regulation strategies would affect well-being at work. So, why did such positive self-regulation not show a significant association? It is possible that the effect of positive self-regulation on job well-being is influenced by age. The age of 239 employees ranged between 21 and 75 ($M = 38.29$, $SD = 13.46$); scholars found that the association between self-regulation and job satisfaction was significantly among older people while no significant association was found on younger adults (Yahyagil & Ikier, 2011). When comparing the age variable in the previous finding to the current study, the current study showed younger employees as follows: ($M = 38.03$, $SD = 8.62$). Thus, more attention should be paid to the impact of aging on the association between self-regulation and job well-being.

On the other hand, the results indicated that only intrinsic worsening emotion regulation has a significant negative association with job well-being. In general, the findings are consistent with the literature. Scholars found that negative emotion is considered to be a negative demand (Côté & Morgan, 2002). In other words, when employees think about their personal shortcomings as a way to cope with a situation at work, they are more likely to feel depressed as they could not deal positively with the situation. Therefore, using more intrinsic worsening emotion regulation would result in lower job well-being.

Hypotheses 5a and 5b

Hypotheses 5a and 5b were based on a suggestion in the literature that managing our feelings requires the same predictive judgment for the situational selection used to regulate others' feelings (Gross & Thompson, 2009). Findings supported these hypotheses. Figure 23 suggests a moderate relationship between EIS and IIS on one side, and between IWS and EWS on the other side. Niven et al. (2011) suggested that the association between intrinsic and extrinsic emotion regulation might be related to social feedback. For example, when John helps his colleague Sally by making her think about her positive characteristics to try to improve how she feels in a situation, his own emotion would be affected positively by the positive social feedback that was received from Sally or other colleagues for that matter. In this case, positive feedback may increase how often or how well people improve others' emotion. Then, when people found that these extrinsic regulation strategies were successful with others, they may try to use them with themselves. Another possibility is that positive feedback from other people may make people feel good about themselves. In these scenarios, social feedback impacts how individuals express themselves which in turn, when it is successful, may affect self-regulation.

However, findings from research on eating disorders indicated that individuals who used negative self-regulation behaviour displayed negative emotions (Heatherton, Striepe & Wittenberg, 1998). In general, the results could help researchers find a better understanding of enhancing emotion regulation at work. By focusing, for example, on developing the use of positive self-regulation, employees may also automatically develop their use of extrinsic improving emotion regulation strategies. This would save the researcher (or organisation) time and effort. Although the current association may not answer the cause-effect association between intrinsic/extrinsic emotion regulation, it could be a basis for more investigative research in the future.

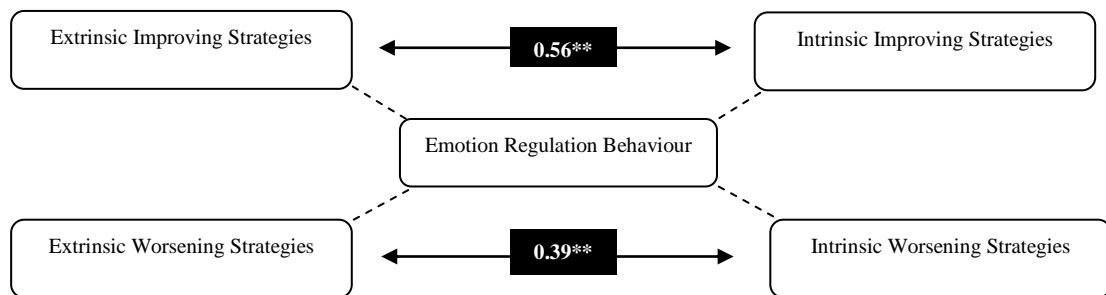


Figure 23 The Correlation Between Using Improving/Worsening Regulation Strategies with Oneself and with Others. ** $p < .01$.

Hypotheses 6a to 6d

A search of the *Web of Knowledge* database obtained no studies that assessed the interaction between emotion regulation strategies and valuing particular job outcomes in predicting job outcomes. Hence, the current findings may add to the literature by suggesting that employees' valuation of an outcome may play a key role in shaping the association between using particular emotion regulation and job outcome. It was found that when people are asked to link their responses that are effective in attaining desired outcomes, these intentions would enable individuals to deal more effectively with self-regulatory problems

(Gollwitzer & Sheeran, 2006). Hence, the second and third studies will focus on how to enhance emotion regulation and job outcomes through these intentions and goals.

Based on hypothesis 6a, Figure 24 indicates that valuing job reputation and work well-being had a synergistic influence with worsening emotion regulation on job performance. For instance, the results suggest that employees tend not to criticise others' feelings (EWS) as they care about their reputation or tend not to think about their personal shortcomings (IWS) as they prefer to be happier at work. Thus, these interactions between worsening emotion regulation strategies on the one hand and valuing job reputation and well-being on the other result in poorer performance at work. The current findings could lead to further questions: Why does valuing other job outcomes such as job commitment and job satisfaction have no significant effect on the relationship between emotion regulation and job performance? Why are the interaction models mainly significant for worsening emotion regulation rather than the improving emotion strategies? These questions could help to shape new hypotheses in future research.

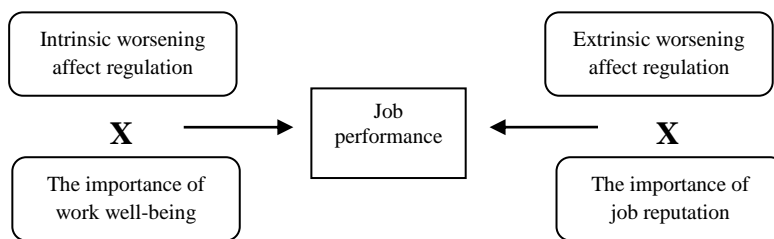


Figure 24 The Significant Interaction Effects Between the Importance of Job Outcomes and Emotion Regulation Factors on Job Performance.

Hypothesis 6b proposed that the interaction between the importance of job outcomes and emotion regulation would influence work relationships. In fact, Figure 25 suggests that the relationship with supervisor seems to be the outcome that is most influenced by the interaction model. For example, employees have a poorer relationship with their supervisor when they use more worsening strategies but care more about their job relationships and

reputation. Indeed, as charities are highly social environments, it could be expected that the relationship factors are also the one that should be influenced by the interaction model. Like the previous finding, worsening emotion regulation has the most interaction effects with work relationships. Thus, more attention should be paid to the impact of worsening emotion regulation strategies. In addition to the influence of valuing job reputation and work well-being, the findings suggested that valuing organizational commitment and job satisfaction also have significant interactions with emotion regulation on work relationships. Only the relationship with donors was not significantly affected by the interaction model. In general, the results partly supported hypothesis 6b.

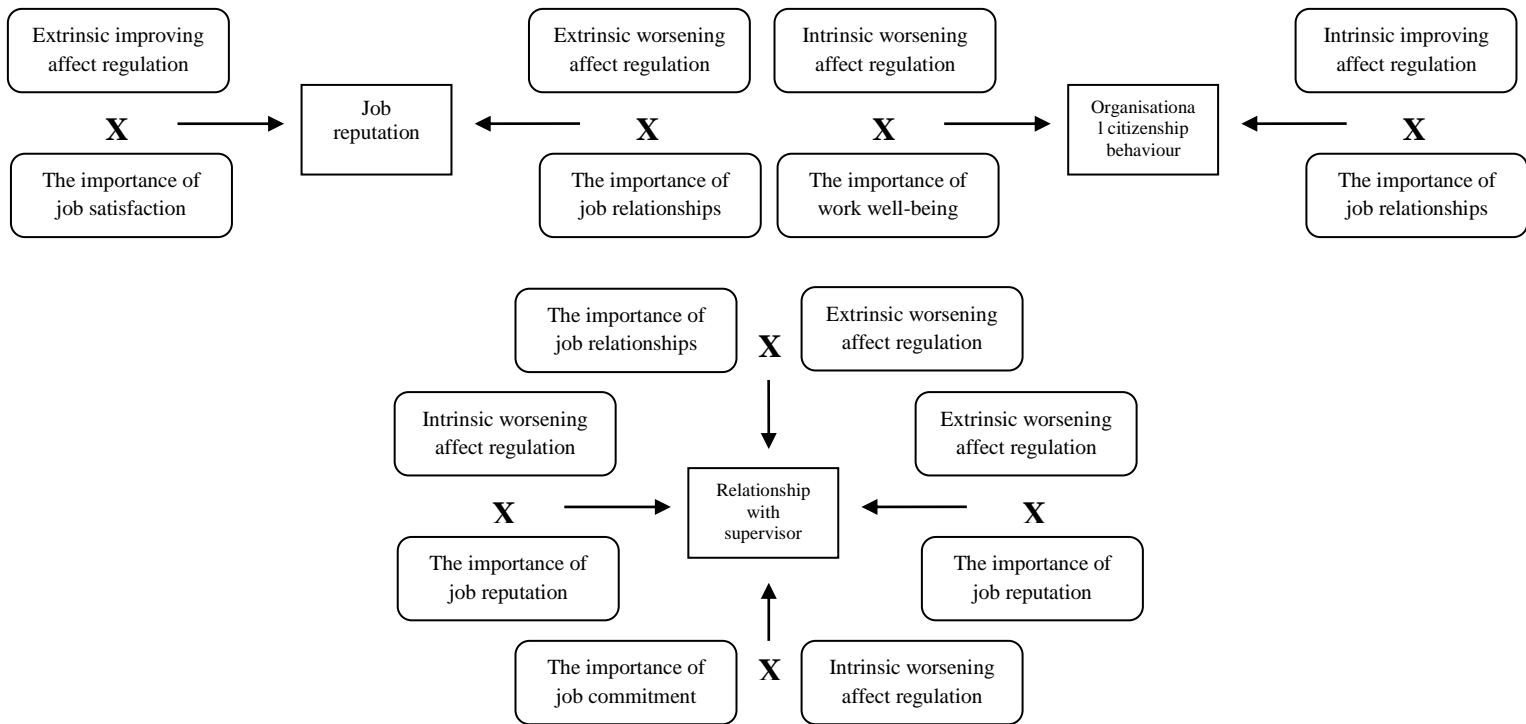


Figure 25 The Significant Interaction Effects Between the Importance of Job Outcomes and Emotion Regulation Factors on Work Relationships.

Finally, hypotheses 6c and 6d proposed that valuing a particular job outcome would interact with emotion regulation on organizational commitment and job well-being. The results partly supported this idea (see Figure 26). However, unlike job performance and work

relationships, improving emotion regulation was found to have a significant interaction with the importance of job outcomes on affective commitment, job satisfaction, and work well-being. It appears to be the case that for these more affective outcomes, improving emotion strategies, but not worsening emotion strategies, interact with importance to determine people's standing. Future research might do well to examine various outcome dimensions (affective, cognitive, behavioural) to offer a clearer picture concerning when improving versus worsening emotion regulation strategies are likely to be influential.

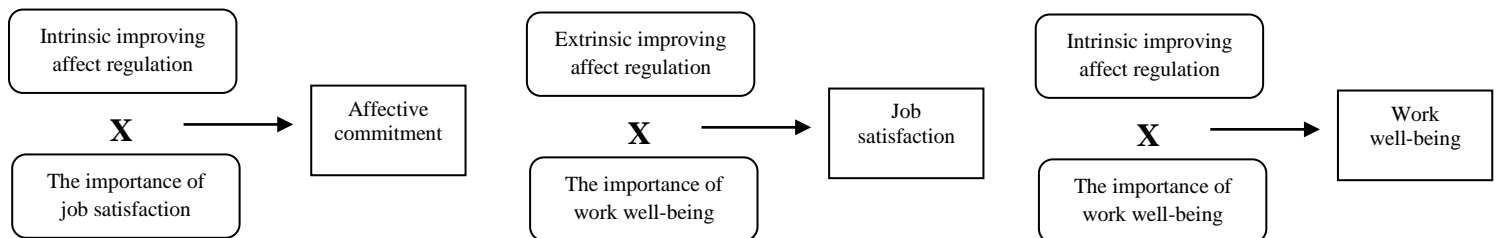


Figure 26 The Significant Interaction Effects Between the Importance of Job Outcomes and Emotion Regulation Factors on Job well-being and affective commitment.

From the previous findings, it could be concluded that the interaction model was partly supported. More specifically, it seems that the interaction model was prominent through negative emotion regulation when assessing job performance and work relationships. On the other hand, improving emotion regulation significantly interacted with the importance of job outcomes when assessing job commitment, job satisfaction, and well-being. In addition, the results also suggested that work relationship factors are those most affected by the interaction model. In general, the current findings could help me conclude that valuing job outcomes affects how much emotion regulation influences job outcomes.

In conclusion, the current results have helped to build a better understanding of the role of emotion regulation behaviour in the workplace. The findings have shown that different types of emotion regulation strategies influence different kinds of job outcomes.

These findings help shape our understanding of the association between emotion regulation behaviour and job outcomes. In addition, it was found that using extrinsic emotion regulation has greater impact on the job outcomes than intrinsic regulation. The findings also suggest that there is a positive relationship between using improving regulation strategies upon oneself and others; and there is a positive relationship between using worsening regulation strategies with oneself and others. Therefore, it could be expected that when employees improve or worsen their own emotion, they may also automatically improve or worsen others' emotion. More research should be carried out to corroborate or disconfirm this finding. Thus, organisations and researchers could benefit from the previous two findings by focusing on developing employees' extrinsic emotion regulation more than intrinsic emotion regulation. Valuing some of the job outcomes such as job reputation and work relationship was found to interact with emotion regulation on most of the job outcomes. Accordingly, this finding suggests that employees' intentions or goals may affect their use of emotion regulation at work as well as their job outcomes. The next two studies are linked to the current study because they are based on the idea that emotion regulation and job outcomes could be enhanced through employees' intentions and goals. In addition, the results indicated that interactions with worsening emotion regulation (rather than improving emotion regulation) were mainly significant when assessing job performance and work relationship. However, interactions with improving emotion regulation were observed when assessing organisational commitment and job well-being. In conclusion, these findings highlight the need to investigate how to improve emotion regulation at work; and to test whether this improvement affects job outcomes.

The next chapter will focus on how to enhance emotion regulation and job outcomes using implementation intentions. A daily diary for one month and follow up-questionnaire

after 8 months will be used in order to assess the enhancement of emotion regulation and job outcomes.

Chapter Four

STUDY 2

Introduction

In the previous chapter, a correlational cross-sectional study was conducted in order to explore the impact of emotion regulation strategies on job outcomes. It was concluded that the intention to achieve an outcome plays a key role in using positive or negative emotion regulation behaviour in the workplace. In this study, more attention will be given to the issue of how such intentions or goals can be used to enhance emotion regulation strategies and job outcomes. Recognising that emotion regulation could be enhanced through such an intervention and that this enhancement would impact job outcomes will definitely increase our understanding about the role of emotion regulation at work.

Implementation Intentions Theory

Recently, the implementation intentions theory has attracted the attention of many researchers (Gollwitzer, 1999; Gollwitzer & Brandstätter, 1997; Gollwitzer & Sheeran, 2006). Research suggested that about 50% of participants who have an intention to perform a behaviour fail to translate their intentions into actions (Orbell & Sheeran, 1998). Thus, Gollwitzer (1993) tried to distinguish between different forms of intention in order to understand the gap between intentions and actions. He proposed that there are two types of intentions, namely *implementation intentions* and *goal intentions*. Implementation intentions have been described as if-then plans that link responses that are effective in attaining desired outcomes or goals with situational cues such as critical moments or good opportunities to act (Parks-Stamm et al., 2007). Goal intentions, on the other hand, focus on the behaviour to be performed or the goal to be reached without specifying the instrumental responses that might be needed or the situation in which the responses will be initiated. In other words,

implementation intentions help to initiate the action that is required to obtain a goal, and in so doing increase the likelihood of goal attainment. Gollwitzer and Sheeran (2006) indicated that the purpose of implementation intentions is to translate the goal intentions into action through the notion that intention realisation could be enhanced by forming if-then plans. Goal intentions were defined as those instructions that individuals give themselves to achieve certain desired outcomes or to perform particular desired behaviours (Triandis, 1980). Many theories designed to predict health behaviour such as the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) (Ajzen, 1991) and social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1997) construe goal intentions as the key predictor of behaviour. The importance of goal intentions is supported by a meta-analysis of 10 previous meta-analyses indicated that goal intentions accounted for 28% of the variance in behaviour across 422 studies (Sheeran, 2002).

How Are Implementation Intentions Related to Emotion Regulation?

Studies have indicated that if-then plans enable individuals to deal more effectively with self-regulatory problems that may undermine goal striving. In particular, research has shown that if-then plans can promote effective management of various problems in goal striving and increase goal attainment rates (Gollwitzer & Sheeran, 2006). Gollwitzer and Sheeran (2006) indicated that the two main self-regulatory problems in goal striving are failing to get started and getting derailed during goal striving.

Failing to Get Started

Three issues could be behind failing to get started. The first is remembering to act. For example, Orbell, Hodgkins, and Sheeran (1997) showed that 70% of participants who planned to but did not perform breast self-examination explain their failures in terms of forgetting. The second is seizing the opportune moment to act. Individuals may fail to initiate goal striving because they do not notice that time is running out to get started (Orbell &

Sheeran, 2000). Orbell and Sheeran (2000) found that 31% of a sample of women who were asked to attend cervical cancer screening failed to attend simply because they did not seize the relevant opportunity to make an appointment. The third issue is having second thoughts at the critical moment. Even if people remember to act and realise that this is the time to act, they may still experience initial reluctance (Gollwitzer & Sheeran, 2006). This problem is particularly acute when people plan on a certain form of behaviour that could have benefits in the long-term but costly in the short-term (people have 'second thoughts' about acting).

Getting Derailed During Goal Striving

The second self-regulatory problem is getting derailed during goal striving. Even when people are successful in initiating their goal striving, there is no certainty that they will attain the desired goal. This assumption is due to the fact that most social goals require more than just one single action to secure goal attainment. Three main problems could be addressed here. The first is spontaneously attending to distracting stimuli. For example, Ehrman et al. (2002) concluded that smokers showed attention biases to smoking-related images compared to former smokers and non-smokers. The second is suppressing behavioural responses. A meta-analysis showed that when behaviour has been performed repeatedly in a stable situation in the past (i.e., circumstances conducive to habit formation), goal intentions struggle to predict the future performance of that behaviour (Ouellette & Wood, 1998). The third is negative self-states such as negative mood and distress. Among 390 participants, it was found that expectations of negative emotion were the main factor leading participants not to attend their scheduled appointment for psychotherapy even though they had strong intentions to attend (Sheeran, Aubrey & Kellett, 2007). In addition, there is strong evidence that individuals who form implementation intentions not only attempt to make more frequent efforts to attain the goal when their path is blocked, but they also make

higher quality and more strenuous attempts to break through the blockage (Gollwitzer, Parks-Stamm, Jaudas & Sheeran, 2007).

From the above findings, it can be concluded that whereas goal intentions specify what people hope to achieve, implementation intentions specify the behaviour that people will perform in the situational context in order to secure goal attainment. If-then plans spell out the where, when, how of what people will achieve or do. Webb and Sheeran (2007) suggested that implementation intentions formation or “if-then plans” build a strong association between the specified opportunity and response. This strong association means that the if-then plan automates behaviour, i.e., action initiation becomes swift and effortless (Bargh, 1994; Sheeran et al., 2005).

Implementation Intentions in the Workplace

Within the workplace, if-then plans may have a key role in promoting the use of emotion regulation strategies and thereby influence job outcomes. Implementation intention planners were found to deal more effectively with cognitive demands (Brandstätter et al., 2001), act quickly (Gollwitzer & Brandstätter, 1997), and act automatically at the critical moment (Sheeran et al., 2005). In research directly concerned with emotion regulation, Webb, Ononaiye, Sheeran, Reidy, and Lavda (2010) examined the influence of implementation intentions on social anxiety by using plans to control self regulatory problems (to do with attention to threatening information) and undertake more appropriate appraisals of their performance. On the basis of four experimental studies, they concluded that implementation intentions did have an effective influence in controlling self-regulatory problems and reduced the impact of social anxiety. Although implementation intention interventions have been applied in many non-work related contexts, very few studies have applied it in a work setting. The only work-related study to date used three interventions to

improve the attendance of employees at training courses over three months. The results showed that the implementation intentions intervention significantly improved attendance when compared to another intervention that was used in the study (Sheeran & Silverman, 2003).

Studies have indicated that if-then plans construct a strong association between opportunity and response (Webb & Sheeran, 2007). This strong association in turn means that initiation of the action specified in the if-then plan becomes automated (Bargh, 1994; Sheeran et al., 2005). When employees, for example, are trained to use if-then plans, they will become more capable of acting “automatically” in the situations they encounter, and initiate the appropriate behavioural response to them. Such training should enhance self-control and influence positively the use of emotion regulation behaviour. In doing so, it should, in turn, intervene positively with the job outcomes.

In sum, studies have shown that implementation intentions can aid emotion regulation (Sheeran et al., 2007; Webb et al., 2010) and a substantial literature indicates that implementation intentions benefit task performance (e.g., Ajzen & Czasch, 2009; Cohen, Bayer, Jaudas & Gollwitzer, 2008; Miles & Proctor, 2008). Based on these findings, it is expected that:

H 7a: There will be positive impact of the Implementation Intention Intervention on Job Performance.

H 7b: Emotion regulation will mediate the effect of the intervention on Job Performance.

As if-then plans was found to be related to some self-regulatory problems in social interactions, i.e., social anxiety (Webb et al., 2010), it is expected that planning may also lead to effective management of other social interaction problems. For example, by having a clear plan of how and when to deal with the clients who seem to be rude, employees may be more capable to deal with this problem. Accordingly, it is proposed that:

H 8a: There will be positive impact of the Implementation Intention Intervention on Relationships at Workplace.

H 8b: Emotion regulation will mediate the effect of the intervention on Relationships at Workplace.

Ajzen and Czasch (2009) suggested that if-then plans may enhance personal commitment to engaging in behaviour. Moreover, it follows from the prediction that implementation intentions (a) facilitate more effective emotion regulation, (b) promote better management of interpersonal problems, and (c) improve job performance that participants' overall experience of work will be enhanced. This should be reflected in a stronger commitment to working with the organisation within a long-term. Thus, it is hypothesised that:

H 9: There will be positive impact of the Implementation Intention Intervention on Organisational Commitment.

Finally, a study that was designed to overcome the impact of test anxiety on college students' performance on an intensive memory math exam, found that implementation intention was an effective way to manage students' test anxiety (Parks-Stamm, Gollwitzer & Oettingen, 2010). Another study indicated that the use of implementation intentions can be an effective self-regularity strategy to master the negative effect of psychological stress (Scholz et al., 2009). Accordingly, it is expected that:

H 10a: There will be positive impact of the Implementation Intentions Intervention on Well-being at the Workplace.

H 10b: Emotion regulation will mediate the effect of the intervention on Well-being at the Workplace.

Method

Mixed Method Research

Researchers have argued that there are several strong reasons for using a quantitative method in research: (i) it is more appropriate to use a quantitative method when dealing with

a large number of participants; (ii) research findings can be generalised if the data are based on random samples with sufficient size; (iii) analysing the data usually takes less time, e.g., using statistical programmes such as SPSS; (iv) findings are relatively independent from the researcher (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003). However, they also argued that there are several drawbacks to using a quantitative method in research: (i) missing data are more likely when using a quantitative method; (ii) most quantitative tools (e.g., questionnaires) should be kept short especially when used with a large sample; (iii) findings could be too general or abstract for direct application to particular contexts, situations or even individuals (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003).

On the other hand, scholars argued that there are also just as many strong reasons for using a qualitative method in research: (i) it is useful for examining complex phenomena; (ii) it is useful for studying a small number of cases in depth; (iii) it is useful for determining how participants interpret constructs. They, however, also argued that there are several drawbacks to using a qualitative method in research: (i) the findings cannot be generalised to other samples or settings; (ii) it usually requires more time to collect data than the quantitative method; (iii) the results could be easily influenced by research bias; (iv) it is not suitable for testing a theory or hypothesis among a large sample (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003).

Accordingly, the need to have a mixed-method approach to research is raised, for such an approach may have more advantages than disadvantages. (i) Grounded theory, which was defined as "systematic, qualitative process used to generate a theory that explains, at a broad conceptual level, a process, an action, or interaction about a substantive topic" (Creswell, 2002, p. 439), could be better generalised and tested than using a quantitative method alone; (ii) more research questions can be addressed as the researcher has more than one approach or method to use; (iii) by using a mixed-method research, the researcher can

increase the generalisability of the findings; and (iv) it takes advantage of the strengths of both qualitative and quantitative research (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003).

Research methods were applied in order to achieve the study aims. Firstly, a questionnaire, which is a research instrument that includes questions about specific issues and which allows for participants to respond to those questions, was the most commonly used research instrument in the thesis. Questionnaires may be one of the best ways to get information from a large number of people. The potential for researcher's bias is less than in other instruments (e.g., interviews) though questionnaires may be more expensive and require time to collect (Gillham, 2008). Although some scholars have argued that the questionnaire may have missing data, open-ended questions may have vague answers, and analysing the data may sometimes take a long time (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998), using a questionnaire is still an effective way to obtain data from large samples.

In addition, a semi-structured interview, which is defined as a "grouping of topics and questions that the interviewer can ask in different ways to different participants" (Lindlof & Taylor, 2002, p. 195), has been used in this study. Using this type of interview will increase flexibility in terms of acquiring more information from the interviewee or obtaining in-depth information about specific issues. This in-depth information would be more effective for answering complex questions than other methods, e.g., a questionnaire. Scholars usually employ a semi-structured interview when they have themes that need to be further explored (Lindlof & Taylor, 2002). However, it all depends on the ability and skills of the interviewer, especially to be flexible in the interview and ask questions that are more relevant to a particular issue. In addition, it is difficult to apply this method in large samples or to generalise the findings in terms of the entire population.

Also, a diary which is defined as a tool for assessing “little experiences of everyday life that fill most of our working time and occupy the vast majority of our conscious attention” (Wheeler & Reis, 1991, p. 340), was used in this study. Using diary data can help the researcher examine the repeated behaviours in their real situations (Bolger, Davis & Rafaeli, 2003). Another advantage of using a diary study is that it could be considered quantitative or qualitative according to the research aims (George, 2006). In this study, it is considered as a quantitative method as the purpose of using the diary study is to link daily use of emotion regulation behaviour to improvement in job outcomes. Also, Palen and Salzman (2002) indicated that “participants’ diary reports sometimes hinted at issues that deserved much deeper investigation and empirical treatment. Because they were spurred by real events, the reports sometimes raised issues that did not emerge in the interviews because participants forgot about them” (p. 90). Other scholars, however, argued that a diary study may affect participants’ ability to continue with the study as they may get tired or lose interest in participating (Bolger et al., 2003). In addition, participants may sometimes behave according to what is socially desirable or what the researcher expects (Reiman, 1993). However, designing an appropriate diary study (e.g., by using a short diary) may increase the individuals’ desire to participate in the research. Participants could be encouraged and informed on how important it is to behave in their usual behaviour instead of what is socially desirable.

Finally, an intervention design, which is an experimental study conducted in the field that assesses cause-effect relationships by manipulating the causal factor, was used in this study. The precise nature of the intervention will be discussed later in this chapter. In general, the intervention studies are an effective way to assess cause-effect relationships and offer a rigorous means of assessing the impact of predictor variables on outcomes

Occupational Context

The number of non-profit organisations that are registered every year is growing by 5-6% in the United Kingdom and United States. The number of non-profit organisations in the UK has increased to 210,000 (Pharoah, 2005) and more than 1.2 million in the USA (Giving Institute, 2002). This growth is attributed to the fact that these organisations are becoming more competitive and more professional (Giving Institute, 2002). The reason for collecting data from charitable organisations was to involve a type of work where interpersonal emotion regulation in particular is common. In addition, the regulation of emotion in these organisations is likely to have an impact on job outcomes because the nature of the job involves a high level of interpersonal interaction. As is the case for any non-profit organisation, charitable organisations are sensitive about their reputation. They may gain this reputation by building a strong relationship with clients (i.e., donors). To establish this relationship, employees need to be aware of how to regulate their emotions.

Research Design

The current study had an experimental longitudinal design and involved a pre-post questionnaire booklet, an intervention, daily diary for one month, and a follow-up questionnaire booklet after 8 months.

Implementation Intention Intervention

The research aim was to measure the impact of manipulating emotion regulation behaviour using an implementation intention (if-then planning) intervention. Accordingly, developing this intervention was the first priority. To develop the intervention, in-depth information about the problems that employees encounter in the workplace and best solutions to those problems was obtained by conducting semi-structured interviews. The reason for

choosing a semi-structured interview is the flexibility that this method provides. Two employees and two managers were invited to participate in the research in order to develop the if-then plans. A copy of the interview schedule is presented in Appendix 1.

Before conducting the interviews, and based on having worked in charity for 3 years, the researcher proposed two main themes that represent problems and solutions in the workplace. These problems and solutions were linked to the current research design. For example, since the research assessed four main job outcomes (i.e., job performance, work relationships, organisational commitment, and job well-being), each of these outcomes was represented by at least one relevant problem. Employees, for example, may be regularly assigned to carry out key tasks in a short time. This problem is related to the job performance outcome. On the other hand, employees may also feel that their work has become boring and may begin to feel bad. This problem is related to the job well-being outcome. The researcher also linked the proposed solutions to the research on emotion regulation. For example, some items from *emotion regulation of others and self* (EROS) scale were used as behavioural or emotional solutions such as “I will remind myself of the extent of my ability and how I could solve this problem”; “I will seek advice to solve the problem.” Later, the if-then plans were tested and developed through the interviews by comparing the interviewees’ opinions to the proposed if-then plans. After conducting the interviews, the implementation intentions checklist included fourteen problems that the employees and co-workers regularly encountered in the workplace and twenty emotional and behavioural solutions to those problems (see Table 8 for examples of if-then plans and see Appendix 2 for the whole sheet).

Accordingly, the experimental (intervention) group were asked to choose at least three problems that they regularly encounter. They were asked to identify the solutions that would work best for their chosen problems. Underneath each problem that they have chosen, they have written the best solution to match it. Participants were asked to complete the if-then

plans before the post-diary and post-questionnaire. It should be noted that the same procedure was applied when participants were asked to identify the problems that other co-workers encounter at work and link these problems with the best solutions. An example of a problem in the workplace: “If I feel that my work has become boring and I begin to feel unpleasant, then I __”, and here is an example of the behavioural solution for this problem: “I will engage in some activities or things that I like to solve this problem.” In addition, participants were asked to choose at least three problems that other employees regularly encountered and identify the solutions that would work best for the others’ chosen problems. An example of a problem in the workplace: “If one of my colleagues feels that the relationship with his/her supervisor is poor, then I __”, and here is an example of the behavioural solution for this problem: “I will remind him/her how he/she has successfully solved previous situations that have the same problem.” In the control group, the participants were asked to describe their experience with three of the job outcomes during the last month. They were asked to do so in order to ensure that the two groups did not differ in: (i) the amount of attention they perceived by the researcher, (ii) and their awareness of issues concerning job outcomes.

Table 8

Examples of the Problems and Solutions that Are Faced at Work (the If-Then Plans Sheet)

The problems	The solutions
IF I am assigned to carry out many tasks in a short time, then IThen I will remind myself the extent of my ability and how I could solve this problem.
IF I don't care about my commitment toward the organisation, Then I...	...Then I will consider the positive aspects of that problem.
IF I feel that my work has become boring and I began to feel unpleasant, Then IThen I will seek an advice to solve the problem.
IF I discover that my job reputation is lower than my colleagues' reputation at work, Then IThen I will engage in some activities or things that I like to solve this problem.
IF I feel that the relationship with my supervisor is poor, Then I...	...Then I will ignore my feelings and try to put things in perspective.
IF I do not obtain a social support from my	...Then I will remind myself how many times I

colleagues at work, Then I...

have been respected and appreciated within the work. .

IF the client or donor is being rude, Then I.....

...Then I will stir up some humour or interesting topics to resolve this problem.

...Then I will remind myself how I have successfully solved previous situations that have the same problem.

Participants

Forty-one employees voluntarily participated in the research during their work time. When comparing this sample to the larger sample that participated in the same charitable organisation in the first study, this sample was representative and similar to the larger sample on some but not all of the demographic variables. For example, the independent *t*-test showed that there were no significant differences in the participants' age (Study 2 sample: $M = 36.9$, $SD = 7.9$; Study 1 sample: $M = 38.5$, $SD = 7.00$, $t = -.85$, *ns*), However, there is a significant difference in the employees' education level where the current sample had higher educational level than the larger sample (Study 2 sample: $M = 3.57$, $SD = .67$; Study 1 sample: $M = 3.07$, $SD = 1.08$, $t = 2.02$, $p < .05$). In addition, no females agreed to participate in Study 2 for personal reasons (e.g., no time to participate). During the study, two participants withdrew because of medical reasons while 39 participants fully participated in the study and completed a daily diary with 702 entries, pre-post questionnaires, and follow-up questionnaire, thereby achieving a 95% response rate. Their range of ages was between 23 and 53 years ($M = 36.6$ years, $SD = 7.9$). The average experience for working in charity was 11.6 years ($SD = 1.9$) and ranged from 1 to 35 years. More than half of the sample (69.4 %) had a high education level (e.g., bachelor or master's degree). Four job-types were included in the study: administrative job (58.3 %), fundraiser job (2.8 %), finance job (33.3 %), and technical job (5.6 %). Participants were randomly assigned to conditions by asking them to pick up a diary without knowing the group to which the diary referred. It should be noted that

I was also blind to the allocation of the diaries. Accordingly, two groups were established: the first group was the experimental group and consisted of 20 participants; and the second group was the control group and consisted of 19 participants.

Measures

The Questionnaire Booklet

In accordance with Brislin's guidelines (1976), all the questionnaire scales were translated into Arabic by using the back and forward translation method. A committee of three psychologists who teach at Kuwait University and are proficient in the English language in addition to being researchers translated the questionnaires to Arabic. Then, another committee of two psychologists who teach at Kuwait University translated the Arabic version into English. They recommended that the final English version was the same as the original and no changes were recommended.

Participants completed a structured questionnaire booklet three times: before and after the intervention (pre-post questionnaire; the intervention lasted for four weeks and the pre-post questionnaires were conducted before and after the intervention) and again after 8 months.

The questionnaire booklet consisted of two sections. Section I comprised two major measures: The Emotion Regulation of Self and Others scale and the Emotional Exhaustion Scale. Section II consisted of job outcomes such as job performance, job satisfaction, well-being, job commitment, relationship with peers/supervisor/ donor, and reputation at work. The next paragraphs will briefly describe the scales that were used in this study. For a full description for these scales, please see the third chapter (Study 1).

Section I:

Emotion regulation: Emotion regulation was measured by the *Emotion Regulation of Others and the Self (EROS)* which was developed by Niven, Totterdell, Stride, and Holman (2011). Niven et al. (2011) have divided EROS into two major dimensions and each one of them consists of two sub-scales: the first assesses the strategies that are used to handle one's own feelings and whether those strategies are used to either improve (6 items) or worsen feelings (4 items), while the second assesses the strategies that are used to handle others' feelings and whether those strategies are used to either improve (6 items) or worsen feelings (3 items). Sample items are: "I thought about my positive characteristics to try to make myself feel better" (Intrinsic Improving strategies); "I looked for problems in my current situation to try to make myself feel worse" (Intrinsic Worsening strategies); "I gave someone helpful advice to try to improve how s/he felt" (Extrinsic Improving strategies); "I told someone about their shortcomings to try to make him/her feel worse" (Extrinsic Worsening strategies).

Emotional exhaustion: *Emotional Exhaustion (EE) Sub-scale from Maslach Burnout Inventory*. This measure was developed by Maslach and Jackson (1981). Although there are several measures developed to assess burnout such as the burnout measure (Pines & Aronson, 1981) and Copenhagen burnout measure (Kristensen, Borritz, Villadsen & Christensen, 2005), the Maslach burnout inventory is still widely preferred by researchers (Poghosyan, Aiken & Sloane, 2009). Maslach and Jackson (1981) categorised burnout into three components: emotional exhaustion, personal accomplishment, and depersonalization. Some researchers have argued that emotional exhaustion is the core component of burnout (Maslach & Leiter, 1997). In addition, since the other two components tend to measure more chronic states, emotional exhaustion was used in the current research. Literature suggests that emotional exhaustion has a significant negative impact on some of the most important job

outcomes such as job performance, organisational citizenship behaviour, and turnover intentions (Maslach, 2001; Schaufeli, 2003). Accordingly, emotional exhaustion will be assessed as an outcome of manipulating emotion regulation behaviour. Participants were asked to describe the way they feel about working in their charitable organisation. The sub-scale consists of 9 items. An example item is: "I feel emotionally drained from work". The response format was a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from "Never" to "Everyday". Maslach and Jackson (1981) found that the Alpha coefficient for the EE sub-scale was .89. The current study showed an Alpha coefficient of .80.

Section II:

Job Performance: Six items developed by Griffin, Neal, and Parker (2007) were used to measure *Individual Task Adaptivity* (3 items) and *Individual Task Proactivity* (3 items) (*ITAP*) as important elements for job performance. According to Griffin et al. (2007), proactivity and adaptivity are important especially when the work context is uncertain and some of the work roles cannot be formalised. Sample items are: "I adapted well to changes in core tasks" (Individual task adaptively); "I initiated better ways of doing my core tasks" (Individual task proactivity). The response format for this scale was a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from "very little" to "a great deal". Alpha coefficient for individual task proactivity and adaptivity was reported as .73 and .67, respectively (Griffin et al., 2007).

The second job performance measure was designed by the researcher and consists of one self-report item that assesses the *General Job Performance (GJP)*. Due to the booklet's length, minimising the number of questions became necessary. This item summarised the expectation of individuals about their job performance at work. The item is, "In general, how you evaluate your job performance?" The response format is a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from "Fair" to "Excellent".

The third job performance measure is the *Standard Evaluation of Job Performance Measure (SEJP)*. In Kuwait, the Ministry of Social Affairs and Labour has a standard job evaluation for charitable organisations. Hence, this form was used in the current research. The job performance form consisted of three sections: Individual Performance Tasks (7 items); Collective Performance Tasks (4 items); and Personal Capabilities (4 items). Examples of items are: how you evaluate your “time management”, “teamwork skills”, and “communication skills”.

Relationships at work: Four main scales were adopted in this study. The first assesses *Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)*. It was developed by McAllister (1995) and includes 10 items that measure affiliative and assistance-oriented citizenship. This measure was adopted because Organ (1988) suggested that OCB could positively affect the effectiveness in the workplace. Sample items are: “I take time to listen to the problems and worries of other employees” (Affiliative citizenship) and “I help other employees with difficult tasks even when they don’t directly ask for assistance” (Assistance – oriented citizenship). The reliability of affiliative citizenship and assistance-oriented citizenship was reported as .81 and .82 respectively (McAllister, 1995).

The second scale was the *Relationship with Donors Scale (RWD)*, which was developed by the researcher to assess the relationship between employees and donors in charitable organisations. The RWD scale consists of 6 items that measure the relationship with donors. Sample items are: “I established a personal and distinct relationship with donors” and “I made easily new relationships with new donors.”

The third scale is *Leader Membership Exchange (LMX)* (Graen & Uhl-Bien 1995). As the LMX is focused on the manager’s perspective more than the employee’s perspective, one item was adopted. That item was, “How would you characterise your working relationship

with your supervisor?” The response format is a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from “Extremely ineffective” to “Extremely effective”. One item was designed and added to the previous item to assess the relationship between employees and supervisors: “When compared to your colleagues, how good is your relationship with your supervisor?”

Finally, an item from *Relative Reputational Effectiveness (RE)* scale developed by Tsui (1984) was used to measure reputation in the workplace. Work reputation has been linked to interpersonal relationships (i.e., peer acceptance) as the most important condition for being an effective employee (Kanter, 1977). The participants answered this one item in relation to themselves. The item is, “Relative to all other employees that you know in the organisation, what is your personal view of your reputation in terms of your overall effectiveness in your job role”. The response format is a 9-point Likert-type scale ranging from “A great deal lower” to “A great deal higher”.

Organisational commitment: A sub scale “Affective Commitment (AC)” from *Organisational Commitment Scale (OC)*, developed by Allen, Meyer, and Smith (1993), was used in this study. This sub-scale has 6 items. Sample item is: “I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation”.

Well-being at work: Two scales were used to assess well-being at work. The First scale is *the Job-Related Affect Scale (JRA)*. It was developed by Warr (1990) and consists of 12 items that index positive and negative affects at work. The positive affects include two main components: Comfort (3 items) and Enthusiasm (3 items), while the negative affects include Anxiety (3 items) and Depression (3 items). Participants were asked to indicate how often their job made them feel positive or negative during the last month. The response format was a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from “Never” to “Always”.

The second scale is the *Job Satisfaction Scale (JSS)* by Warr, Cook, and Wall (1979). This scale was adopted as it has shown high reliability and validity and it has been one of the most widely used measures for assessing job satisfaction (Stride et al., 2007). The JSS scale consists of 16 items that measure intrinsic and extrinsic job motivation. Sample items are: How satisfied are you with “The freedom to choose your own method of working” (Intrinsic Satisfaction); “The amount of responsibility you are given” (Extrinsic Satisfaction). The scale had an acceptable alpha coefficient (.88) (Lawson et al., 2009).

The job outcomes were evaluated by the employee him/herself, a co-worker, and the direct supervisor. Same scales, which were mentioned above, were used also by a co-worker and a direct manager to assess the employees’ job outcomes. For example, in addition to ask the employees how they evaluated their performance in this month, their co-workers and managers were asked to speculate on their performance too. It should be noted, however, that organisational commitment and job well-being were only evaluated by the employees themselves because they may not be accurately assessed by others (see Table 9). In other words, the scales there were used as three-evaluation systems are: individual task adaptivity, individual task proactivity, standard evaluation of job performance, organizational citizenship behaviour, the relationship with managers, the relationship with donors, and job reputation. A copy of the scale’s items is represented in Appendix 4.

The mean values of each variable that has three evaluation scores were taken and divided by three to obtain a general mean value. This is an important step due to the high number of variables that are included in the current thesis. In addition, the correlation between the three evaluation scores showed positive associations among all job outcomes. For example, there is a positive correlation between self-evaluation and co-worker evaluation for organisational citizenship behaviour in ($r = .87, p < .01$). In addition, the same positive association was found for individual task adaptivity ($r = .73, p < .01$).

Table 9

Evaluating the Job Outcomes and the Correlation Values of Some Outcomes

Job outcomes	How it is evaluated		
	By the employees themselves	By a co-worker	By the direct manager
The importance of job outcomes	✓		
Individual task adaptivity	✓	✓	✓
Individual task proactivity	✓	✓	✓
Standard evaluation of job performance	✓	✓	✓
General job performance	✓	✓	✓
Organisational citizenship behaviour	✓	✓	✓
Relationship with supervisor	✓	✓	✓
Relationship with donors	✓	✓	✓
Relative reputational effectiveness	✓	✓	✓
Organisational affective commitment	✓		
Organisational normative commitment	✓		
Organisational continuance commitment	✓		
Job-related affect scale	✓		
Job satisfaction	✓		

The diary

Participants also completed a daily diary at the end of work time for one month (except the weekends). The diary consisted of 18 items for the current study (see Table 10). These items were represented in one A4 page. Each item in the diary was derived from a longer scale that was included in the questionnaire booklet (single items were used to reduce participant burden). The response formats for those items were the same as the large scales. To make it easier to complete the daily diaries, they were packaged in a single booklet comprising 15 pages for the post-baseline diary and 3 pages for the pre-baseline diary. Organisational commitment was not represented in the diary as measuring it needs more time

than daily measuring. Also, the standard evaluation form (SEJP) was not presented as three other job performance items were included in the diary and was necessary to keep the diary short. A copy of the diary is presented in Appendix 5.

Table 10

The Diary Items and Their Relationship to the Research Variables

Variable	The number of items related to the variable
Emotion regulation	4
Individual task adaptivity	1
Individual task proactivity	1
Standard evaluation of job performance	0
General job performance	1
Organisational citizenship behaviour	0
Relationship with supervisor	1
Relationship with donors	1
Relative reputational effectiveness	1
Organisational affective commitment	0
Job-related affect scale	4
Emotional exhaustion	1
Suppression	1
Job satisfaction	1
Implementation intentions	1

The items in the diary represented the following:

Emotion regulation: Instead of using EROS items, four general items were developed to represent the EROS four sub-scales. The reason for not using the EROS items in the diary is because the EROS items are related to the use of specific emotion regulation strategies and people may not use these strategies daily. For example, people may not yell at others as a way to worsen their feelings each day. As a result, four general items were

developed: “I tried to improve how I felt” (intrinsic improving regulation strategy); “I tried to improve how others felt” (extrinsic improving regulation strategy); “I tried to worsen how I felt” (intrinsic worsening regulation strategy); and “I tried to worsen how others felt” (extrinsic worsening regulation strategy).

Job Performance: Two items from the ITAP, which was developed by Griffin et al. (2007), were included in the diary. The items are: “I adapted well to changes in core tasks” (Individual task adaptively); “I initiated better ways of doing my core tasks” (Individual task proactively). One item that assessed the general job was added. The item is: “In general, how do you evaluate your job performance? The response format is a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from “Fair” to “Excellent”.

Relationships at work: Four general items were used to assess the relationship with supervisor, co-workers, and clients in addition to job reputation. The items were: today “How do you evaluate your relationship with supervisor”; “How do you evaluate your relationship with co-workers”; “How do you evaluate your relationship with donors”; and “Relative to all other employees that you know in the organisation, what is your personal view of your reputation in terms of your overall effectiveness in your job role.”

Well-being at work: Four items from *the job-related affect scale (JRA)* by Warr (1990) was used. These four items represents the four sub-scales of JRA which are: Calm, Enthusiasm, Gloomy, and Anxiety. In addition, one general item was used to assess the general job satisfaction: “Today, how satisfied are you with your workplace?”

Suppression: One item from *Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (ERQ)* by Gross and John (2003) was used. The item is “I kept my emotions to myself.”

Emotional exhaustion: One item from *Emotional Exhaustion (EE)* Sub-scale from *Maslach Burnout Inventory* by Maslach and Jackson (1981) was used. The item is: “I feel emotionally drained from work.”

Implementation intentions: In the second study, one item was designed to assess the extent to which participants used implementation intention interventions in their daily work. This item was designed to indicate *the problems and the best solutions (PS)* for them in the workplace. The item is: “Today, how often did you think about the problems you faced in the workplace and think about solutions for those problems?”

Procedure

Participation in this study was entirely voluntary, and participants were informed that they would be free to withdraw from the study at any time. Employees were invited to participate in the research via emails sent by the human resource department in the organisation. They were informed that the study would take 4 weeks. In addition, a follow-up questionnaire should be completed after 8 months. To encourage them to participate, every participant had a chance to win an invitation for two persons to a famous restaurant in Kuwait.

The first week

Three steps were taken in the first week: (i) on the first day of week one, the researcher handed out the questionnaire booklet (8 pages) to the participants in person and asked them to complete it and return it on the same day. The personal and demographical data questions were included in the questionnaire booklet. (ii) On the second day, a direct supervisor and a co-worker, who worked in the same department where a participant worked, were asked to evaluate this participant. Co-workers were asked opportunistically if they had

time to evaluate this participant. (iii) And finally, on the third day, participants were asked to complete a baseline daily diary for the rest of the first week (3 days). These three days were used as a baseline data.

The second, third, and fourth week

In the second week, participants were asked to complete the intervention just once on the first day of this week. In addition, they were instructed to complete the daily diary at the end of the working day. The daily diary started on the first working day of the second week and lasted three weeks. On the last day of the last week, participants were asked to complete the post questionnaire booklet again. Furthermore, the participants' direct supervisor and co-workers were asked again to evaluate the participants. The same procedures that were used in the first week for conducting the questionnaire booklet and the evaluations by the direct supervisors and co-workers were applied.

Eight months later

The researcher handed out the same questionnaire booklet (8 pages) to the participants in person and asked them again to complete it and return it on the same day. The same procedures that were used in the first and fourth week for conducting the questionnaire booklet and the evaluations by the direct supervisors and co-workers were applied.

Data Analysis

In the current study, two main analyses were used in order to assess the research aims. As a result, two result sections are presented so that the reader can easily follow the results. The first results section concerned the daily diary. Multi-level Modelling Analysis (MLM) with mixed procedure was used to analyse the daily diary as the data had two hierarchical levels; the response occasions (level-1) which were nested within individuals (level-2). It

should be noted that individuals were also nested within two conditions: the experimental and control conditions in the second study and two experimental conditions in the third study. The second section of the results concerned the pre-post questionnaire and the follow-up questionnaire. Repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to analyse the questionnaire.

MLM was defined as “a generalization of regression methods, and as such can be used for a variety of purposes, including prediction ... and causal inference from experiments and observational studies” (Gelman, 2005, p. 1). Researchers have argued that MLM is an acceptable procedure for analysing the repeated observations on individuals (Heck, Thomas & Tabata, 2010; Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). For example, Bauer, Preacher, and Gil (2006) pointed out that by using the MLM, the independent variables could be nested within different levels (e.g., group level or individual level). As a result, MLM was used to analyse the longitudinal diary data.

In order to assess the MLM, five steps were carried out. The first step (null model) was to assess the baseline value for the -2log-likelihood statistic (-2LL). The -2LL was used to test the model improvement along the five steps. In the second step (unconditional model), the intercepts were allowed to vary and individual differences (between-subject variation) could be assessed. In the third step (serial dependency model), the correlations within subject effects “autoregressive structure” were examined. The fourth model (using cross-level interaction) was applied to assess the impact of the cross-level interaction at adjacent time-points. In addition, between/within subject differences were assessed in this model. Finally, in the fifth model (mediation effect model) the indirect and total mediation effect was measured. More information about each step will be provided later in this chapter.

To prepare the data for analysis using MLM, researchers argued that the predictor variables could be centred in two main ways: *Group-Mean Centring* and *Grand-Mean Centring* (Kreft & De Leeuw, 1998). Group-mean centring is applied when the predictor variables are centred around the group mean, in which each occasion is measured in relation to the group mean. However, grand-mean centring is applied when each occasion should be measured in relation to the overall mean. Scholars argue that deciding between grand-mean centering or group-mean centering is related to the research aims (Hofmann & Gavin, 1998). That is, group-mean centring was applied as the responses were nested within individuals. The full maximum-likelihood method and first-order auto-regressive residual covariance matrix were applied in order to remove the bias of the serial dependency in the time-points of the dependent variables (Hox, 2010).

Regarding the second results section (i.e., the analysis of the pre-, post, and follow-up questionnaire data), repeated measures ANOVA analysis was used to assess the impact of the intervention on the two groups after one month and then after eight months.

Results: Section 1

The semi-structured interviews

Three main themes were developed from the four interviews. The first main theme is related to the employees' history and their working experience in the charity. This theme helped to better design the if-then plans sheet as some interviewees showed a long experience working in the charity while others had only a short experience. Such variance may result in more general view about the problems/solutions in the workplace. For example, Participant D said "I have worked with charity organisations for 9 months. I am a single and I like working here." On the other hand, Participant A emphasised "I have been working with charity organisations since the 1970s." The second main theme considered the problems that

employees faced in the workplace. Seven problems were found to be the most common problems that were faced by employees. An example of each problem is: low commitment (e.g., Participant D: “Some employees don’t believe in the vision of the organisation; they just work for the money”), job stress (e.g., Participant B: “The stress at work is a cheque for me and the others around me”), unpleasant feelings (e.g., Participant A: “This problem leads to another problem, namely, the unpleasant feeling in the workplace”), bad relationships (e.g., Participant C: “About the relationship, to be honest...it is another story”), low/high job reputation (e.g., Participant C: “... And this will affect our reputation at work”), clients’ behaviour (e.g., Participant B: “Sometimes we encounter a bad attitude or behaviour from some people or donors outside the organisation”), and old-fashioned managers (e.g., Participant B: “Many problems in charity are related to the managers because they tend to be old-fashioned”).

The third main theme is based on the best behavioural and emotional solutions in the workplace. The interviewees suggested that ten solutions should be addressed. In fact, most of these solutions are based on emotion regulation strategies. For example, Participant A indicated “I think that looking at the positive side of any problem could be one of the best behavioural solutions for many things in the life.” This is a well-known emotion regulation strategy, namely situation-directed cognitive engagement (Parkinson & Totterdell, 1999). Another solution is mentioned by Participant B “when I thought that I could do it and that my co-workers are no better than me, I can solve the problem”. This is also a well-known emotion regulation strategy, namely affect-directed cognitive engagement. In general, the interviews were successful in developing the if-then plans sheet. Table 11 indicates the problems/solutions and their family codes. An example of the interviews is presented in Appendix 5.

If-then Plans Sheet

Regarding the problems and the best behavioural and emotional solutions that employees faced in the workplace, Table 13 indicates that most of those problems were related to job performance. “If I am assigned to carry out many tasks in a short time” is the most common problem that employees faced in the workplace, achieving 100% response rate. The second problem that employees faced related to well-being at work: “If I feel that my work has become boring and I begin to feel unpleasant” where the response rate was 84.6%. The problem that employees were least likely to face at work related to relationships with clients or donors (“if the client is being rude”) with a response rate of 23%. In the job performance-related problem, 25% of the participants choose the cognitive engagement solution “I will remind myself the extent of my ability and how I could solve this problem” as the most preferable solution to solve their problems or those of others.

Table 11

The Semi-Structured Interviews Analysis

Main themes	Super codes	Family codes	Line number
Experience	History of charity in Kuwait	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Working since 70s. No official charity work in 70s. 	1/13-15
	1. Low commitment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Working for money. They solve this problem. 	1/29-33, 3/29, 4/70-71, 2/53-54
Problems employees face in charity	2. Job stress	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Many tasks. No computers and all the work office are manual. The work requires effort. Long time working with less tasks to do. 	1/49-53, 2/34-37, 41-42, 3/30-33, 4/22-26, 4/30-34
	3. Unpleasant feelings	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Especially administration work. Comparing field work with them. Feel boring. 	1/54-56, 1/61-64, 2/46-48, 3/40-41, 4/39-40, 4/44-45
	4. Bad relationships	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Between managers and employees: as they were co-worker before. As they are younger. 	1/68-70, 2/62-63, 3/49, 1/85-91, 2/58-60, 3/50, 4/68-69
	5. Low and high Job reputation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Careless about job reputation. Over care about reputation (it could influence badly the relationship). 	1/71-72, 1/76-77, 1/82-85

		• Mistakes because of the load on the work.	3/34-40
	6. Clients and donors' behaviour	• Bad behaviour because of some sensitive issues.	1/95-98, 2/55-56, 4/82-83
	7. Old fashion managers	• It influence everything in the workplace.	2/28-29
	1. Looking at the positive side of the problems.		1/104-106
	2. Believe they are capable to solve the problem		2/84-87
	3. Asking help and advice from others		2/87-90
	4. Make the workplace more fun		2/90-92
Best behavioural and emotional solutions	5. Better behaviour from the managers.	• The employees will mimic managers in their behaviour.	1/106-108
	6. Social activities	• Make the relationship stronger. • Increase well-being.	1/109, 2/92-98, 4/87-92 1/110
	7. Changing the employees between the sectors every 2-3 years	• Decrease feeling boring.	2/46-48
	8. Think as a Holly work	• The best motivation to work.	2/69-70
	9. Humour and fun		3/56-58
	10. Persuade the employees to do their work.		3/58-63

In the job commitment-related problem, 41.7% of the participants choose the reappraisal solution, “I will look at the problem from an outsider’s perspective (as another person)” as the most preferred solution. In well-being-related problems, two solutions were equally preferable solutions among 37% of the participants. These two solutions were behavioural diversion, “I will engage in some activities or things that I like to solve this problem”, and “I will stir up some humour or interesting topics to resolve this problem.” In the job reputation-related problem, 26.6% of the participants choose behavioural engagement solution “I will seek advice to solve the problem” as the most preferable solution. In terms of supervisor-related problems, 29.4% of the participants choose cognitive engagement solution “I will remind myself how I have successfully solved previous situations that have the same problem” as the most preferred solution. Finally, in terms of co-workers-related problems, 28.6% of the participants choose cognitive engagement solution “I will remind myself how many times I have been respected and appreciated within the work” as the most preferable solution.

Table 12

Most and Least Common Problems and Solutions at the Workplace

	Problems	Response rate
Job performance	If I am assigned to carry out many tasks in a short time	100%
Well-being	If I feel that my work has become boring and I begin to feel unpleasant	84.6%
Relationship with donors	If the client is being rude	23%
	Solutions	Response rate
Job commitment	I will look at the problem from an outsider's perspective (as another person)	41.7%
Well-being	I will engage in some activities or things that I like to solve this problem / I will stir up some humour or interesting topics to resolve this problem	32%
Job performance	I will remind myself the extent of my ability and how I could solve this problem	25%

When employees link a specific problem to a solution, do employees tend to use the same solutions for themselves and for others? To examine this idea using SPSS program, the chosen problems have been coded as variables and solutions related to the participants themselves and those of others were extracted from the if-then plan sheets and coded as values for each variable (i.e., 10 values were coded for each variable to represent the best solutions). Hence, the relationships between these links were examined. Table 13 indicates that most of the solutions that were preferred for oneself were used for others. For example, the correlation between those solutions that were chosen by oneself and others to improve job performance-related problems is ($r = .39, p < .01$), job commitment-related problems is ($r = .91, p < .01$), job reputation-related problems is ($r = .99, p < .01$), and relationship with co-worker-related problems is ($r = .75, p < .01$).

Table 13

Correlations Between the Solutions Chosen for Oneself and Solutions Chosen for Others

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1.O.JP	1.00													
2.S.JP	.39**	1.00												
3.O.AC	.14	.32**	1.00											
4.S.AC	.86**	.47**	.91**	1.00										
5.O.WEL	.06	.02	-.21*	-.50**	1.00									
6.S.WEL	.32**	.19**	.58**	.33**	-.01	1.00								
7.O.REP	.35**	.03	.15	1.00**	.70**	.04	1.00							
8.S.REP	.46**	-.05	.06	-.56**	.78**	.16	.99**	1.00						
9.O.RWS	-.17	-.08	.25*	.98**	-.21*	.60**	-.16	.64**	1.00					
10.S.RWS	-.06	-.10	.82**	.37**	.00	.44**	-.14	-.06	-.10	1.00				
11.O.COW	.44**	-.08	-.78**	-1.0**	.25*	.55**	-.03	.60**	.13	-.23*	1.00			
12.S.COW	-.13	.10	-.18	.98**	-.09	.24*	.30**	.71**	.81**	.33**	.75**	1.00		
13.O.RWD	.79**	.99**	.92**	1.00**	.18	.67**	.14	.02	-.08	.97**	.96**	.42**	1.00	
14.S.RWD	.27*	.98**	-.99**	1.00**	.69**	-.27*	.78**	-.01	-.27*	.97**	.89**	-.12	1.00**	1.00

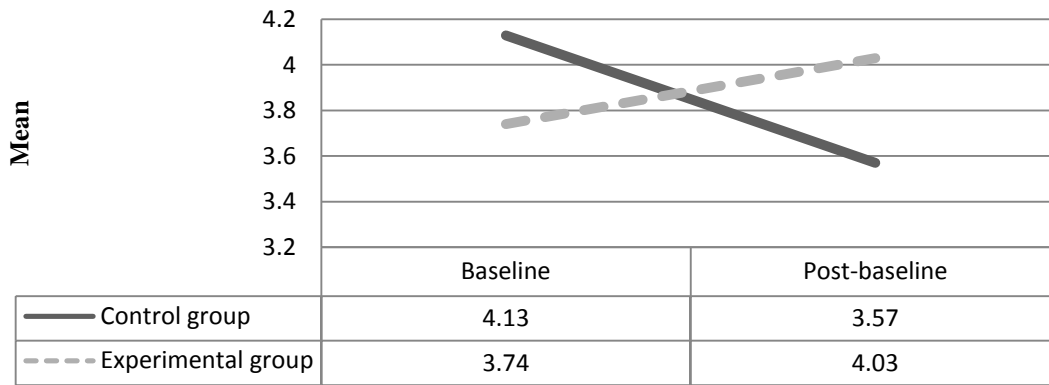
Note: O = refers to solutions that were used with others. S = refers to solutions that were used with oneself. COW: Relationship with co-workers, RWD: Relationship with Donors, REP: Job Reputation, RWS: Relation with Supervisor, JP = Job Performance, WEL: well-being at workplace, AC: Affective commitment. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Before introducing the research hypotheses, two points should be addressed. First, since hypotheses 7b, 8b, and 10b propose that emotion regulation mediate the relationship between the intervention and job outcomes, the impact of the intervention on emotion regulation should be assessed. Hence, all variables in the SPSS program were restructured and “MIXED” to cases. This is an important procedure in conducting the multilevel modelling analysis (MLM). More details about MLM will be provided later in this chapter. In general, MLM provides many options for modelling the covariance structures of random effects and residual errors. The results indicated that implementation intentions significantly affected, over and above the general growth, three emotion regulation factors: intrinsic improving strategies (IIS) (fixed estimate = .83, $SE = .20$, $p < .01$); extrinsic improving strategies (EIS) (fixed estimate = .48, $SE = .18$, $p < .01$); and intrinsic worsening strategies (IWS) at adjacent time-points (fixed estimate = -.26, $SE = .12$, $p < .05$). However, extrinsic

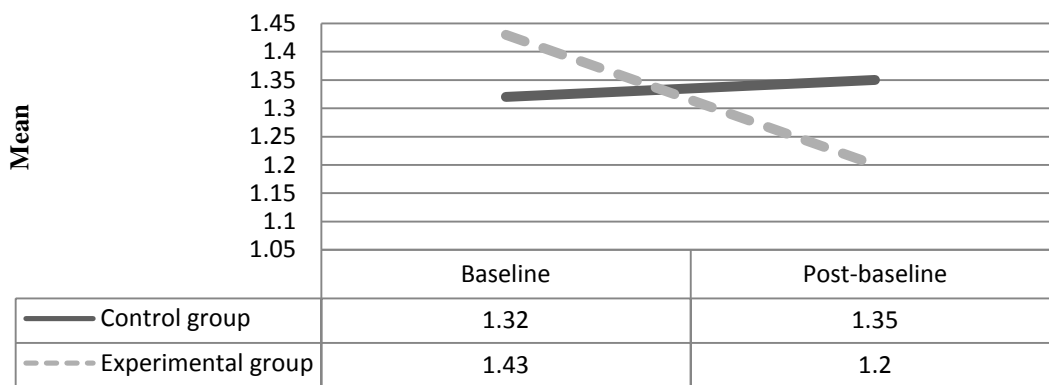
worsening strategies (EWS) (fixed estimate = $-.28$, $SE = .16$, *ns*) was not significantly affected during the diary period.

Then, the estimated marginal means for the experimental vs. the control group before versus after the intervention was assessed. Using the estimated marginal means is important especially when comparing the means of unequal sample sizes (Becker, 1999). In addition, this method is preferred over observed mean as it accounts for the underlying model of the data (SPSS, 2005). Thus, the /EMMEANS subcommand was added to the MIXED command. Figure 27 suggests that the experimental group showed significantly higher IIS ($M = 4.03$) compared to the control group ($M = 3.57$, $p < .01$), and lower IWS ($M = 1.20$) compared to the control group ($M = 1.35$, $p < .01$) after the intervention. A significant difference was found between the two groups before the intervention for EIS, in which the control group ($M = 4.23$, $p < .05$) used more EIS compared to the experimental group ($M = 3.79$, $p < .05$). However, the experimental group ($M = 4.10$, $p < .01$) showed significant increase in their use of EIS after the intervention while the control group ($M = 3.64$, $p < .01$) showed a significant decrease. No significant differences were found between the control and the experimental groups after the intervention for EWS (the experimental group: $M = 1.37$; the control group: $M = 1.47$, *ns*). Figure 27 addresses the baseline values (the estimated marginal means before the intervention) and the post-baseline values (the estimated marginal means after the intervention) for emotion regulation factors.

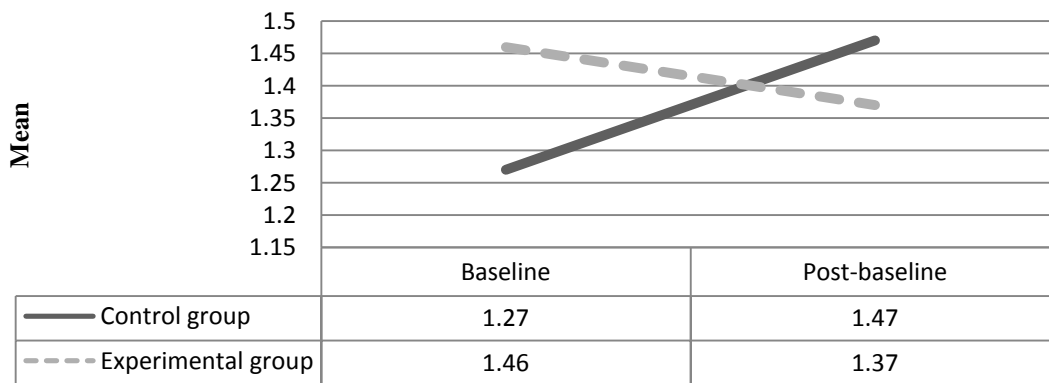
The estimated marginal mean for Intrinsic Improving Strategies



The estimated marginal mean for Intrinsic Worsening Strategies



The estimated marginal mean for Extrinsic Worsening Strategies



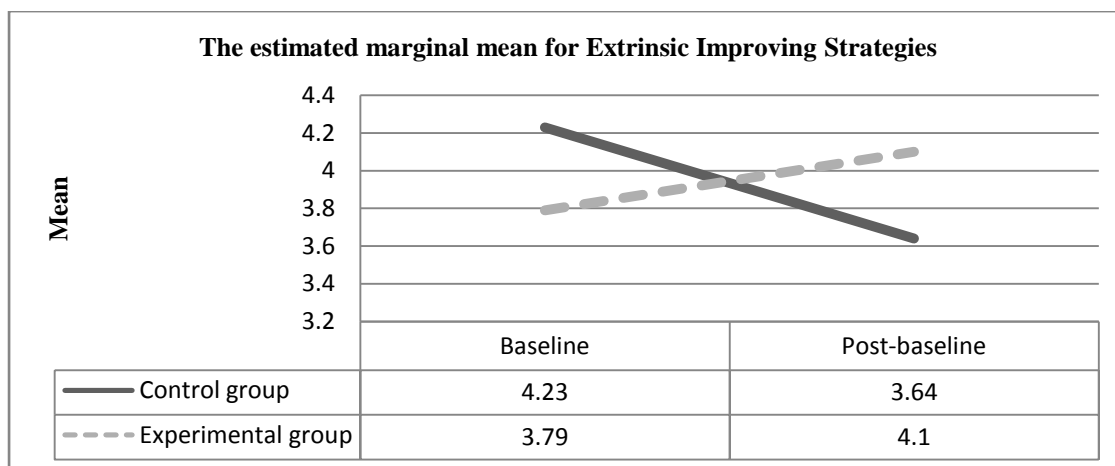


Figure 27 The Estimated Marginal Means for Emotion Regulation Strategies by Condition and Time.

Second, in order to check the manipulation effect, it could be expected that the experimental group would think more regularly about the problems (and their solution) they faced at the workplace (PS) after the intervention. As a result, an item was designed and added to the diary so as to assess the frequency of using PS. To test and compare the use of PS in the two groups, the estimated marginal means (from a fitted model) was assessed. The result did not support this expectation and indicated that there was no significant improvement in using PS more regularly; baseline ($M = 3.87$), while after the intervention ($M = 3.84$; fixed estimate = .51, $SE = .23$, ns). On the other hand, the control group showed a significant reduction after the intervention; baseline ($M = 3.92$), while after the intervention ($M = 3.38$; fixed estimate = .51, $SE = .23$, $p < .01$). The results suggested that the effect of implementation intention intervention might not be related directly to how much it was used regularly. The previous result could be attributed to the fact that implementation intention effects are assumed to be automatic (Bargh, 1994; Sheeran et al., 2005). This point will be considered further in the discussion section.

Descriptive Analysis

A descriptive analysis was conducted to assess both the distribution and frequency for the variables included in the analysis. In addition, as each single item in the diary refers to the

large scale on the questionnaire booklet, the need to be sure that these single items represent the long questionnaire is important if the diary items are to represent the questionnaire's scales. For example, the item "I feel emotionally drained from work" represented the emotional exhaustion scale. As a result, the correlation between the pre-questionnaire (baseline questionnaire) and the baseline diary (the first three days with no intervention) was measured by: (i) taking the mean values of each variable across the three days; (ii) since some measures in the questionnaire (e.g., job performance scale) were self/manager/co-worker reported, the mean values of each variable were taken. Table 14 shows that the positive emotion regulation variables were positively correlated, IIS ($r = .55, p < .01$) and EIS ($r = .20, p < .05$); while the negative emotion regulation variables had no significant correlation, IWS ($r = .06, ns$) and EWS ($r = .15, ns$). Also, Table 17 shows that most of the job outcomes variables only had modest to strong correlation except for the job reputation ($r = .19, ns$) and anxiety ($r = .13, ns$).

Table 14

Means, Standard deviations, and Correlation Values of Questionnaire and Diary's Mediators

Variables	Means	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1.IIS	3.63	1.00	1.00										
2.EIS	3.61	1.04	.42**	1.00									
3.IWS	1.34	.62	-.01	-.09	1.00								
4.EWS	1.52	.87	.05	-.06	.41**	1.00							
5.D.IIS	3.69	.63	.55**	.25**	.09	.08	1.00						
6.D.EIS	3.93	.79	.22*	.20*	-.04	-.07	.48**	1.00					
7.D.IWS	1.67	.52	.22*	.05	.06	.17	.04	.03	1.00				
8.D.EWS	1.56	.70	.22*	.25**	.09	.15	.15	.00	.54**	1.00			
9.D.SUP	3.24	1.00	.11*	.15**	.04	-.05	.22**	.01	.17**	.18**	1.00		
10.D.REAP	3.49	.91	.00	.01	.03	-.01	.12**	.06	.13**	.18**	.34**	1.00	
11.D.PS	3.66	1.04	.01	-.07*	-.01	.00	.14**	.22*	.04	.02	.23**	.12*	1.00

Note: These values represent the pre-questionnaire and the baseline diary. SD = standard deviation, D = diary items, IIS = Intrinsic Improving Strategies, EIS = Extrinsic Improving Strategies, IWS = Intrinsic Worsening Strategies, EWS = Extrinsic worsening Strategies, REAP = Reappraisal, SUP = Suppression, PS = Thinking about problems and solution in workplace * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Control variables

With respect to potential control variables, some demographic variables such as age, tenure, marital status, job position (e.g., employee vs. director), citizenship status, job type (e.g., administrative) and education level have been tested using independent *t*-test and chi-square test to measure if there is a significant difference between the two experimental groups. No significant differences between the two groups were found (see Table 15).

Table 15

The t-Test and Chi-Square Test Values for Some Demographic Variables

Variables	Statistic	The experimental group		The control group	
		Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean
Age	$t = -.37$	7.59	31.16	7.83	32.11
Tenure	$t = .45$	8.39	8.78	6.91	7.61
Marital status	$\chi^2 = -.85$.49	1.63	.43	1.76
Job position	$\chi^2 = .30$.31	1.11	.23	1.06
Citizenship status	$\chi^2 = 1.89$.56	2.11	.43	2.24
Job type	$\chi^2 = 2.94$.77	2.47	.49	2.35
Education level	$t = -.13$.47	2.68	.46	1.70

Table 16 Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlation Values of Questionnaire and Diary's Dependent Variables.

Variables	Means	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26
1.ITA	3.66	.48	1.00																									
2.ITP	3.55	.52	.71**	1.00																								
3.GJP	4.78	.96	.40**	.43**	1.00																							
4.OCB	3.52	.31	.55**	.42**	.55**	1.00																						
5.RWS	3.82	.66	.43**	.38**	.20*	.56**	1.00																					
6.RWD	3.53	1.46	-.02	.13	.42**	.22	.02	1.00																				
7.RE	7.12	1.02	.48**	.57**	.60**	.60**	.44*	.20	1.00																			
8.JSS	4.57	1.20	.15	.02	.15	.45**	.46**	-.10	.28**	1.00																		
9.COMF	3.32	.82	.02	.15	.16	.13	.17	.17	.20*	.53**	1.00																	
10.ENTH	3.58	.95	-.08	.11	.26	.07	.06	.44**	.16	.42**	.71**	1.00																
11.DEPR	1.66	.58	.10	.08	.05	-.13	-.33*	.04	-.04	-.54*	-.37*	-.45*	1.00															
12.ANX	2.00	.67	-.15	-.17	.07	-.06	-.13	-.03	.01	-.18*	-.38*	-.38*	.44**	1.00														
13.EE	2.62	.88	.02	-.08	-.14	-.05	-.16	.18	-.08	-.46*	-.51*	-.61*	.39**	.30**	1.00													
14.D.ITA	3.45	.81	-.05	.12	.26**	.07	.03	.59	.11	.17	.01	.04	.08	.08	-.22*	1.00												
15.D.ITP	3.82	.82	-.07	.01	.10	-.01	-.15	-.21	.01	.10	.03	.21*	.17	.05	-.37*	.21*	1.00											
16.D.GJP	5.19	1.04	.22*	.26**	.39**	.32**	.14	.12	.28**	.11	-.11	-.02	.13	.20*	-.19*	.32**	.31**	1.00										
17.D.OCB	4.26	.74	.17	.18	.26**	.23*	.01	.40*	.27**	.06	-.13	.08	-.06	.02	.05	.15	.08	.41**	1.00									
18.D.RWS	3.62	.85	.19*	.27**	.20	.30**	.33**	-.07	.18	.20*	.04	.01	.01	.13	-.02	.19*	.18	.34**	.14	1.00								
19.D.RWD	4.63	1.90	.59**	.49**	.64**	.65**	.39*	.52**	.28	.10	-.10	.16	-.06	-.35*	.20	.20	-.01	.25	.35*	.53**	1.00							
20.D.RE	7.33	1.24	.17	.31**	.30**	.16	.08	-.11	.19	.22*	-.09	.06	.01	.17	-.24*	.35**	.28**	.42**	.31**	.41**	.36*	1.00						
21.D.JSS	4.74	1.42	-.23*	-.05	.01	.10	.06	.13	.07	.51**	.27**	.24**	-.29*	.02	-.41*	.44**	.21*	.23*	.14	.06	-.03	.36**	1.00					
22.D.COMF	3.54	.97	-.12	-.03	-.06	-.04	-.09	-.03	.01	.27**	.43**	.41**	-.06	-.26*	-.46*	.08	.25**	.06	-.04	.01	-.08	.15	.29**	1.00				
23.D.ENTH	3.18	1.00	-.09	.04	.04	.08	-.01	.27	-.03	.14	.12	.29**	-.02	-.07	-.24*	.10	.15	.16	.19*	.24*	.15	.21	.31**	.38**	1.00			
24.D.DEPR	1.87	1.16	.07	-.08	.08	-.01	.01	.13	-.01	-.36*	-.31*	-.30*	.20*	.11	.37**	-.03	-.23*	-.04	.08	.01	-.09	-.12	-.36*	-.51*	-.24*	1.00		
25.D.ANX	2.16	1.16	.11	.07	.09	-.02	.06	.26	.02	-.20*	-.22*	-.17	.15	.13	.35**	.07	-.21*	-.02	.13	.08	.02	-.01	-.18	-.39*	-.11	.61**	1.00	
26.D.EE	2.27	1.21	.21*	.07	.13	.08	-.02	.19	.04	-.20*	-.26*	-.28*	.20*	.08	.42**	-.13	-.14	-.11	.11	-.07	.21	-.21*	-.36*	-.46*	-.26*	.48**	.55**	1.00

Note: These values represent the pre-questionnaire and the baseline diary. SD = standard deviation, D = diary items, OCB: Organisational Citizenship Behaviour, RWD: Relationship with Donors, RE: Job Reputation, RWS: Relation with Supervisor, JSS = Job Satisfaction, EE = Emotional Exhaustion, ANX = Anxiety, DEPR = Depression, ENTH = Enthusiasm, COMF = Comfort, GJP = General Job Performance, ITA = Individual Task Adaptivity, ITP = Individual Task Proactivity. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Multi-level modelling analysis

Research hypotheses 8a to 11b predicted that there would be a positive impact of implementation intentions on job outcomes and this effect would be mediated by emotion regulation. As a result, five steps were undertaken in order to test these hypotheses using multi-level modelling analysis (MLM). Before proceeding with the following steps, the diary's variables have been reconstructed to cases in order to prepare the data for the MLM analysis. The first three steps were introduced separately as they may not be related directly to the research hypotheses but should still be addressed as a basis for the fourth and fifth steps.

The null model

The first step (null model) was assessed to conduct the baseline value for -2log-likelihood statistic (-2LL). The -2LL was used to test the model improvement along the five steps. In addition, this model provided the initial information for conducting the next models such as the estimates of individual parameters and their standard errors, the estimate of the residual error variance and its standard error, confidence intervals, and interval for the residual error variance estimate. The results showed that the baseline value for -2LL for all job outcomes was significant. Hence, the null model provided a basis for supporting the research hypotheses

The unconditional model

In addition to the initial information that was obtained in the previous model, the intercepts were allowed to vary and the variations between individuals were assessed in this model. The SUBJECT and COVTYPE options in /RANDOM command were added as they provide many options for modelling the covariance structures of random effects and residual

errors. For example, Table 17 indicates that the variance attributed to between-subject variation for individual task adaptivity, individual task proactivity, and general job performance were 23%, 32%, and 44%, respectively, $p < .01$. Hence, the unconditional model provided a basis for supporting the research hypotheses as it illustrated between-individual variations.

Table 17

The Unconditional Model

Unconditional model	-2*LL	Δ -2*LL	F	ICC
Individual task adaptivity	1619.23	114.71	2627.50**	.23**
Individual task proactivity	1437.45	185.47	2668.91**	.32**
General job performance	1660.59	262.94	1918.21**	.44**
Organisational citizenship behaviour	1257.13	156.9	5043.02**	.30**
Relationship with supervisor	1443.83	364.4	1353.24**	.50**
Relationship with donor	1348.35	324.72	471.50**	.60**
Job reputation	1931.61	358.76	2520.85**	.50**
Job satisfaction	1955.21	240.06	1367.86**	.39**
Anxious	1678.29	413.21	218.78**	.55**
Comfort	1737.22	413.21	1304.97**	.36**
Depression	1750.98	326.9	185.47**	.47**
Enthusiasm	1750.38	165.93	1498.11**	.31**
Emotional exhaustion	1818.80	486.43	205.67**	.60**

Note. Models are random intercept. SE = standard error; LL = log likelihood; ICC = interclass correlation; df = degree of freedom. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

The serial dependency model

When assessing the repeated measures data, it is expected to find a correlation between the repeated responses from the same respondents. Thus, a systemic pattern of correlations between the observations within subjects should be accounted for. A standard method to assess this non-independent affect is to use an autoregressive structure which is the

correlation (or serial dependency) between successive time points. As a result, the command /REPEATED, which assesses the nesting structure (time within subject), was added in order to assess the autoregressive structure (AR1). Table 18 indicates that all job outcomes showed significant auto-correlation over the study period. In other words, there was a positive correlation between successive time-points when assessing each job outcome, meaning that each observation was related to the preceding one.

Table 18

The Serial Dependency Model

Serial Dependency	Estimated of covariance parameters	SE
Individual task adaptivity	.45**	.04
Individual task proactivity	.47**	.04
General job performance	.39**	.04
Organisational citizenship behaviour	.41**	.04
Relationship with supervisor	.53**	.04
Relationship with donor	.47**	.05
Job reputation	.56**	.04
Job satisfaction	.62**	.03
Anxious	.34**	.04
Comfort	.27**	.04
Depression	.22**	.04
Enthusiasm	.48**	.04
Emotional exhaustion	.53**	.04

Note. Models are random intercept. SE = standard error. * p < .05. ** p < .01.

The Intervention using cross-level interaction model

In this model, the influence of the intervention and time effects was assessed. Each dependent variable, e.g., ITA, was included in this model. Also, baseline vs. Follow-up periods in addition to experimental vs. Control groups were added. As no significant effect of the demographic variables was found, no control variables were added to the model. The following research hypotheses will be assessed separately using this model.

Hypothesis 7a

To test hypothesis 7a, whether there will be a positive impact of if-then plans on job performance, three job performance measures were assessed: individual task adaptivity (ITA), individual task proactivity (ITP), and general job performance (GJP). The fourth model indicated that the implementation intentions significantly affected, over and above the general growth, ITA (fixed estimate = .68, $SE = .18$, $p < .01$), ITP (fixed estimate = .35, $SE = .16$, $p < .05$), and GJP (fixed estimate = .42, $SE = .20$, $p < .05$) over the study period (see Table 19).

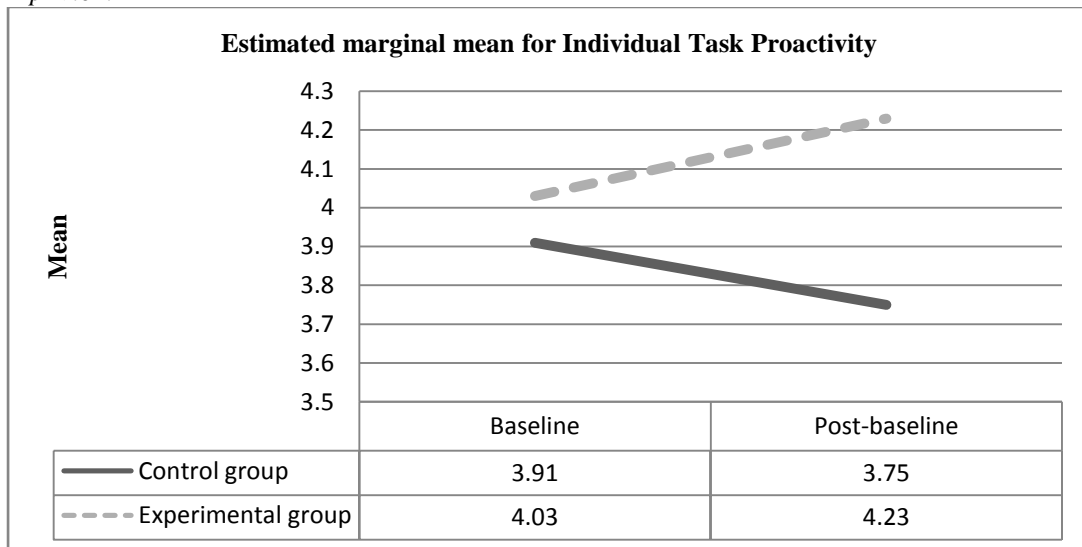
Figure 28 shows that although the experimental group has lower ITA ($M = 3.51$) compared to the control group before the intervention ($M = 3.73$, $p < .01$), they showed significantly higher ITA ($M = 3.98$) compared to the control group after the intervention ($M = 3.50$, $p < .01$). In addition, experimental group showed higher ITP ($M = 4.23$) and GJP ($M = 5.64$) compared to the control group after the intervention (ITA: $M = 3.75$, $p < .01$; GJP: $M = 5.07$, $p < .05$). Thus, the findings supported hypothesis 7a by showing that the if-then plans have a significant impact on job performance.

Table 19

The intervention Using Cross-Level Interaction Model for Job Performance

Job outcome	-2*LL	Δ - 2*LL	df	Key variables	Fixed effects estimates	Fixed effects SE	Random effects variance
Individual task adaptivity	1458.61	15					
			146	Intercept	3.70**	.14	.43**
			407	Stage	-.46**	.14	
			42	Group	-.47**	.13	
		322	stage * group	.68**	.18		
Individual task proactivity	1292.70	5.64					
			115	Intercept	4.03**	.13	.46**
			424	Stage	-.2	.12	
			40	Group	-.47**	.14	
		3334	stage * group	.35*	.16		
General job performance	1575.76	3.82					
			81	Intercept	5.45**	.22	.37**
			347	Stage	-.27	.16	
			39	Group	-.56*	.23	
		289	stage * group	.42*	.20		

Note. Models are random intercept. SE = standard error; LL = log likelihood; df = degree of freedom. Individual task adaptivity ($N = 689$), individual task proactivity ($N = 688$), general job performance ($N = 636$). * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.



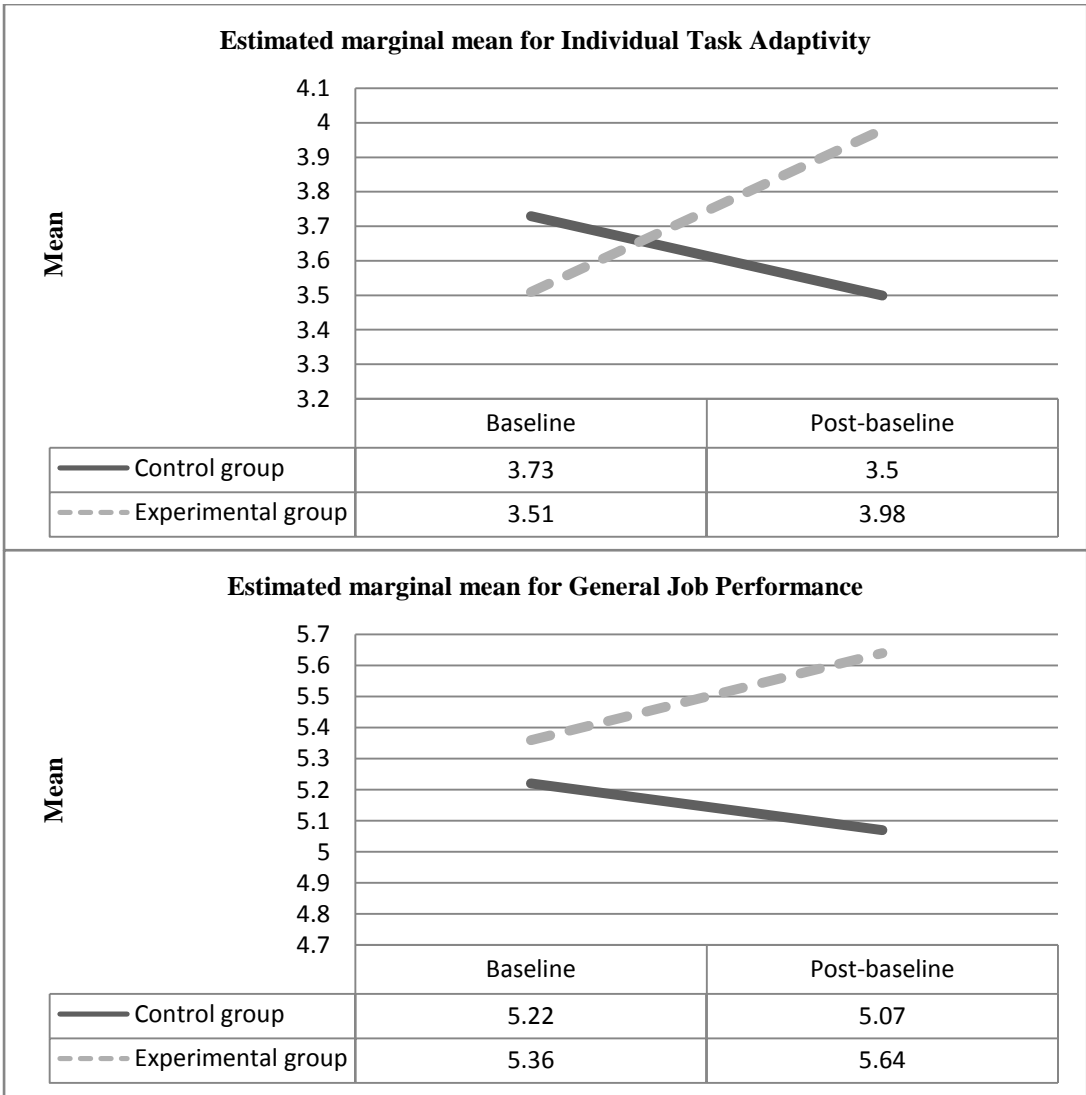


Figure 28 The Estimated Marginal Means for Job Performance by Condition and Time (MLM analysis).

Hypothesis 8a

To test hypothesis 8a, that there will a positive impact of implementation intentions on work relationships, four relationships measures were assessed; organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), relationship with supervisor (RWS), relationship with donors (RWD), and job reputation (REP). Table 20 shows that if-then plans had significantly affected, over and above the general growth, OCB (fixed estimate = .34, *SE* = .14, *p* < .05) and REP (fixed estimate = .81, *SE* = .22, *p* < .01) over the study period. However, no significant affect was added to the fourth model for either RWS (fixed estimate = .26, *SE* = .15, *ns*) or RWD (fixed estimate = .71, *SE* = .46, *ns*).

Significant differences between the experimental and control groups were found. For example, the estimated marginal means indicated that there were significant differences between the two groups in which the experimental group ($M = 4.10$) showed lower OCB before the intervention compared to the control group ($M = 4.36, p < .05$), while the experimental group ($M = 4.65$) showed higher OCB after the intervention compared to the control group ($M = 4.56, p < .05$). In addition, the experimental group showed a higher REP ($M = 7.85$) and RWS ($M = 4.10$) than the control group after the intervention: REP ($M = 7.15$) and RWS ($M = 3.86$, both $ps < .05$). No significant difference was found between the two groups for RWD. In general, hypothesis 8a has been partly supported, i.e., three relationship factors were affected positively by implementation intentions.

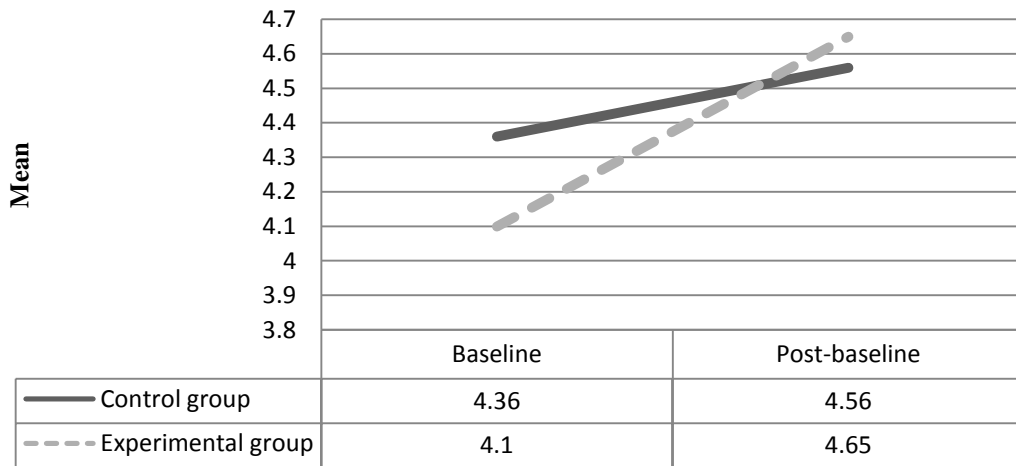
Table 20

The Intervention Using Cross-Level Interaction Model for Work Relationships

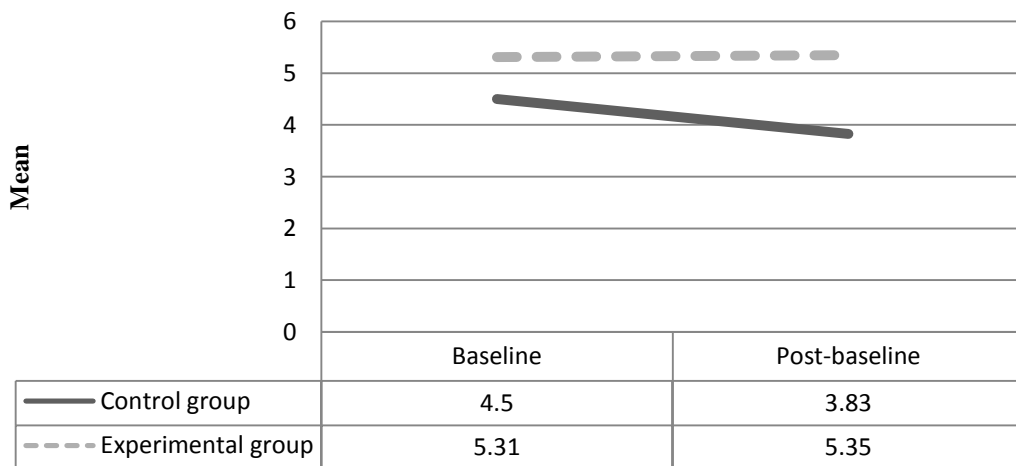
Job outcome	-2*LL	Δ - 2*LL	df	Key variables	Fixed effects estimates	Fixed effects SE	Random effects variance
Organisational citizenship behaviour	1137.22	17.56	106	Intercept	4.64 **	.12	.40**
			374	Stage	-.55**	.11	
			40	Group	-.08	.13	
			301	stage * group	.34 *	.14	
Job reputation	1734.03	11.9	79	Intercept	7.54**	.24	.53**
			441	Stage	-.31	.17	
			39	Group	-.70*	.28	
			335	stage * group	.81**	.22	
Relationship with supervisor	1217.01	-1.9	73	Intercept	3.73	.17	.35**
			429	Stage	-.19	.12	
			38	Group	-.24	.20	
			327	Stage * group	.26	.15	
Relationship with donors	1254.53	12.69	66	Intercept	4.89**	.30	.52**
			244	Stage	-.04	.29	
			33	Group	-1.51**	.40	
			194	stage * group	.71	.46	

Note. Models are random intercept. SE = standard error; LL = log likelihood; df = degree of freedom. Organisational citizenship behaviour ($N = 685$), job reputation ($N = 688$), relationship with supervisor ($N = 681$), and relationship with donors ($N = 443$). * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

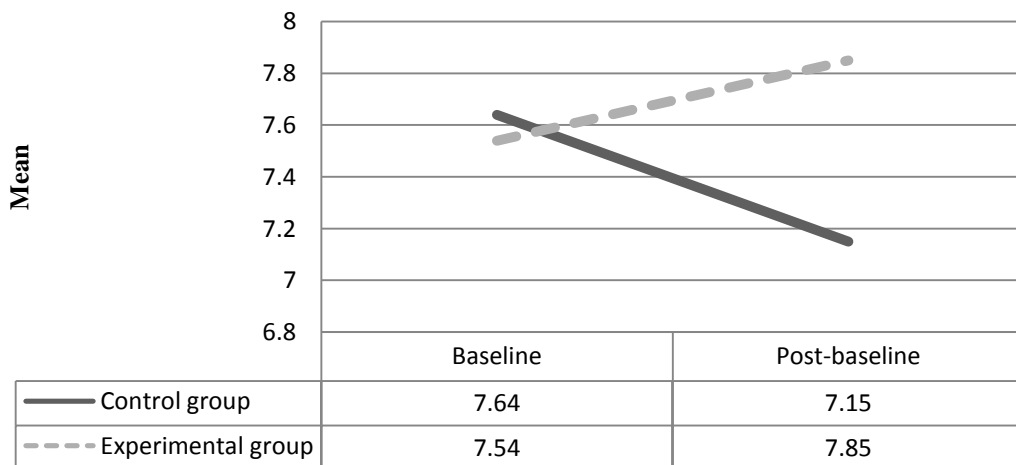
Estimated marginal mean for Organisational Citizenship Behaviour



Estimated marginal mean for Relationship with Donors



Estimated marginal mean for Job Reputation



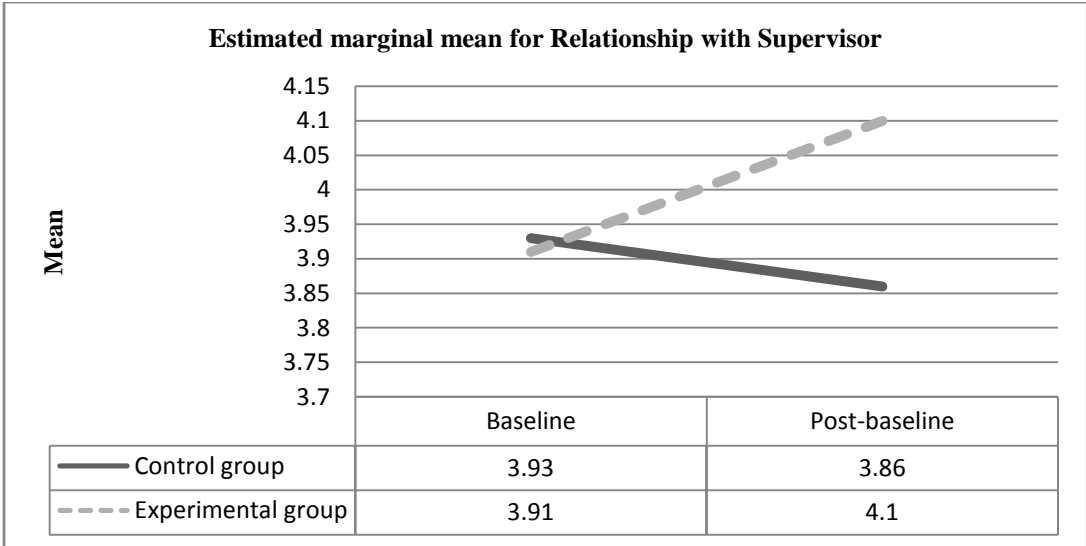


Figure 29 The Estimated Marginal Means for Work Relationship by Condition and Time (MLM analysis).

Hypothesis 10a

To test hypothesis 10a, that there will be a positive impact of implementation intentions on well-being at the workplace, six well-being measures were assessed; job satisfaction scale (JSS), anxiety (ANX), comfort (COMF), depression (DEPR), enthusiasm (ENTH), and emotional exhaustion (EE). Table 21 shows that the implementation intentions had significantly affected, albeit negatively, job satisfaction over the study period (fixed estimate = -.65, SE = .23, $p < .01$). However, no significant effect was found over and above general growth for the rest of the well-being factors.

Figure 30 indicates that although both groups showed significant differences in DEPR before the intervention (the experimental group: $M = 1.53$; the control group: $M = 2.11$, $p < .05$), both of them showed significant decrease in DEPR after the intervention (the experimental group: $M = 1.35$; the control group: $M = 2.04$, $p < .01$). In addition, both of them showed significant differences in COMF before (the experimental group: $M = 4.00$; the control group: $M = 3.46$, $p < .05$) and after the intervention (the experimental group: $M = 3.97$; the control group: $M = 3.46$, $p < .05$). Only the control group showed significant increase in ANX after the intervention ($M = 2.48$, $p < .05$). However, only the experimental

group showed significant increase in ENTH after the intervention ($M = 3.96, p < .01$). No significant differences between the two groups were found for JSS and EE. Thus, the results showed that only two variables, depression and enthusiasm, were found to be affected by the experimental group.

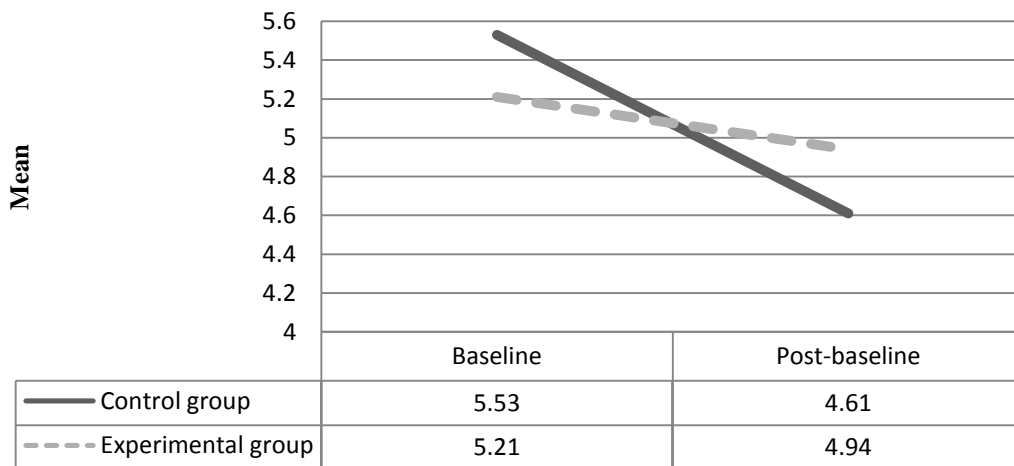
Table 21

The Intervention Using Cross-Level Interaction Model for Job Well-being

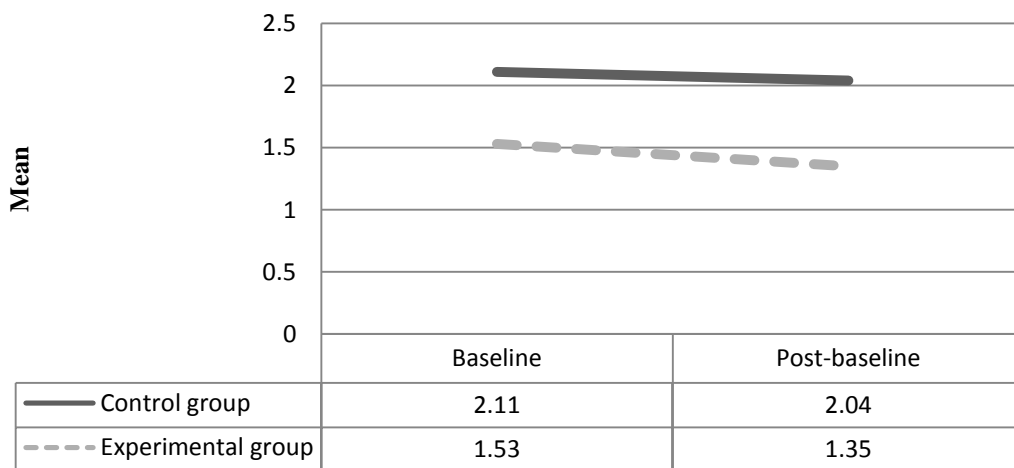
Job outcome	-2*LL	Δ - 2*LL	df	Key variables	Fixed effects estimates	Fixed effects SE	Random effects variance
Job satisfaction	1643.65	21.6	90	Intercept	4.11**	.23	.58**
			471	Stage	.26	.17	
			39	Group	-.33	.26	
			366	stage * group	-.65**	.23	
Depression	1726.15	4.51	73	Intercept	1.37**	.19	.21**
			312	Stage	.18	.15	
			38	Group	.69**	.23	
			268	stage * group	-.12	.18	
Anxiety	1595.67	5.78	68	Intercept	1.91**	.20	.34**
			367	Stage	-.02	.14	
			38	Group	.82**	.25	
			301	Stage * group	-.12	.18	
Comfort	1685.74	1.7	98	Intercept	3.73**	.17	.28**
			344	Stage	.03	.15	
			39	Group	-.50*	.19	
			283	stage * group	-.03	.19	
Enthusiasm	1477.81	4.73	114	Intercept	3.42**	.16	.48**
			377	Stage	-.30*	.15	
			40	Group	-.50**	.17	
			308	stage * group	.30	.19	
Emotional exhaustion	1672.44	1.74	66	Intercept	2.22**	.26	.52**
			422	Stage	-.15	.17	
			38	Group	.60	.33	
			322	stage * group	-.08	.22	

Note. Models are random intercept. SE = standard error; LL = log likelihood; df = degree of freedom. job satisfaction ($N=672$), depression ($N=684$), anxiety ($N=676$), comfort ($N=680$), enthusiasm ($N=681$), and emotional exhaustion ($N=671$). * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

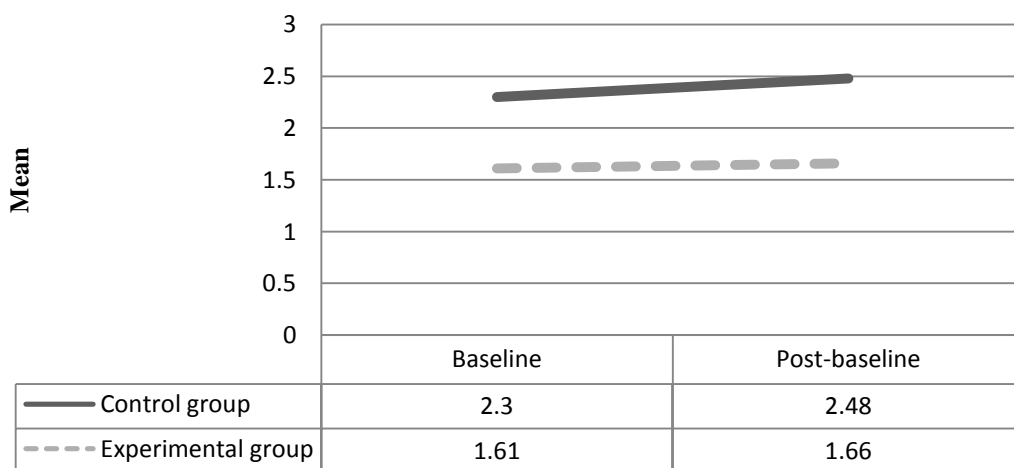
Estimated marginal mean for Job Satisfaction



Estimated marginal mean for Depression



Estimated marginal mean for Anxiety



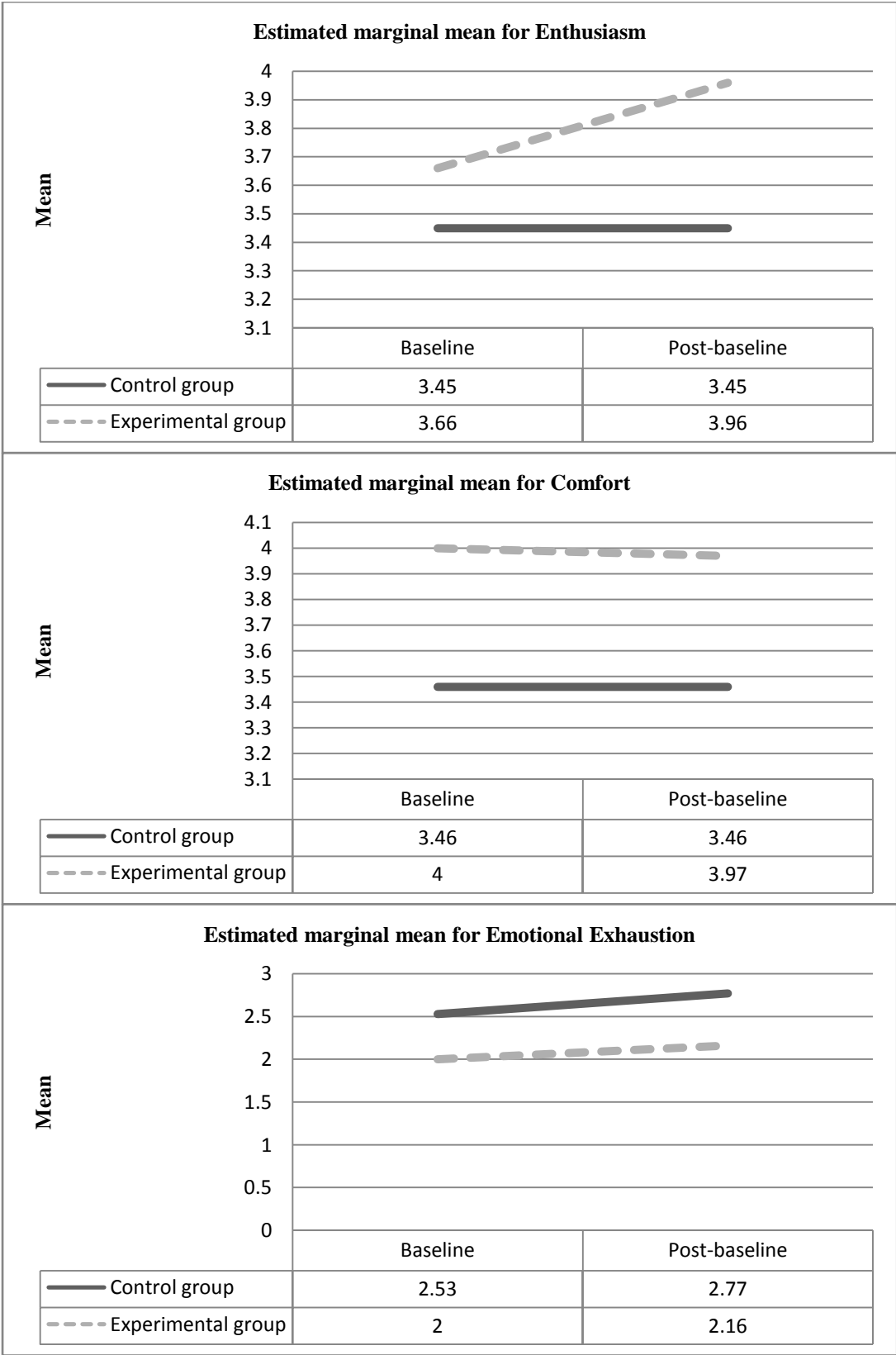


Figure 30 The Estimated Marginal Means for Job Well-Being by Condition and Time (MLM analysis).

The Mediation Model

Research suggests that mediation analysis in multilevel models is different from traditional mediation (Kenny, Korchmaros & Bolger, 2003). In a multilevel analysis, the dataset could at least be nested within two levels. Researchers, for example, may be interested in assessing employees' performance in terms of individuals, sectors, companies, or even countries. In this case, employees' performance could be significantly different according to the geographic area or experiences that employees have in each sector or company.

Researchers have proposed different mediation procedures according to their respective research aims (Kenny, Kashy & Bolger, 1998; Krull & MacKinnon, 2001). One of those mediation forms that seems to suit the current research aims is the lower level mediation model. Kenny and his colleagues (1998; Kenny et al., 2003) argued that this mediation form exists when the predictor, outcome, and mediator are on level-1. For example, in the current study, the aim was to look at the effect of the cross-level interaction between the experimental group (level-2) and the treatment period (i.e., baseline vs. intervention; level-1) on job outcomes (level-1) and whether such an effect is mediated by emotion regulation (level-1).

Bauer and colleagues (2006) proposed a solution to examine the lower mediation level. They formulated the lower mediation equation through the use of indicator variables. They argued that this strategy is useful in this context. For instance, this strategy is based on forming a new outcome (\mathbf{Z}) by stacking \mathbf{Y} and \mathbf{M} for each unit \mathbf{i} within \mathbf{j} . That is, this outcome seems to fit a multivariate model. In addition, in order to distinguish between the two variables related to \mathbf{Z} , two new variables were created (i.e., the variable $\mathbf{SM} = 1$ when \mathbf{Z} refers to \mathbf{M} and is 0 otherwise; similarly, the variable $\mathbf{SY} = 1$ when \mathbf{Z} refers to \mathbf{Y} and is 0

otherwise). Mathiowetz and Bauer (2008) have published instructions and a syntax file for assessing this strategy by using the SPSS program. They also provided an Excel sheet in order to assess the total and indirect effect.

Several researchers have developed methods to assess the indirect effect (e.g., Bauer et al., 2006; Kenny et al., 2003; Krull and MacKinnon, 2001). One promising method for assessing the indirect effect via confidence intervals is the Monte Carlo (MC) approach (MacKinnon, Lockwood & Williams, 2004). Preacher and Selig (2012) indicated that “the Monte Carlo (MC) method involves generating a sampling distribution of a compound statistic by using point estimates of its component statistics, along with the asymptotic covariance matrix of these estimates and assumptions about how the component statistics are distributed” (p. 82). On that basis, sample statistics in this approach are directly generated by the joint asymptotic distribution.

For instance, researchers have argued that classic mediation methods (i.e., Baron and Kenny, 1986; Sobel, 1982) have recently been supported by computationally intensive methods such as MC and bootstrapping methods (Biesanz, Falk & Savalei, 2010). In a recent article, Biesanz and colleagues (2010) found that MC exhibited reasonable power and produced stable coverage rates. Thus, scholars argued that MC share the same advantages with other powerful methods such as the nonparametric bootstrap, e.g., Preacher and Hayes’ bootstrapping method (Preacher & Selig, 2012). For example, both methods’ intervals for ab are asymmetric. That is, the intervals are more likely to represent the true distribution of products (Bollen & Stine, 1990). In addition, conducting the MC method is faster than performing bootstrapping method. Preacher and Selig (2012) argued that researchers need only fit the model once to the data. In addition, the MC method could be useful in some situations (i.e., multilevel modelling) compared to the bootstrapping method. Because of

these advantages, Preacher and Selig (2012) adopted the MC method for assessing the confidence intervals in order to examine the indirect effect.

Although the calculation method of Bauer et al. (2006) that was discussed previously did not account for the confidence intervals in the MC approach, Bauer (2008) developed a web tool that calculates the confidence intervals using the MC approach. They indicated that seven elements should be made available from the MLM's output. These statistical information include estimates of fixed and random effects as well as estimates from the covariance matrix of the model parameters (Preacher & Selig, 2010). First of all, (a_j), the fixed effect of an independent variable (X), i.e., the intervention on the mediator (M) should be assessed. Second, (b_j), the fixed effect of a mediator on an outcome (Y) should then be tested. The coefficient of the first and second steps will be used to calculate the indirect effect. In the third step, ($\tau a_j b_j$), the fixed effect of the independent variable on the outcome should be assessed while the influence of the mediator is controlled. In this step, the intercepts and slopes are all random. Thus, the random slopes for a and b co-vary and the covariance between them should be assessed in order to determine the indirect effect. Fourth, fifth, and sixth, the elements $\sigma^2 a$, $\sigma^2 b$, σab respectively, describe the estimates of covariance parameters that could be found within the MLM output. These estimates describe the variances and covariances among the parameters. That is, the sampling variances for a and b should be addressed in addition to the covariance between the parameter estimates (ab). Finally, the last element that should be included to assess the indirect effect is the sampling variance in the covariance estimate of the slopes a and b ($\sigma \tau a_j b_j$). Based on these seven elements, confident intervals could be calculated using the MC approach.

Hypothesis 7b

Based on the previous procedures, Table 22 suggests that only improving regulation strategies showed significant (but partial) mediation effect on job performance factors. For instance, IIS and EIS showed significant indirect effect on ITA, IIS = .13 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [.06, .33]; EIS = .11 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [.02, .19]. In addition, both factors showed indirect effect on ITP, IIS = .06 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [.14, .26]; EIS = .03 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [.16, .23]. Finally, EIS has been found to have an indirect effect on GJP, EIS = .09 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [.10, .29]. Although the previous indirect effects were considered to be partial mediation, only IIS has a full mediation effect and accounted for 15% of the relationship between the intervention and GJP, IIS = .15 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [.06, .37].

In support of hypothesis 7b, the mediation effect for improving regulation strategies (IIS, EIS) seems to have only a partial mediation effect on job performance factors except the mediation effect of IIS on the association between intervention and GJP.

Table 22

The Mediation Effect for Job Performance

Outcome	Mediators	a path		b path		Total direct effect (95% CI)		Total indirect effect (95% CI)			
		Effect	SE	Effect	SE	Effect	SE	Effect	SE	LL	UL
ITA	IIS	.47**	.17	.27**	.14	.62**	.19	.13**	.10	0.06	.33
	EIS	.34*	.15	.21**	.06	.57**	.15	.11**	.04	.02	.19
	IWS	-.02	.12	-.17	.07	.34**	.13	-.002	.02	-.05	.04
	EWS	-.05	.15	-.10	.08	.40**	.13	-.04	.02	-.08	-.003
ITP	IIS	.42*	.18	.21**	.06	.40*	.18	.06**	.10	.14	.26
	EIS	.34*	.16	.21**	.04	.44**	.18	.03**	.10	.16	.23
	IWS	-.03	.11	-.21	.07	.22	.16	.02	.09	-.16	.21
	EWS	-.12	.14	-.09	.04	.21	.16	-.03	.09	-.21	.15

GJP	IIS	.42**	.18	.31**	.04	.44	.19	.15**	.10	.06	.37
	EIS	.34**	.16	.20**	.05	.46*	.18	.09**	.10	.10	.29
	IWS	-.12	.12	-.27*	.09	.19	.19	.09	.10	-.10	.29
	EWS	-.13	.15	-.18*	.07	.19	.18	-.02	.09	-.22	.16

Note: Confidence intervals for indirect effect are based on the Monte Carlo method (available at <http://www.quantpsy.org>); CI= confidence interval; SE= standard error; IIS = Intrinsic Improving Strategies, EIS = Extrinsic Improving Strategies, IWS = Intrinsic Worsening Strategies, EWS = Extrinsic Worsening Strategies, GJP = General Job Performance, ITA = Individual Task Adaptivity, ITP = Individual Task Proactivity. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Hypothesis 8b

Hypothesis 8b proposed that emotion regulation will mediate the relationship between if-then plans and work relationships. The results are consistent with the previous paragraph (hypothesis 7b) in which only improving strategies have a significant partial mediation effect. Table 23 shows that IIS and EIS accounted for 7% and 6% respectively of the relationship between the intervention and OCB, IIS = .07 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [.01, .15]; EIS = .06 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [.001, .12]. In addition, both factors showed an indirect effect on RE, IIS = .12 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [.01, .26]; EIS = .16 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [.04, .28]. Finally, only IIS showed significant partial mediation effect and accounted for 11% of the relationship between intervention and RWD, IIS = .11 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [.02, .19]. It should be noted that no indirect effect was found on RWD.

In support of hypothesis 8b, IIS and EIS showed partial mediation effect on job reputation and organisational citizenship behaviour while IIS showed partial mediation effect on the relationship with supervisor. No indirect effect was obtained when considering RWD.

Table 23

The Mediation Effect for Work Relationships

Outcome	Mediators	<i>a</i> path		<i>b</i> path		Total direct effect (95% CI)		Total indirect effect (95% CI)			
		Effect	SE	Effect	SE	Effect	SE	Effect	SE	LL	UL
OCB	IIS	.45**	.17	.11*	.05	.56**	.13	.07**	.04	.01	.15
	EIS	.33*	.15	.15**	.03	.55**	.12	.06**	.03	.001	.12
	IWS	-.07	.11	-.15*	.06	.31*	.27	-.04	.25	-.53	.44
	EWS	-.10	.14	-.06	.05	.71**	.12	.27	.12	.24	.29
RWS	IIS	.44*	.23	.18**	.06	.74**	.18	.11**	.04	.02	.19
	EIS	.27	.16	.16*	.06	.59**	.16	.02	.03	-.04	.08
	IWS	-.08	.11	.0.02	.05	.37**	.14	.02	.008	-.03	-.004
	EWS	-.15	.15	-.12*	.04	.39*	.15	.03	.02	-.01	.07
RWD	IIS	.56**	.21	.23	.08	.41	.26	.13	.06	-.002	.26
	EIS	.44*	.18	.16	.08	.52	.38	.10	.05	-.0004	.20
	IWS	-.10	.12	.12	.17	.28	.37	-.07	.03	-.14	-.01
	EWS	-.17	.15	.08	.13	.01	.37	-.10	.03	-.17	-.03
RE	IIS	.54**	.19	.29**	.08	.61*	.24	.12**	.07	.01	.26
	EIS	.40*	.17	.27**	.06	.57	.24	.16**	.05	.04	.28
	IWS	-.05	.12	-.20**	.06	.24	.20	-.03	.02	-.08	.02
	EWS	-.07	.16	-.07	.07	.41	.21	.09	.01	.05	.12

Note: Confidence intervals for indirect effect are based on the Monte Carlo method (available at <http://www.quantpsy.org>); CI= confidence interval; SE= standard error; IIS = Intrinsic Improving Strategies, EIS = Extrinsic Improving Strategies, IWS = Intrinsic Worsening Strategies, EWS = Extrinsic Worsening Strategies, , OCB = Organisational Citizenship Behaviour, RWD = Relationship with Donors, RE = Job Reputation, RWS = Relation with Supervisor. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Hypothesis 10b

Hypothesis 10b proposed that there will be a mediating effect of emotion regulation on the relationship between implementation intentions and well-being at the workplace. Table 24 suggests that the results are consistent with the previous paragraphs (i.e., only improving strategies showed an indirect effect). In particular, IIS showed a full mediation effect on three

well-being outcomes: it accounted for 25% of the relationship between the intervention and JS, IIS = .25 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [.08, .41]. Also, IIS accounted for 12% of the relationship between the intervention and DEPR, IIS = .12 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [.02, .23] and accounted for 2% of the relationship between the intervention and ANX, IIS = -.02 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [.12, .07]. Finally, both IIS and EIS showed partial mediation effect on ENTH, IIS = .16 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [.20, .52]; EIS = .14 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [.20, .50].

In support of hypothesis 10b, IIS showed full mediation effect on job satisfaction, depression, and anxiety; while IIS and EIS showed partial mediation effect on enthusiasm. No mediation effect was found when considering comfort and emotional exhaustion.

Table 24

The Mediation Effect for Work Well-Being

Outcome	Mediators	<i>a</i> path		<i>b</i> path		Total direct effect (95% CI)		Total indirect effect (95% CI)			
		Effect	SE	Effect	SE	Effect	SE	Effect	SE	LL	UL
JS	IIS	.48**	.19	.34**	.08	.41	.26	.25**	.08	.08	.41
	EIS	.34	.18	.35**	.09	.38	.26	.16	.07	.01	.30
	IWS	-.13	.12	.01	.11	.04	.29	.02	.18	-.34	.38
	EWS	-.18	.16	-.002	.07	.08	.24	.05	.02	.007	.10
DEPR	IIS	.46*	.19	-.19**	.07	.19	.17	.12**	.05	.02	.23
	EIS	.30	.16	-.04	.05	-.03	.16	-.01	.02	-.05	.02
	IWS	-.19	.12	.11	.08	-.37*	.17	.04	.02	.005	.09
	EWS	-.24	.15	.20*	.07	-.31	.18	-.03	.06	-.15	.08
ENTH	IIS	.40*	.18	.28**	.08	.76**	.27	.16**	.18	.20	.52
	EIS	.36*	.16	.27**	.05	.87**	.24	.14**	.18	.21	.50
	IWS	-.02	.12	-.02	.10	.62**	.23	.05	.17	-.28	.39
	EWS	-.11	.16	-.01	.07	.60**	.24	.01	.17	-.32	.36
ANX	IIS	.37*	.19	-.23**	.06	-.05	.16	-.02**	.05	.12	.07

	EIS	.29	.16	-.15**	.05	-.02	.10	-.07	.03	-.14	-.008
	IWS	-.22	.11	.18	.08	-.32**	.18	.05	.02	.0005	.11
	EWS	-.28	.15	.21**	.05	-.30	.18	-.06	.03	-.14	.003
COM	IIS	.21	.18	.35**	.06	.16	.17	.11	.18	-.02	.24
	EIS	.11	.17	.21	.05	.18	.16	.12	.04	.04	.20
	IWS	-.22	.12	-.19**	.07	.04	.14	.04	.03	-.01	.11
	EWS	-.29	.15	-.10	.05	.06	.15	.05	.02	.005	.10
EE	IIS	.46*	.19	-.28	.07	.37*	.21	-.07	.15	-.19	.04
	EIS	.29	.18	-.16	.06	.36*	.21	-.10	.06	-.18	.03
	IWS	-.26*	.11	-.16	.09	.32	.20	.15	.03	.07	.22
	EWS	-.34*	.15	.08	.07	-.03	.20	-.03	.02	-.09	.02

Note: Confidence intervals for indirect effect are based on the Monte Carlo method (available at <http://www.quantpsy.org>); CI= confidence interval; SE= standard error; IIS = Intrinsic Improving Strategies, EIS = Extrinsic Improving Strategies, IWS = Intrinsic Worsening Strategies, EWS = Extrinsic Worsening Strategies, EE = Emotional Exhaustion, ANX = Anxiety, DEPR = Depression, ENTH = Enthusiasm, COMF = Comfort, JS= Job Satisfaction. * p < .05. ** p < .01.

Results: Section 2

Descriptive Analysis

A descriptive analysis was conducted to assess the distribution, means, and standard deviations of the variables included in the pre-post and follow-up questionnaires. It should be noted that two factors had been included in section 2: organisational commitment (AC) and standard evaluation form of job performance (SEJP). This form is used by the Ministry of Social Affairs and Labour in Kuwait as a standard job evaluation for charitable organisations. These two factors had not been included in the daily diary to keep the diary short. Also, it is not appropriate to measure the organisational commitment on a daily basis. Table 25 shows the means and standard deviations for the pre-post and follow-up questionnaires.

Table 25

Means and Standard Deviations for the Pre-Post and Follow-Up Questionnaires

Time		IIS	EIS	IWS	EWS	ITA	ITP	SEJP	GJP	OCB	RWS
Pre-questionnaire	Mean	3.70	3.93	1.67	1.51	3.66	3.55	6.08	4.72	3.44	3.82
	SD	.63	.52	.79	.63	.48	.52	.64	.90	.32	.66
Post-questionnaire (1 month later)	Mean	4.03	4.19	1.34	1.30	4.03	3.78	6.24	5.18	3.54	4.07
	SD	.51	.50	.59	.50	.59	.46	.62	.94	.39	.68
Follow-up questionnaire (8 months later)	Mean	4.18	4.16	1.59	1.59	4.07	3.94	6.40	5.44	3.77	4.28
	SD	.64	.73	.71	.76	.85	.94	.70	1.07	.79	.74
Time		RWD	RE	AC	JSS	ANX	DEPR	COMF	ENTH	EE	-
Pre-questionnaire	Mean	3.53	7.12	5.40	4.56	2.00	1.66	3.32	3.58	2.62	-
	SD	1.50	1.03	1.25	1.22	.67	.59	.83	.96	.89	-
Post-questionnaire (1 month later)	Mean	4.86	7.62	5.68	4.61	1.99	1.67	3.48	3.61	2.51	-
	SD	.85	.80	1.01	1.18	.62	.57	.85	.94	.91	-
Follow-up questionnaire (8 months later)	Mean	5.42	7.84	5.73	4.73	2.10	1.85	3.55	3.60	2.50	-
	SD	.89	1.02	1.15	.88	.88	.73	1.29	.91	.98	-

Note: IIS = Intrinsic Improving Strategies, EIS = Extrinsic Improving Strategies, IWS = Intrinsic Worsening Strategies, EWS = Extrinsic Worsening Strategies, OCB = Organisational Citizenship Behaviour, RWD = Relationship with Donors, RE = Job Reputation, RWS = Relation with Supervisor, JSS = Job Satisfaction, EE = Emotional Exhaustion, ANX = Anxiety, DEPR = Depression, ENTH = Enthusiasm, COMF = Comfort, GJP = General Job Performance, ITA = Individual Task Adaptivity, ITP = Individual Task Proactivity, SEJP = Standard Evaluation Form of Job Performance, AC = Affective Commitment.

Repeated Measures ANOVA

To estimate the influence of implementation intentions on emotion regulation and job outcomes over one month and then after 8 months, and to measure whether there were significant differences between the experimental and the control group, a series of 2-between (condition) x 3-within (time) *Analyses of Variance* (ANOVAs) was conducted. Table 26 shows that there were main effects of time on most variables. Most important, however, the interaction between condition and time proved significant for all of the dependent variables,

except job satisfaction ($F(2, 37) = .56, ns$). The following paragraphs will take a closer look at each interaction between condition and time (simple effects analyses).

Table 26

Repeated Measure ANOVA: Tests of Between and Within-Subjects Effects

Variable	Condition (group)		Time (1,2, and 3)		Condition × Time	
	F	η^2	F	η^2	F	η^2
IIS	7.84**	.17	24.39**	.39	24.01**	.39
EIS	10.61**	.22	10.10**	.21	57.11**	.60
IWS	6.08*	.14	.37	.01	41.06**	.52
EWS	8.86**	.19	1.05	.02	53.97**	.59
ITA	22.39**	.37	19.24**	.34	42.58**	.53
ITP	9.14**	.19	7.78**	.17	21.27**	.36
SEJP	4.25*	.10	19.26**	.34	39.56**	.51
GJP	8.54**	.18	93.66**	.71	88.38**	.70
OCB	28.86**	.99	16.99**	.31	80.96**	.68
RWS	13.09**	.26	21.00**	.36	23.53**	.38
RWD	.05	.01	29.43**	.72	12.35**	.52
REP	3.94	.09	33.94**	.47	40.37**	.52
AC	5.49*	.12	3.77	.09	38.65**	.51
JSS	.82	.02	1.41	.03	.56	.45
ANX	8.96**	.19	1.53	.04	41.10**	.52
DEPR	7.87**	.17	8.07**	.18	55.57**	.60
COMF	15.52**	.29	1.51	.03	30.63**	.45
ENTH	1.04	.02	.01	.01	33.76**	.47
EE	3.90	.09	3.20	.08	46.52**	.55

Note: IIS = Intrinsic Improving Strategies, EIS = Extrinsic Improving Strategies, IWS = Intrinsic Worsening Strategies, EWS = Extrinsic Worsening Strategies, OCB = Organisational Citizenship Behaviour, RWD = Relationship with Donors, RE = Job Reputation, RWS = Relation with Supervisor, JSS = Job Satisfaction, EE = Emotional Exhaustion, ANX = Anxiety, DEPR = Depression, ENTH = Enthusiasm, COMF = Comfort, GJP = General Job Performance, ITA = Individual Task Adaptivity, ITP = Individual Task Proactivity, SEJP = Standard Evaluation Form of Job Performance, AC = Affective Commitment. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

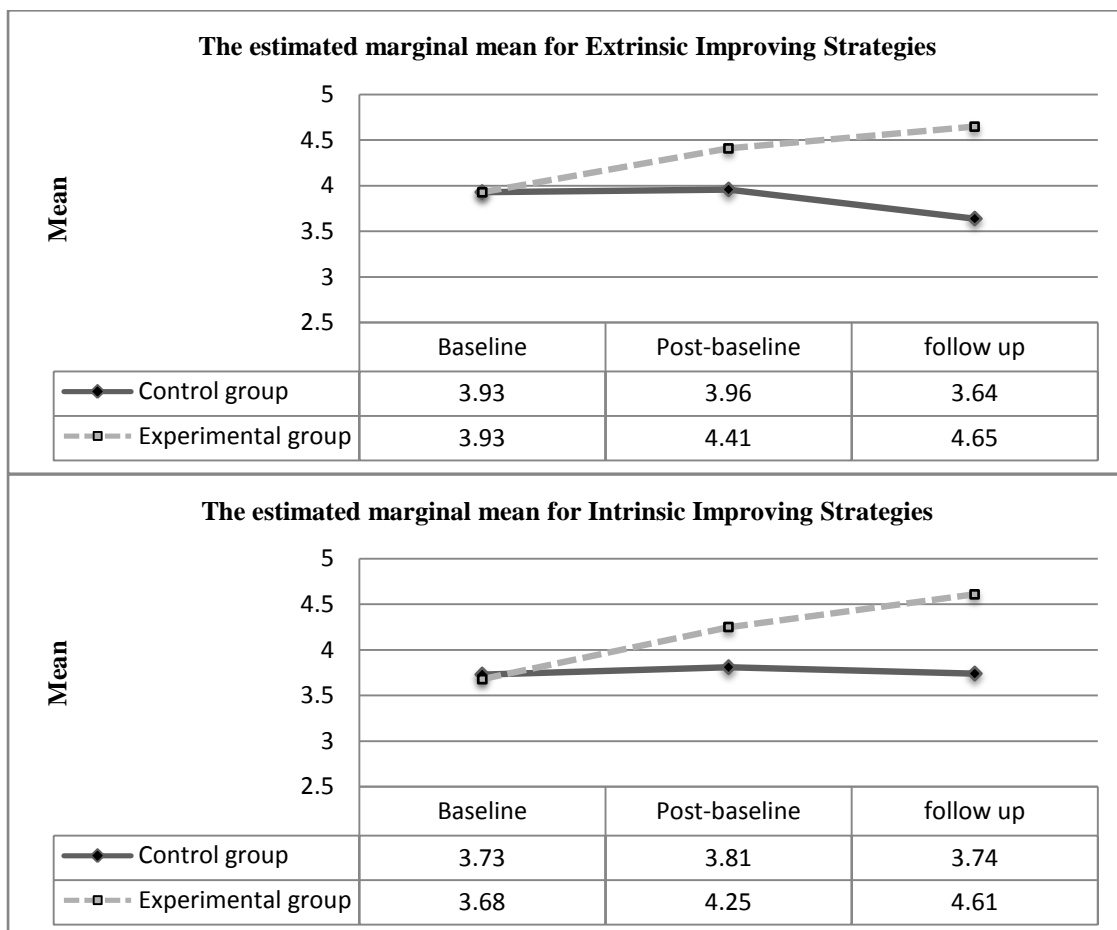
Emotion regulation Strategies

Simple effects analyses were used to examine the effect of implementation intentions at each level of time for each emotion regulation strategy. Figure 31 shows how each variable differed between the two groups. There were no significant differences between the implementation intention and control group on IIS, EIS IWS or EWS at baseline. However, the experimental group significantly showed higher usage of IIS ($M = 4.25$) and EIS ($M = 4.41$) than the control group (IIS: $M = 3.81$; EIS: $M = 3.96, p < .01$) after the intervention.

The experimental group also showed higher usage of IIS ($M = 4.41$) and EIS ($M = 4.65, p < .01$) than the control group after 8 months. The experimental group, on the other hand, showed lower IWS ($M = 1.15$) and EWS ($M = 1.13$) after one month; and even lower IWS ($M = 1.04$) and EWS ($M = 1.01$) than the control group (IWS: $M = 2.17$; EWS: $M = 2.20, p < .01$) after 8 months.

The impact of time within each group was analysed in three ways: the effect of baseline vs. post-baseline period, the effect of post-baseline vs. follow-up period, and the effect of baseline vs. follow-up period. In the first period, only the experimental group showed an increase in their use of improving emotion regulation strategies after one month; IIS ($F(1, 19) = 30.68$), EIS ($F(1, 19) = 40.70$, both $ps < .01$), only the experimental group showed a decrease in their use of worsening emotion regulation strategies after one month; IWS ($F(1, 19) = 18.59$), EWS ($F(1, 19) = 24.46$, both $ps < .01$). The second period is consistent with the first one. The implementation intentions group showed a higher use of their improving strategies and lower use of worsening strategies, IIS ($F(1, 19) = 12.07$), EIS ($F(1, 19) = 20.24, p < .01$), IWS ($F(1, 19) = 13.33$), and EWS ($F(1, 19) = 12.97$, all $ps < .01$). However, the control group showed a decrease in their use of extrinsic improving regulation strategies and an increase in their use of worsening regulation strategies, EIS ($F(1, 20) = 10.21$), IWS ($F(1, 20) = 30.45$) and EWS ($F(1, 20) = 31.55$, all $ps < .01$). Finally, when assessing the baseline vs. follow-up period, the implementation intentions group showed an even higher use of improving strategies and lower use of worsening strategies, IIS ($F(1, 19) = 27.65$), EIS ($F(1, 19) = 52.06$), IWS ($F(1, 19) = 19.54$), and EWS ($F(1, 19) = 22.52$, all $ps < .01$). However, the control group also showed a decrease in their use of extrinsic improving regulation strategies and an increase in their use of worsening strategies, EIS ($F(1, 20) = 10.91$), IWS ($F(1, 20) = 23.73$), and EWS ($F(1, 20) = 31.22$, all $ps < .01$).

The results suggest that the implementation intention intervention enhanced emotion regulation factors in both the short-term and long-term. Moreover, the implementation intentions group used more improving regulation strategies and less worsening regulation strategies over time. The control group, however, showed a significant reduction in their use of extrinsic positive emotion regulation and an increase in their use of negative emotion regulation over time. Given that participants did not know their group allocation and that both groups worked in the same sectors and had the same direct supervisors, no specific reason could explain the negative effect in the control group.



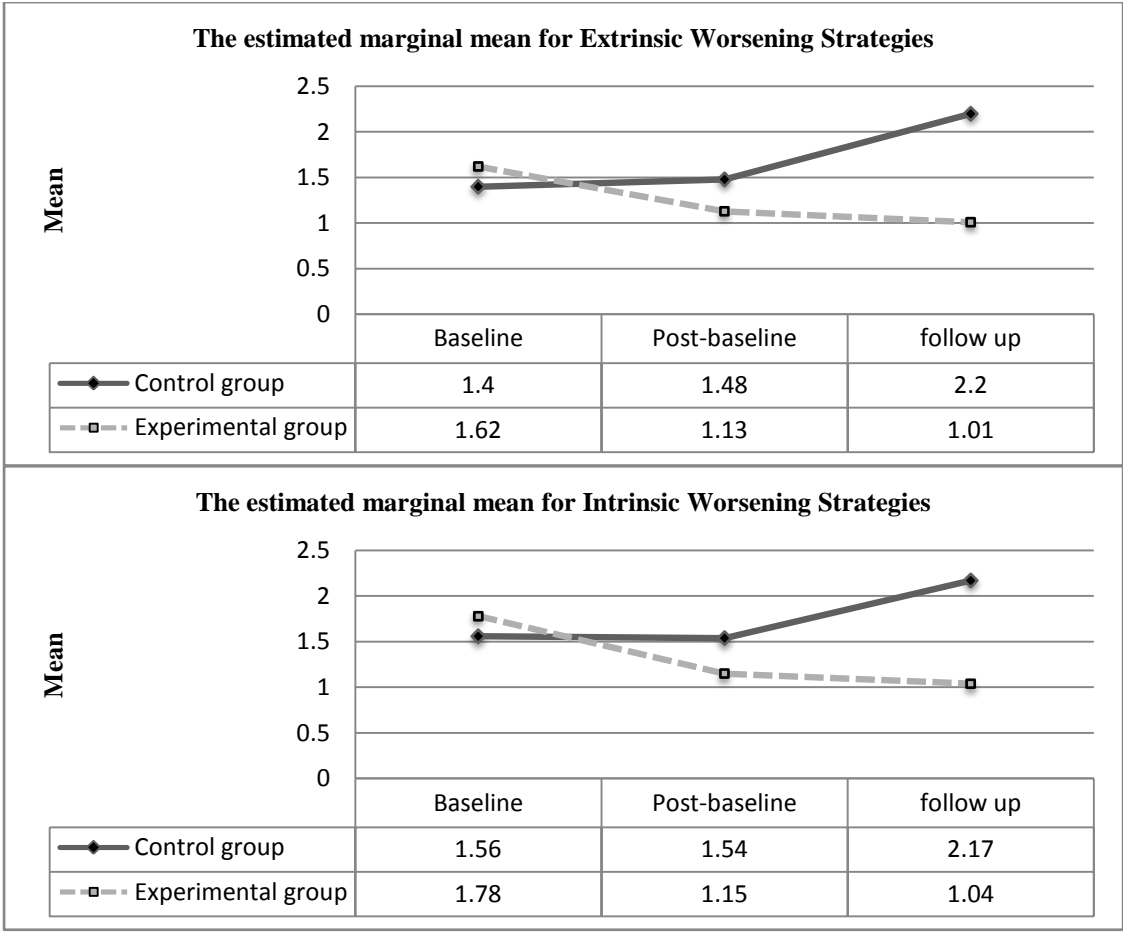


Figure 31 The Estimated Marginal Means for Emotion Regulation Strategies.

The Effect of Implementation Intentions on the Job Outcomes

Hypothesis 7a

Hypothesis 7a proposed that implementation intention intervention will positively influence job performance. This hypothesis was supported by significant interactions between condition and time for individual task adaptivity (ITA) ($F(2, 37) = 42.58$), individual task proactivity (ITP) ($F(2, 37) = 21.27$), standard evaluation form of job performance form (SEJP) ($F(2, 37) = 39.56$), and general job performance (GJP) ($F(2, 37) = 88.38$, all $ps < .01$).

Tests of the simple effect of condition within each level of time showed no significant differences between the two groups before the intervention. However, after the intervention (1 month), Figure 32 indicates that the experimental group showed higher means on all job

performance factors; the experimental group had higher ITA ($M = 4.38$), ITP ($M = 3.91$), SEJP ($M = 6.45$), and GJP ($M = 5.60$, all $ps < .01$) than the control group (ITA: $M = 3.65$; ITP: $M = 3.61$; SEJP: $M = 6.03$; GJP: $M = 4.74$, $p < .01$). The follow-up study which was conducted eight months later indicated that the experimental group showed even higher ITA ($M = 4.67$), ITP ($M = 4.47$), SEJP ($M = 6.80$), and GJP ($M = 6.13$) than the control group (ITA: $M = 3.44$; ITP: $M = 3.37$; SEJP: $M = 5.99$; GJP: $M = 4.72$, $p < .01$).

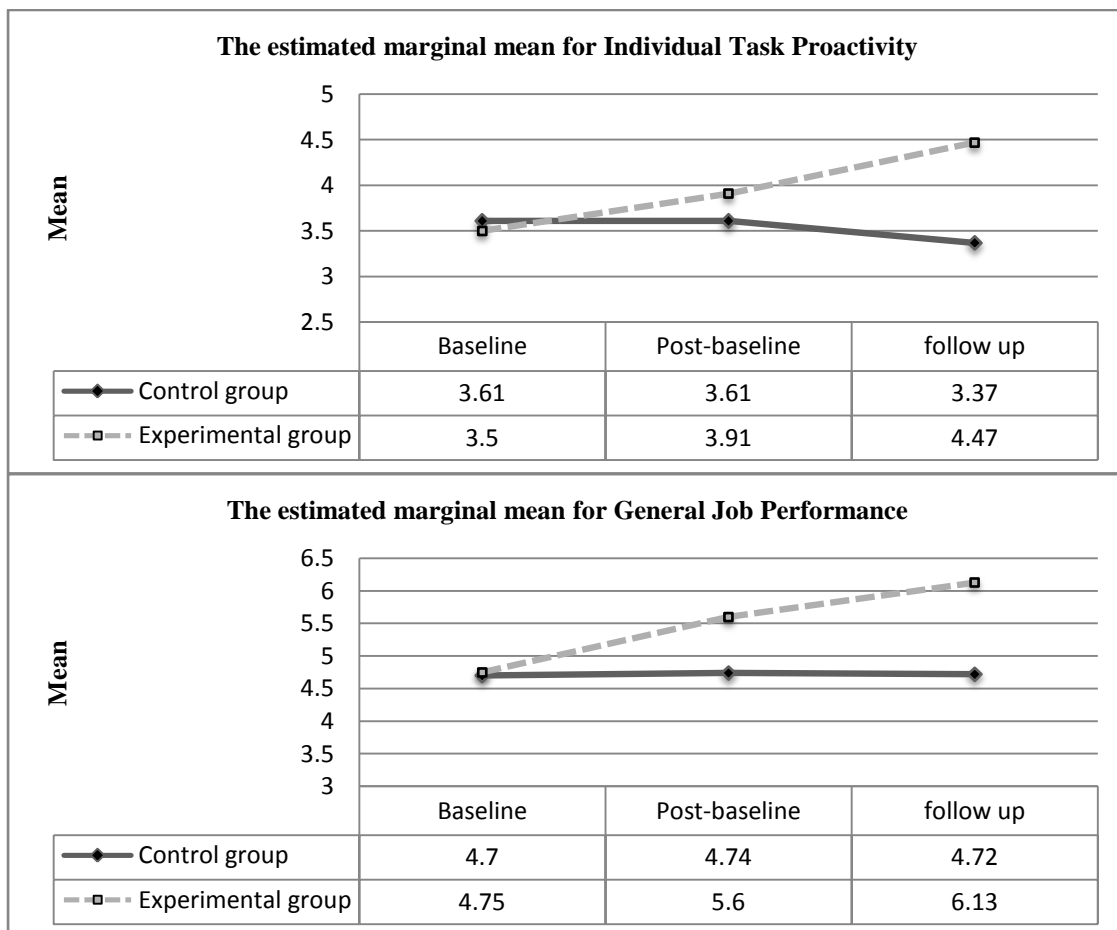
Regarding the simple effect of time within each condition, the results for the first period (baseline vs. post-baseline) showed that the implementation intentions group showed significant improvement on all job performance factors: ITA ($F(1, 19) = 99.01$), ITP ($F(1, 19) = 37.95$), SEJP ($F(1, 19) = 40.57$), and GJP ($F(1, 19) = 50.09$, all $ps < .01$). In the second period (post-baseline vs. follow-up), only the implementation intentions showed significant improvement for all job performance factors: ITA ($F(1, 19) = 8.72$), ITP ($F(1, 19) = 12.22$), SEJP ($F(1, 19) = 15.75$), and GJP ($F(1, 19) = 39.69$, all $ps < .01$). Finally, the third period was consistent with the previous two periods; ITA ($F(1, 19) = 10.47$), ITP ($F(1, 19) = 35.83$), SEJP ($F(1, 19) = 34.85$), and GJP ($F(1, 19) = 100.01$, all $ps < .01$). However, the control group showed a significant reduction in one job performance factor, SEJP ($F(1, 20) = 6.32$, $p < .05$).

Hypothesis 7b

To see if emotion regulation behaviour may impact the previous effect, improving and worsening emotion regulation strategies were added separately as covariates. When adding the improving emotion regulation strategies as covariates, the p value for ITP was changed to non-significant, from $p = .001$ to $p = .06$. It also became non-significant when the worsening regulation strategies were included as covariates, from $p = .001$ to $p = .10$. In addition, worsening regulation strategies increased the p value to non-significance, from $p =$

.001 to $p = .06$, for SEJP; while improving emotion regulation slightly affected the p value for SEJP, increased the p value from $p = .001$ to $p = .02$. No effect of EROS was found on ITA and GJP. These findings suggest that improving/worsening regulation strategies may partly explain the effect of the implementation intention intervention on job performance.

In general, the results support research hypotheses 7a and 7b by showing that implementation intentions enhanced job performance at work and emotion regulation strategies may partly explain the effect of the implementation intention intervention on job performance. Also, this influence seemed to increase over time.



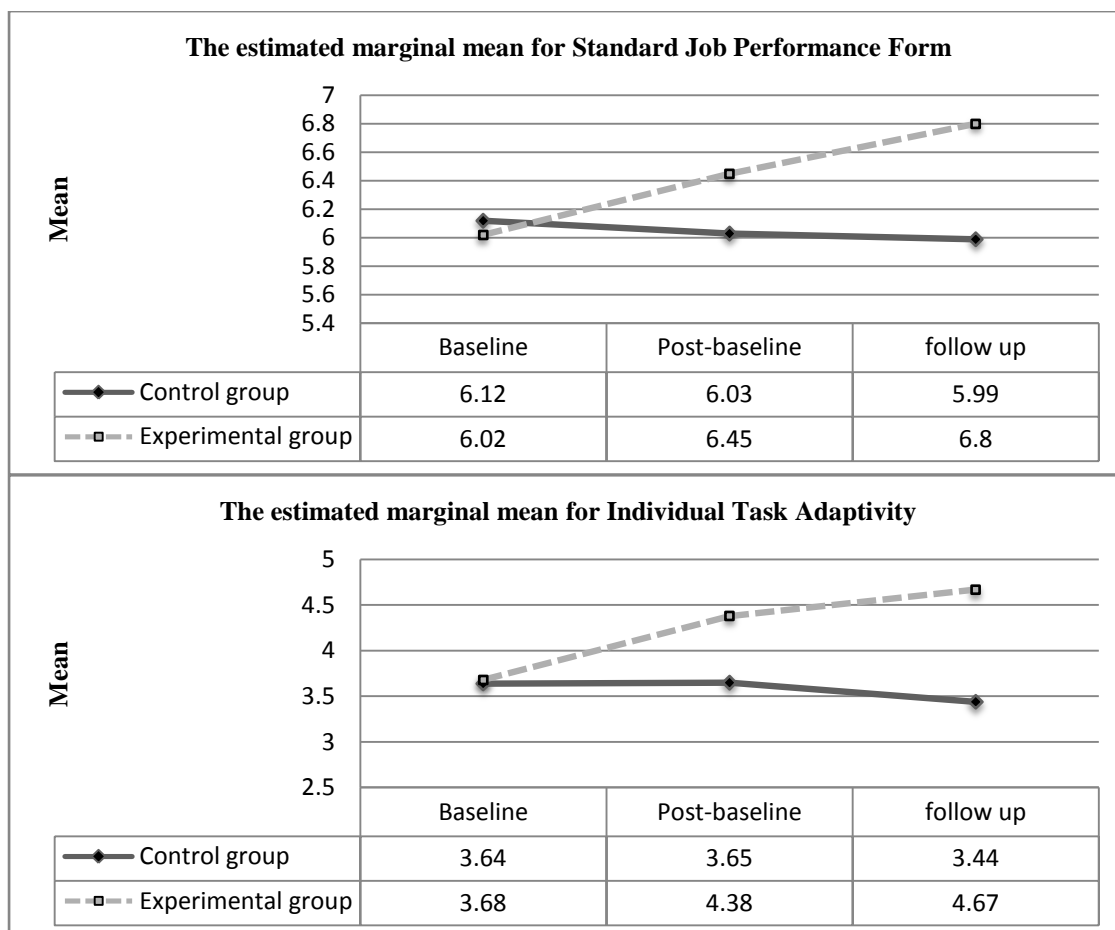


Figure 32 The Estimated Marginal Means for Job Performance.

Hypothesis 8a

Hypothesis 8a proposed that implementation intentions will influence positively work relationships. This hypothesis was supported by significant interaction effects; organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) ($F(2, 37) = 80.96$), relationship with supervisor (RWS) ($F(2, 37) = 23.53$), relationship with donors (RWD) ($F(2, 37) = 12.35$) and job reputation (REP) ($F(2, 37) = 40.37$, all $ps < .01$).

Tests of the simple effect of condition within each level of time showed that no significant difference on work relationships was found before the intervention. However, the experimental group showed higher OCB ($M = 3.72$), RWS ($M = 4.40$), and REP ($M = 7.89$) than the control group (OCB: $M = 3.35$; RWS: $M = 3.73$; REP: $M = 7.34$, $p < .01$) after one

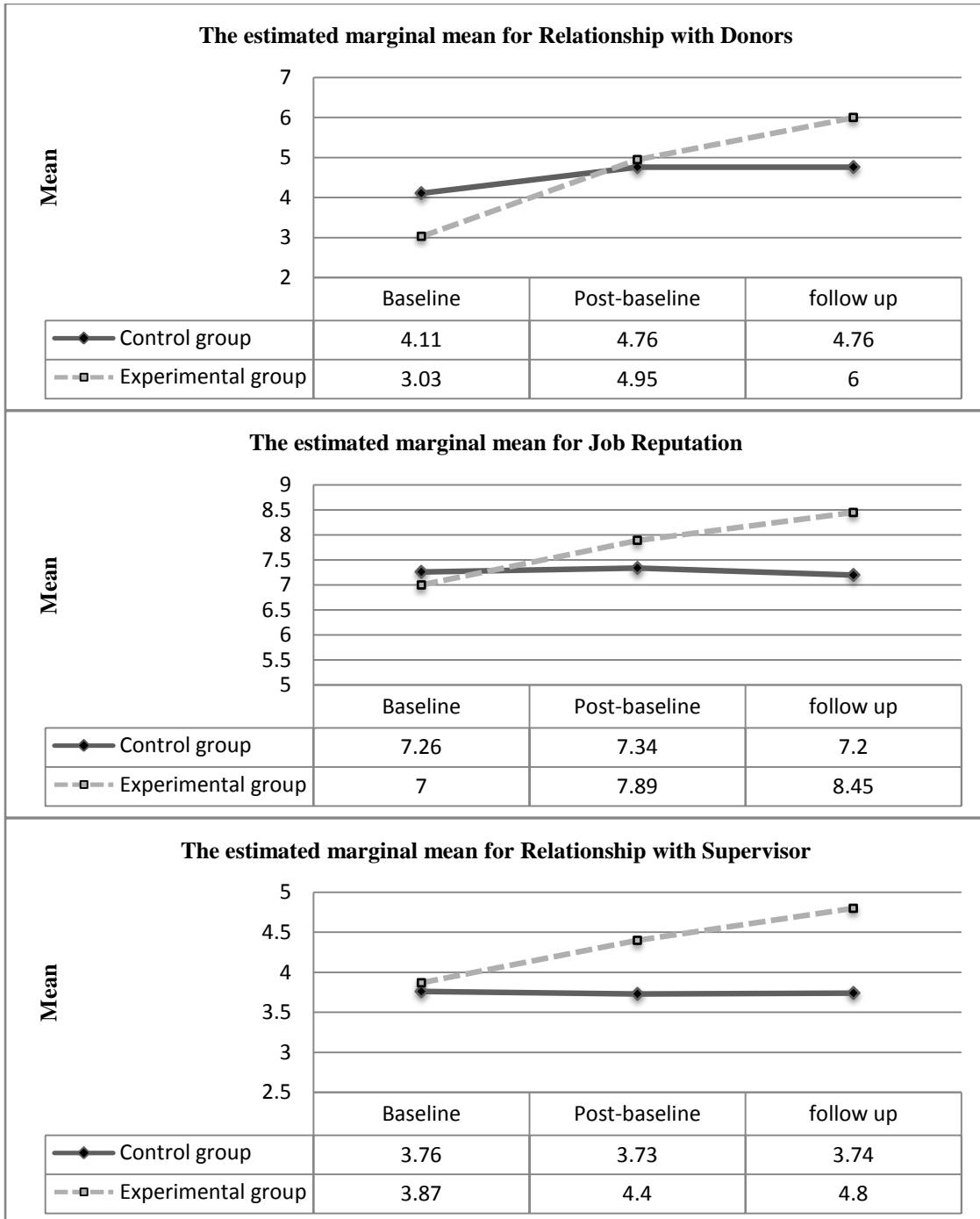
month. No significant difference was found between the two groups on the relationship with donors. Eight months later, the experimental group had even higher OCB ($M = 4.41$), RWS ($M = 4.80$), RWD ($M = 6.00$), and REP ($M = 8.45$) than the control group (OCB: $M = 3.1$; RWS: $M = 3.74$; RWD: $M = 4.76$; REP: $M = 7.20$, $p < .01$).

The results showed that only the implementation intentions group showed improvement in all relationships factors when considering the three periods: the baseline vs. post-baseline period: OCB ($F(1, 19) = 22.44$), RWS ($F(1, 19) = 52.49$), RWD ($F(1, 19) = 49.13$), and REP ($F(1, 19) = 31.15$, all $ps < .01$); the post-baseline vs. follow-up period: OCB ($F(1, 19) = 58.08$), RWS ($F(1, 19) = 10.65$), RWD ($F(1, 19) = 15.17$), and REP ($F(1, 19) = 91.30$, all $ps < .01$); the baseline vs. follow-up period: OCB ($F(1, 19) = 74.74$), RWS ($F(1, 19) = 33.31$), RWD ($F(1, 19) = 34.67$), and REP ($F(1, 19) = 82.93$, all $ps < .01$). No significant impact of time on the control group was found except for the impact of time on organisational citizenship behaviour, period 1 ($F(1, 20) = 4.66$, $p < .05$), period 2 ($F(1, 20) = 16.44$), and period 3 ($F(1, 20) = 14.32$, both $ps < .01$) (see Figure 33).

Hypothesis 8b

To see if emotion regulation behaviour influenced these findings, improving and worsening emotion regulation strategies were added separately as covariates. When adding the improving emotion regulation strategies as covariates, the p value for RWS was changed to non-significant, from $p = .001$ to $p = .19$. In addition, the p value for RWD was also changed to non-significant, from $p = .005$ to $p = .79$ when adding the improving emotion regulation strategies and from $p = .005$ to $p = .17$ when adding the negative strategies. No effect of EROS factors was found on OCB and REP. These findings suggest that improving regulation strategies may partly explain the effect of implementation intention intervention on work relationships.

In support of hypotheses 8a and 8b, the results confirm the impact of the implementation intentions intervention on workplace relationships and suggest that emotion regulation may partly explain this impact. In addition, the results suggest that this influence is greater over time.



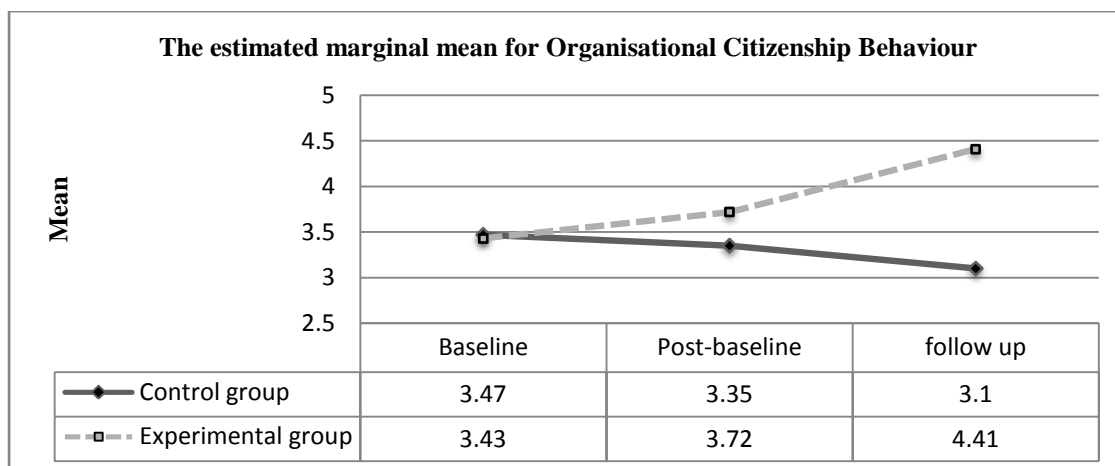


Figure 33 The Estimated Marginal Means for Work Relationships.

Hypothesis 9

The results supported the research hypothesis 9; the implementation intention intervention had a positive effect on affective commitment (AC) over the study period ($F(2, 37) = 38.65, p < .01$).

There were no differences between the groups at baselines but the experimental group ($M = 5.99$) showed a higher affective commitment than the control group ($M = 5.35, p < .05$) after one month. Eight months later, the experimental group showed even higher AC ($M = 6.55$) than the control group ($M = 4.86, p < .01$).

The results also showed that the implementation intentions group showed improvement in affective commitment when considering the three periods: the baseline vs. post-baseline period: ($F(1, 19) = 15.63$); the post-baseline vs. follow-up period: ($F(1, 19) = 11.68$); and the baseline vs. follow-up period: ($F(1, 19) = 74.74$). However, the control group showed a significant reduction in the three periods; period 1 ($F(1, 20) = 15.62$), period 2 ($F(1, 20) = 27.19$), and period 3 ($F(1, 20) = 30.28$, all $ps < .01$).

Finally, to see if emotion regulation behaviour may impact the previous effects, improving and worsening emotion regulation strategies were added separately as covariates.

Only adding the worsening emotion regulation strategies as covariate changed the p value for AC to non-significant, from $p = .001$ to $p = .06$, while the positive strategies showed no effect on AC. This finding suggests that worsening regulation strategies may partly explain the effect of implementation intention intervention on affective commitment.

Like the findings for job performance and relationships, these results suggest that the intervention influence is greater over time. Figure 34 illustrates the significant difference between the two groups.

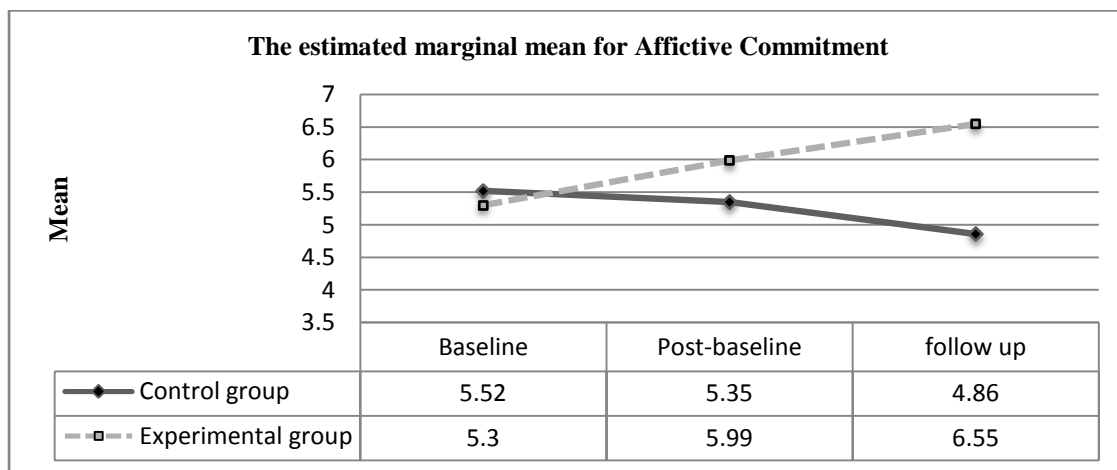


Figure 34 The Estimated Marginal Means for Organisational Commitment.

Hypothesis 10a

There were significant condition x time interactions for all of the job well-being factors except job satisfaction ($F(2, 37) = .44, ns$); anxiety ($F(2, 37) = 41.10$), depression ($F(2, 37) = 55.57$), enthusiasm ($F(2, 37) = 33.76$), comfort ($F(2, 37) = 30.63$), and emotional exhaustion ($F(2, 37) = 46.52$, all $ps < .01$).

Figure 35 indicates that no significant differences were found between the two groups on well-being factors before the intervention (all $Fs < value, ns$). One month later, the results also showed that there was still no significant difference between the two groups (all $Fs < value, ns$). Eight months later, significant differences between the two groups were found. In

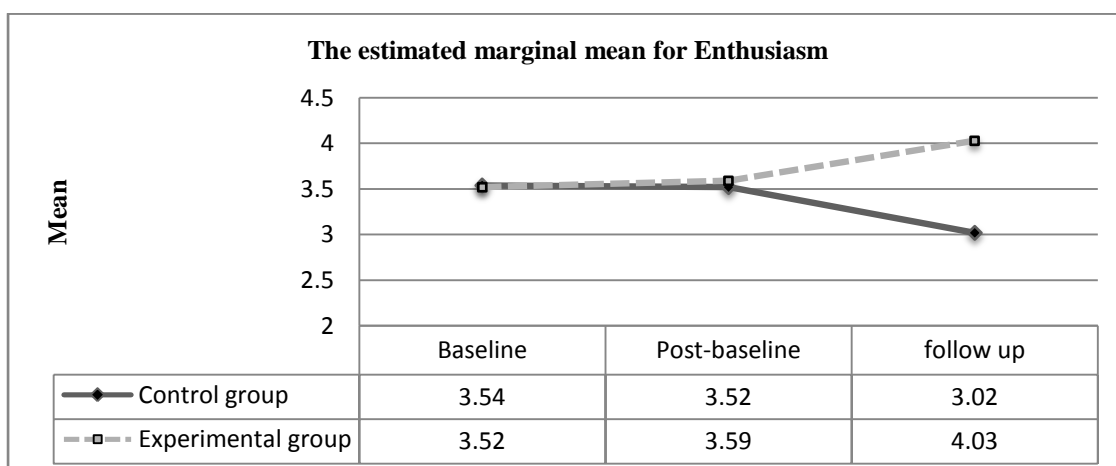
fact, all well-being factors, except job satisfaction, showed differences between the two groups. The experimental group showed a higher COMF ($M = 4.52$), ENTH ($M = 4.03$), and a lower ANX ($M = 1.47$), DEPR ($M = 1.31$), and EE ($M = 2.00$) than the control group (COMF: $M = 2.53$; ENTH: $M = 3.02$; ANX: $M = 2.76$; DEPR: $M = 2.40$; EE: $M = 3.00$, all $ps < .01$).

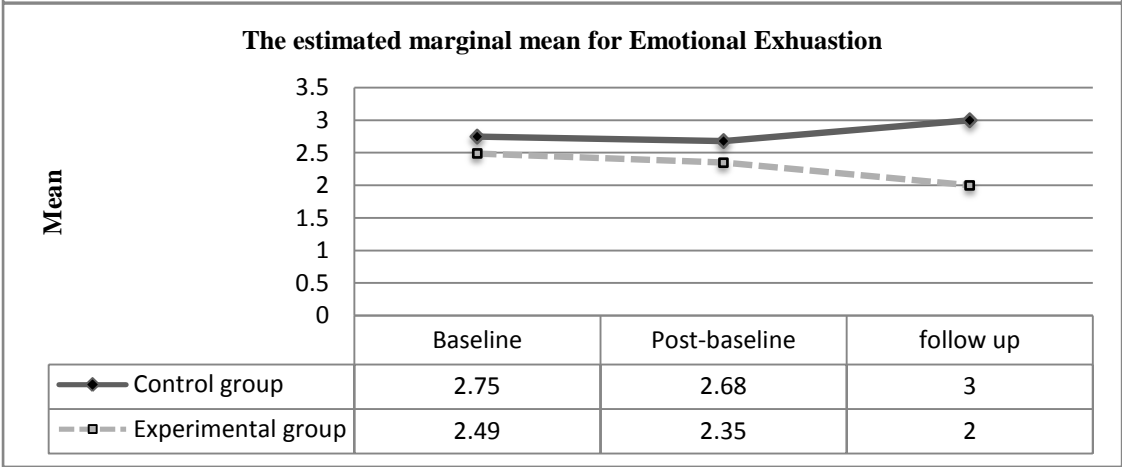
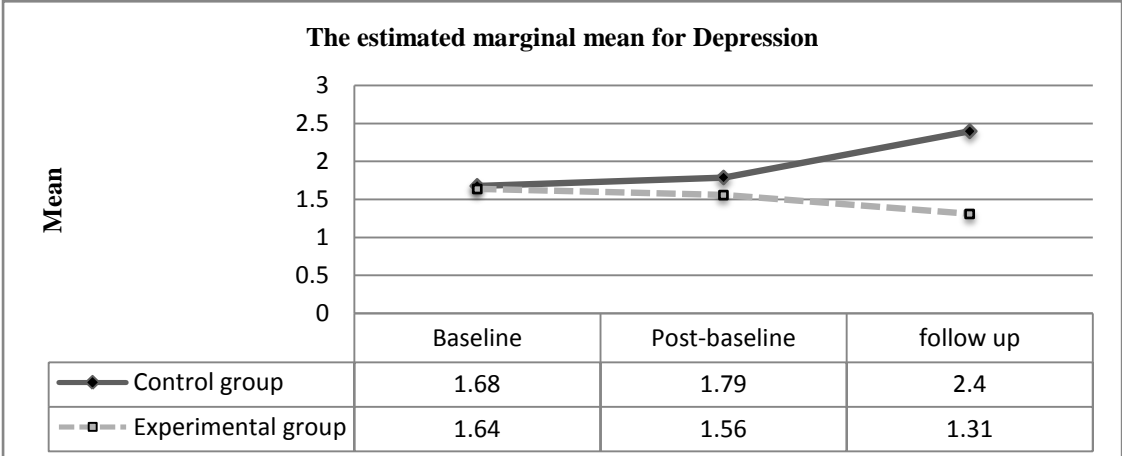
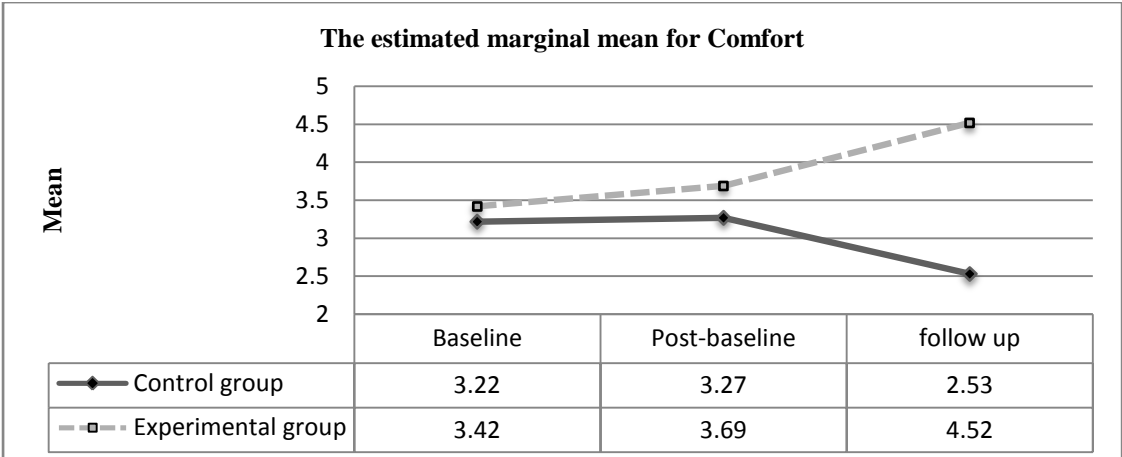
Based on the effect of time on the implementation intentions, the results showed that the implementation intentions group had improvement in all well-being factors, except job satisfaction, when considering the second and third periods. Within the first period and regarding the implementation intentions group, only two factors had been significantly affected, i.e., COMF ($F(1, 19) = 9.78$) and EE ($F(1, 19) = 16.54$, both $p < .01$). Also, the control group showed a significant improvement in their feeling of comfort ($F(1, 20) = 5.27$, $p < .05$). Regarding the second period, the post-baseline vs. follow-up period, all well-being factors for the implementation intentions group had been affected: COMF ($F(1, 19) = 15.63$), ENTH ($F(1, 19) = 19.74$), ANX ($F(1, 19) = 32.81$), DEPR ($F(1, 19) = 34.68$), and EE ($F(1, 19) = 37.51$, all $ps < .01$). However, the control group showed a significant reduction in the positive emotions, i.e., COMF ($F(1, 20) = 13.80$) and ENTH ($F(1, 20) = 19.29$, both $ps < .01$). The control group also showed a significant increase in the negative emotions, i.e., ANX ($F(1, 20) = 18.83$), DEPR ($F(1, 20) = 23.79$), and EE ($F(1, 20) = 17.37$, all $ps < .01$). Finally, the third period, the baseline vs. follow-up period, is consistent with the second one: the implementation intentions group showed an increase in the positive emotions and a reduction in the negative emotions; COMF ($F(1, 19) = 24.54$), ENTH ($F(1, 19) = 16.13$), ANX ($F(1, 19) = 25.23$), DEPR ($F(1, 19) = 28.84$), and EE ($F(1, 19) = 61.53$, all $ps < .01$). However, the control group showed the opposite; COMF ($F(1, 20) = 8.64$), ENTH ($F(1, 20) = 17.86$), ANX ($F(1, 20) = 19.26$), DEPR ($F(1, 20) = 31.19$), and EE ($F(1, 20) = 8.79$, all $ps < .01$).

Hypothesis 10b

When EROS factors were added as covariates, the condition x time interactions for four well-being factors became non-significant. In particular, only worsening emotion regulation strategies showed significant effect on ANX, from $p = .001$ to $p = .51$, DEPR, from $p = .001$ to $p = .19$, COMF, from $p = .001$ to $p = .23$, and EE, from $p = .001$ to $p = .14$. No significant effect was found on well-being factors when adding the improving emotion regulation strategies. These findings suggest that worsening regulation strategies may partly explain the effect of implementation intention intervention on well-being at work.

In summary, hypothesis 10a has been supported by all well-being factors, except job satisfaction. In addition, hypothesis 10b was partly supported by showing that only worsening regulation strategies may partly explain the effect of implementation intention intervention on well-being at work. The differences between the two groups had only been found within the long term. Given that participants did not know their group allocation and that both groups worked in the same sectors and had the same direct supervisors, no specific reason could explain the negative effect in the control group.





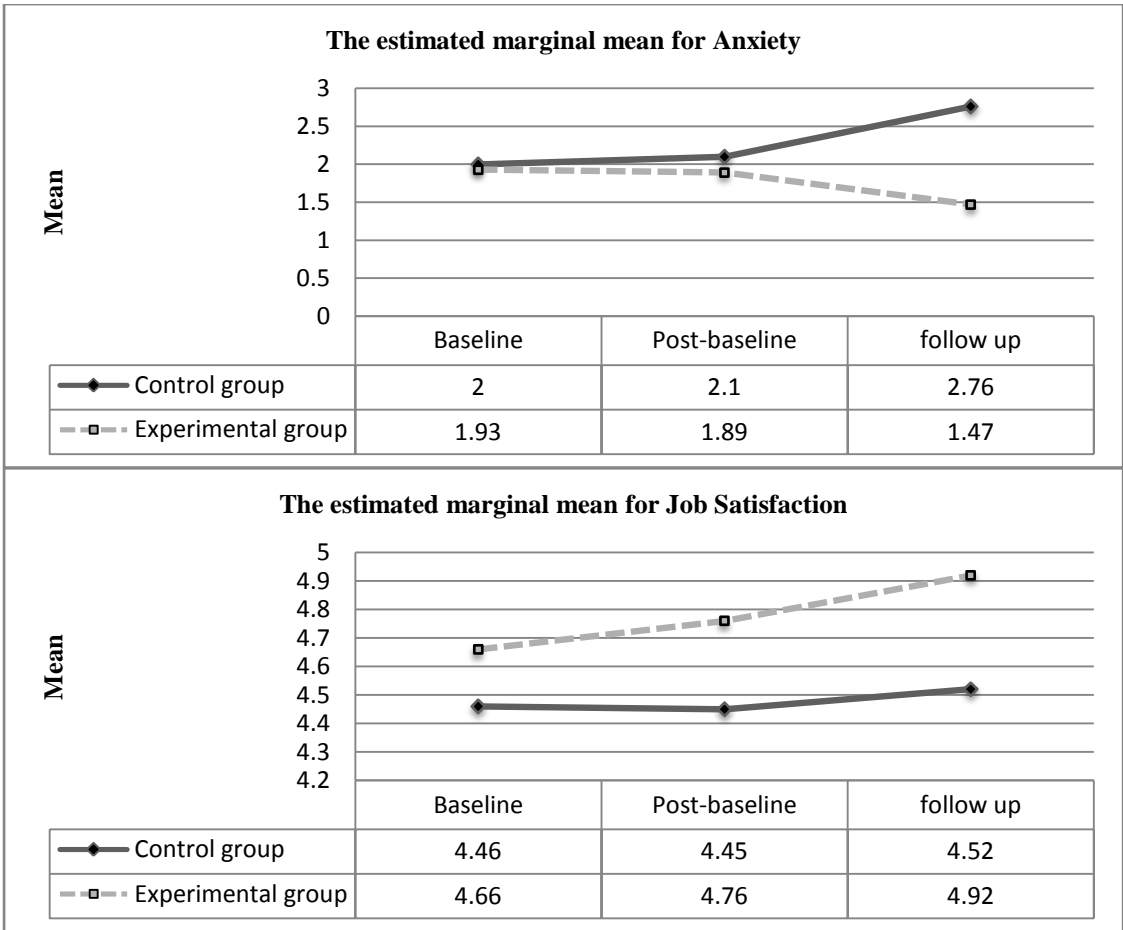


Figure 35 The Estimated Marginal Means for Well-Being at Work.

Discussion

The current study was mainly aimed at investigating whether an implementation intention intervention based on manipulating emotion regulation strategies could enhance job outcomes. In addition, it aimed to examine whether implementation intention effects were mediated by emotion regulation strategies. By using a multilevel modelling analysis (MLM) for the daily diary data and repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) for the pre-post and follow-up questionnaires, the results in both analyses suggest that the interventions have significantly enhanced job performance, work relationships and job commitment, while well-being at work has weakly enhanced in the daily diary data and found to improve in the follow-up questionnaire. MLM analysis showed that positive emotion regulation strategies

were found to (partly) mediate the relationship between the intervention interaction and the job outcomes.

The Semi-Structured Interviews

Two main conclusions could be drawn from the interviews. (i) Most of the solutions acquired from the interviews were based on, or related to, emotion regulation, e.g., Participant A indicated “I think that looking at the positive side of any problem could be one of the best behavioural solutions for many things in my work life”. (ii) The interviews also suggested that the ability to generalise the thesis’ results to other work contexts may be high. For example, Participant B conducted that “In the past, working in charity is very simple so it was different from working in a private business. However, nowadays, charity organisations have developed their work to be better and more comprehensive which make working within them equal to working in a private business”. Research also suggested that, over the years, working in charity has changed and become more competitive and even more professional (Giving Institute, 2002). Thus, as work environment in charity organisations has become more similar to other profit-led organisations, the chance to generalise the current findings to other profit-led organisations will be higher.

Implementation Intention Intervention

Increasing job performance is one of the most practical, theoretical, and important issues in organisational literature (Staw, 1984). In the present study, employees emphasised that most of the problems in the workplace were related to job performance. For example, when employees asked to link the problems and solutions that may face in the workplace using the “if-then plans sheet”, almost all of the participants in the experimental group identified the problem, “I am assigned to carry out many tasks in a short time”. This finding is consistent with the interviews findings in that although job performance is the most

important outcome, it may also have many problems that are related to it. In fact, the high number of problems that are related to job performance may be attributed to two reasons: (i) the first one is related to the importance of the job performance. The literature suggest that job performance is the core outcome in the workplace (Griffin et al., 2007). Focusing on job performance and how to improve it may impact on employees' job performance, but it may also make the work environment more stressful and demanding. Thus, finding a balance between the importance of doing a task and the psychological consequences that are related to performing this task should be considered in the future, (ii) the second reason is related to the work system. Howard (1995) reported that two major changes to individual job performance were raised by specifying job behaviours. One of these two changes is increasing the uncertainty of work systems. Griffin and his colleagues (2007) demonstrated that "in relation to work role performance, uncertainty in an organisational context occurs when the inputs, processes, or outputs of work systems lack predictability" (p. 329). It should be noted that one of those factors causing uncertainty is the demands that are required by customers (Burns & Stalker, 1961). Having worked for three years in Kuwaiti charity, charitable organisations in Kuwait seem to have an uncertain work system. This view was also supported by participants who were asked to attend a workshop on the importance of emotions in the workplace. They emphasised that if there is a financial problem with a donor, a financial analyst may be required to go to this donor to solve this problem even if he/she is not working in a front-line job. In this case, employees may face some problems when dealing with this type of work system.

In relation to the best behavioural and emotional solutions in the workplace, cognitive engagement solutions, e.g., "I will remind myself the extent of my ability and how I could solve this problem", were found to be the most preferable solutions for three problems at workplace: job performance-related problems, relationship with supervisor- related

problems, and relationship with donors-related problems. Why did employees prefer to use cognitive engagement strategies instead of using behavioural engagement strategies? About 22.5% of the participants were considered to have a non-specific nationality. These people may not qualify to benefit from many social or living rights. As a result, it may be expected that more than anything else they apply for a job in order to get money. This expectation is also supported by Participant C's explanation: "Most of the employees who work here are non-Kuwaiti and they are poor... they come to Kuwait for money". Thus, when some employees consider getting money as the most important thing, they may be afraid to share their problems with others as a behavioural engagement. Also, in support of this view, the results from study 1 suggested that there was a difference between Kuwaitis and those who have a non-specific nationality in their use of cognitive strategies. The non-specific nationality employees ($M = 1.92$) seem to use more negative cognitive strategies when faced with problems at work compared to Kuwaiti employees ($M = 1.53, p < .05$), i.e., I thought about my negative experience to try to make myself feel worse. Hence, the non-specific nationality employees prefer to use the cognitive engagement strategies as a way to solve their problems in the workplace.

The findings indicate that most of the solutions that were preferred to be used with oneself and others have moderate to strong relationship, e.g., the correlation between those solutions that were chosen by oneself and others to improve relationship with co-worker's related problems is ($r = .75, p < .01$). This influence may be also attributed to the automatic process of the implementation intentions (Sheeran et al., 2005). When employees used if-then plans with themselves, by the time, they are more likely to use them with others and vice versa. This finding may also shape the future research design that considers applying implementation intention in the workplace by focusing on one side, e.g., the problems/solutions that are related to one own self.

It was expected that the experimental group would think more regularly about the problems/solutions they faced at the workplace (PS) after the intervention. However, the results did not support this expectation and indicated that there was no significant improvement in using PS more regularly. The result suggests that the effect of implementation intention intervention might not be related directly to how much it was used regularly. However, it may be attributed to the fact that implementation intentions is assumed to be automatic (Bargh, 1994; Sheeran et al., 2005). Scholars found that representations of non-consciously activated goals initiated action (Bargh, Gollwitzer, Lee-Chai, Barndollar & Troetschel, 2001). Gollwitzer (1999) indicated that “by forming implementation intentions, people can strategically switch from conscious and effortful control of their goal-directed behaviours . . . to being automatically controlled by selected situational cues” (p. 495). Thus, employees may not be aware of using implementation intentions; therefore, their response to the PS item may be not accurately represent how often the intervention was used.

The Effect of the Intervention on Emotion Regulation

Using multilevel modelling analysis, the results suggest that three emotion regulation factors, intrinsic/extrinsic improving strategies (IIS/EIS) and intrinsic worsening strategies (IWS), were affected by the intervention. Thus, only extrinsic worsening regulation strategies (EWS) were not affected by the intervention. On the other hand, the results from ANOVA analysis indicated that all emotion regulation strategies were affected after one month and even after 8 months. Also, significant differences were found between the two groups in that the experimental group showed higher IIS/EIS and lower IWS/EWS after one and eight months. When combining the two analyses, it seems that there is a conflict in that the use of EWS was not significantly decreased during the four weeks when using multilevel modelling analysis; while it was significantly decreased after about the same period, one month, when using ANOVA analysis. One reason for this discrepancy may relate to the emotion regulation

items used in the two analyses. In the multilevel modelling analysis, instead of using emotion regulation of others and self (EROS) items (Niven, Totterdell, Stride, et al., 2011), four general items were developed to represent the EROS four sub-scales. The reason for not using the EROS items in the diary was because these items are related to specific emotion regulation strategies. People may not use these strategies daily. For example, people may not yell at each other as a way to worsen their feelings daily. As a result, four general items were developed: “I tried to improve how I felt” (intrinsic improving regulation strategy); “I tried to improve how others felt” (extrinsic improving regulation strategy); “I tried to worsen how I felt” (intrinsic worsening regulation strategy); and “I tried to worsen how others felt” (extrinsic worsening regulation strategy). On the other hand, EROS-specific strategies were exactly used in the ANOVA analysis. The significant decrease in the use of EWS may not be apparent when using general extrinsic worsening regulation strategy. Thus, the use of more general items may explain why EWS did not significantly decrease in the daily diary data.

The Effect of the Intervention on Job Outcomes

Hypothesis 7a

The results supported the hypothesis 7a in that employees who used if-then plans showed higher job performance during the intervention (MLM results). ANOVA results also supported this hypothesis and also indicated that the impact of the intervention increased over time. The present findings are consistent with the literature (Gollwitzer & Sheeran, 2006). In addition, other experimental studies, that used the Simon task to assess participants’ performance, indicate that those people who form implementation intentions exhibit better performance on Simon task (Cohen et al., 2008; Miles & Proctor, 2008; for a review of implementation intention effects on task performance, see Gollwitzer & Sheeran, 2006). The current findings extend previous research by demonstrating that implementation intentions

not only benefit performance on laboratory tasks but also do so in an important field context, namely, how well people do their jobs.

Hypothesis 8a

In relation to hypothesis 8a, the findings are consistent with the literature, e.g., researchers found that implementation intentions are an effective technique to manage some social regulatory problems (Webb et al., 2010). This hypothesis was fully supported by the pre-post and follow-up questionnaire results and was largely supported by diary's results. The later results illustrates that three of four relationships at work factors showed significant differences between the two groups after the intervention. The experimental group shows better organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), better relationship with supervisor (RWS), and higher job reputation (REP) compared to the control group. However, only one factor, the relationship with donor (RWD), has not been improved. The former results (ANOVA results) suggest that all relationship factors were significantly enhanced over the study period and show a significant difference compared to control group except for RWD, which showed significant differences between the two groups only after 8 months. Thus, one explanation for the discrepancy in the findings for RWD between the diary and questionnaire data may be that it takes a good deal of time to improve relationships with donors, and this improvement was only apparent after 8 months.

Hypothesis 9

The results support the research hypothesis 9 in which the affective organisational commitment (AC) showed significantly higher means after the intervention. It seems that planning how to deal with problems at work promotes not only job performance but also affective commitment. Unfortunately, using *Web of Knowledge* database, no study that assesses the relationship between implementation intentions and organisational commitment

was found. In relation to the impact of time, it could be expected that organisational commitment might be influenced more over time. This expectation is related to the illustration by Bateman and Strasser (1984) about the process of organisational commitment. They argued that its process is quite complicated and individuals need a long time to achieve it. Accordingly, the results confirm this expectation by showing that the enhancement of organisational commitment in the experimental group was greater after 8 months compared to one month. In general, implementation intention is found to be an effective way to enhance organisational commitment.

Hypothesis 10a

Hypothesis 10a proposed that there would be a positive impact of forming implementation intentions on work well-being. Research has shown that implementation intention is an effective way to manage students' test anxiety (Parks-Stamm et al., 2010). Also, the use of implementation intentions can be an effective strategy to master the negative effect of psychological stress (Scholz et al., 2009). However, the diary results did not support the hypothesis and the literature. Fortunately, the follow-up results help to explain these findings. In the short-term time (one month), the results support the diary findings in that all well-being factors have not been enhanced. In the long-term, however, the implementation intentions group showed a significant improvement in their feelings of enthusiasm, comfort, and a significant decrease in their depression, anxiety, and emotional exhaustion. It could be possible that for those outcomes that involve more interrelationships such as job performance (e.g., teamwork) and work relationships, the impact of activating the implementation intentions would be faster than those outcomes that may involve less need for interrelationships like well-being. This fast influence could be related to the impact of interpersonal relationships at work. Hence, future research may address this point. In addition, it seems that well-being factors may need time to be affected. These factors may

also need time to return to normal. People, for example, may need time to feel emotionally exhausted or feel depressed; and when they feel that way, they may need time to deal with these feelings. In this case, improving people's well-being may need time. As a result, an improvement, albeit not so significant, was found on how employees improve their well-being after one month. But then a significant improvement was found 8 months later. Thus, time distance may explain why well-being factors have been affected in the long-term.

In conclusion, the findings suggest that implementation intention intervention enhanced job performance, relationships at work, well-being at work, and job commitment. Some of these outcomes were affected more by the intervention such as job performance. The ANOVA analyses suggest that there were significant differences between the two groups. The implementation intentions group showed better job performance and commitment after one month and even still after 8 months. The implementation intentions group also showed better relationships at work (except the relationship with donors) after one month and then better relationship with all relationship factors after 8 months. Finally, no significant differences were found between the two groups for all well-being factors after one month. However, the implementation intentions group showed higher well-being in all well-being factors except for job satisfaction after 8 months (see Figure 36).

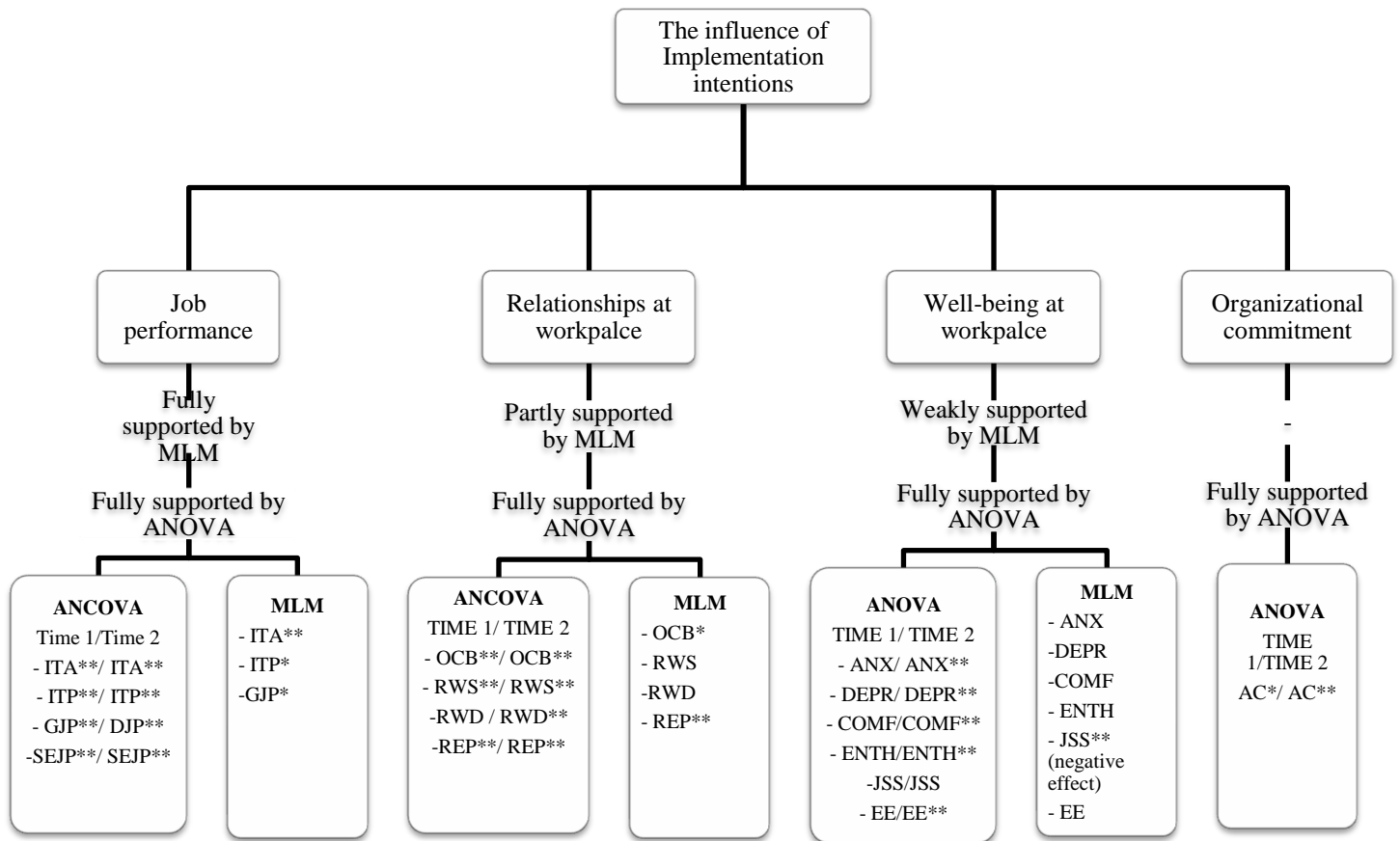


Figure 36 The general impact of implementation intentions on the job outcomes using two analyses. *Note:* OCB: Organisational Citizenship Behaviour, RWD: Relationship with Donors, RE: Job Reputation, RWS: Relation with Supervisor, JSS = Job Satisfaction, EE = Emotional Exhaustion, ANX = Anxiety, DEPR = Depression, ENTH = Enthusiasm, COMF = Comfort, GJP = General Job Performance, ITA = Individual Task Adaptivity, ITP = Individual Task Proactivity, SEJP= Standard Evaluation Form of Job Performance, AC= Affective Commitment, MLM= Multilevel modelling analysis. Time 1: after one month; time 2: after eight months. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

The Mediation Effect of Emotion Regulation

Hypothesis 7b

Hypothesis 7b proposed that emotion regulation would mediate the relationship between the intervention and job performance. Improving regulation strategies (IIS, EIS) were found to have partial mediation effect on the individual task adaptivity and proactivity. In addition, while EIS has partial mediation effect on the general job performance, IIS showed a full mediation effect. Thus, the results suggest that improving regulation strategies mediate the effect of the intervention on job performance. The ANOVA results also appear to be consistent with this finding. When improving regulation strategies added as covariates, the *p* value for individual task proactivity became non-significant. In general, literature supports the impact of using positive emotion in the workplace (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch & Rhoades, 2001; Erez & Isen, 2002; Totterdell, 2000). However, one question that could be asked here is why there was a mediation effect for the improving strategies while there was no mediation effect for the worsening regulation strategies as the literature suggests that negative emotion would impact negatively job performance (George & Zhou, 2007)? The answer may have to do with the activation of the positive emotion regulation strategies. The link between a problem and a solution in the if-then plans sheet is mainly based on activating a number of improving emotion regulation strategies as solutions. However, no links with worsening strategies were developed in the if-then plans sheet. Hence, it could be possible that when the employees faced a problem that was related to their job performance, they remembered the if-then plans, and therefore, activated an improving regulation strategy, not a worsening strategy, to solve the problem. Thus, this activation may explain the mediation effect on job performance.

Hypothesis 8b

Both of intrinsic/extrinsic improving regulation strategies (IIS, EIS) were found to have a mediation effect on two work relationship factors, namely, organisational citizenship behaviour and job reputation. In addition, IIS was found to have partial mediation effect on the relationships with manager. These findings are consistent with the literature as the literature shows that extrinsic improving regulation strategies would affect the interpersonal relationships (see Niven, Totterdell, Stride, et al., 2011). In this case, when an employee helps improve others' emotions, others may look at him/her as a trustworthy person, which in turn would affect positively the employee's reputation and citizenship behaviour. The ANOVA results were also consistent with the findings. When improving emotion regulation strategies added as covariates, the *p* value for the relationship with supervisor and donors was reduced to non-significance. These findings suggest that improving regulation strategies may partly explain the effect of implementation intention intervention on the relationships at work. The current findings may lead to three questions that should be addressed in the future research: Do improving emotion regulation strategies tend to mediate equally the relationship with those employees who are in the same sector and those who work in different sectors? Do these strategies tend to mediate equally the relationship with the direct and indirect managers? These questions are important as the current study focus on the relationship between the employees who are in the same sector and the direct manager. Finally, will the same mediation effect be found in other organisational contexts that involves indirect interaction with clients such as call centre?

Hypothesis 10b

Hypothesis 10b proposed that there will be a mediation effect of emotion regulation on the relationship between implementation intentions and well-being at work. The results

suggested that improving strategies, in particular IIS, have mediation effect on all well-being factors except being comfort (e.g., full mediation effect on depression, anxiety, and job satisfaction). Thus, the findings are consistent with the literature as emotion regulation found to be a positive predictor of well-being and related factors (see Makikangas et al., 2007; Petrides et al., 2007). ANOVA results are consistent with these findings. When assessing the mediation effect over the longer time frame, ANOVA analyses suggest that when adding emotion regulation strategies as covariates, in particular worsening strategies, the *p* value for the four well-being factors (i.e., anxiety, depression, comfort, and emotional exhaustion) became non-significant.

Finally, it could be concluded that improving regulation strategies, but not worsening regulation strategies, tend to mediate the relationship between the intervention and the job outcomes. Figure 37 shows how intrinsic and extrinsic improving regulation strategies have the main mediation effect. It should be noted that IIS explains most of the variance in the relationship between implementation intentions and job outcomes. IIS and EIS have accounted for the variance between implementation intentions and (a) general job performance (15% and 9%, respectively), (b) individual task adaptivity (13% and 11%, respectively), (c) individual task proactivity (06% and 03%, respectively), (d) organisational citizenship behaviour (07% and 06%, respectively), (e) job reputation (12% and 16%, respectively), and (f) enthusiasm (16% and 14%, respectively). In addition, IIS accounted for the variance between implementation intentions and (a) the relationship with manager (11%), (b) job satisfaction (25%), (c) depression (12%), and (d) anxiety (2%). Thus, there is good evidence that improving emotion regulation helps to explain the association between implementation intentions and most of the job outcomes.

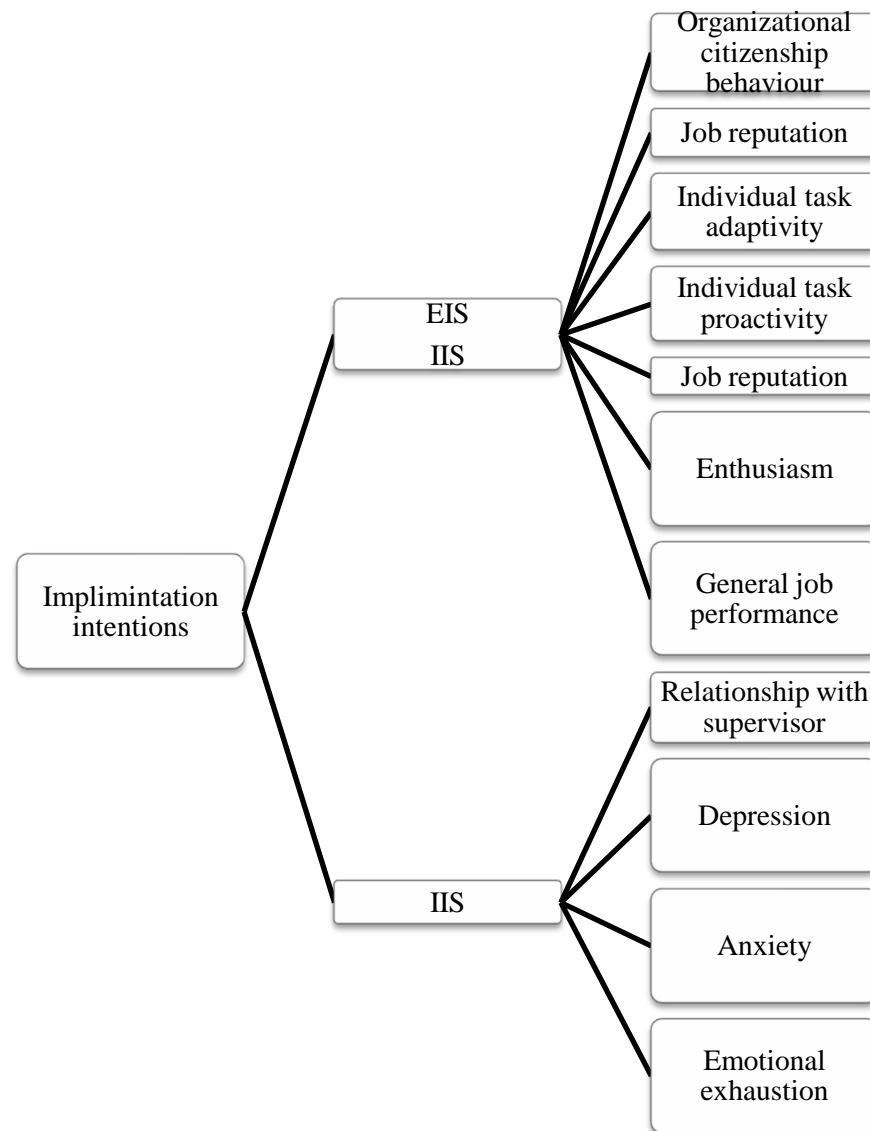


Figure 37 The significant mediation effect of emotion regulation by using Multilevel Modelling Analysis. IIS = Intrinsic Improving Strategies, EIS = Extrinsic Improving Strategies.

In conclusion, the current experimental longitudinal study has mainly showed that implementation intentions impact positively the job outcomes and some emotion regulation strategies mediate some of those outcomes. In particular, six main findings and implications could be drawn from the study results.

(i) Regarding the influence of implementation intentions on the job outcomes, ANOVA results suggest that implementation intention intervention enhances job performance, relationship at work, well-being at work, and job commitment. Some of these outcomes were affected more by the intervention such as job performance and others

affected less such as well-being at work. MLM results consistent with ANOVA results except that well-being at work showed weak improvement.

(ii) Time distance is found to have a significant impact on the influence of implementation intentions on emotion regulation and job outcomes. Although the influence of time distance on implementation intention effects is not fully supported by the literature, more research should address this influence.

(iii) Using multilevel modelling analysis (MLM), the results suggest that all emotion regulation factors have been significantly affected by implementation intentions except extrinsic worsening regulation strategies (EWS). ANOVA results extend this finding and indicate that all emotion regulation strategies were affected after one month and even after 8 months.

(iv) Based on the mediation effect of emotion regulation, extrinsic/intrinsic improving regulation strategies are found to have full/partial mediation effect on: all job performance factors, three main factors of the relationships at work, and five well-being factors. These results have been generally supported by ANOVA analyses.

(v) Regarding the design of if-then plans sheet in relation to emotion regulation, most of the solutions that were chosen by employees as the best solutions are related to emotion regulation behaviour. In addition, most of these solutions were based on cognitive and behavioural engagement strategies. Finally, considering a pair of problem/solution that is related to an outcome is found to influence not only the particular outcome but also the other outcomes too. In the future, these findings would help the researcher to develop a better if-then plans sheet in relation to emotion regulation at work.

(vi) The regularity of using implementation intentions intervention has not been increased during the current study. The result suggests that the effect of implementation intention intervention might not be related directly to how regularly the intervention was used. However, self-reported use of implementation intentions may be problematic as the effects of if-then plans is assumed to be automatic and may not be amenable to introspection (Bargh, 1994; Sheeran et al., 2005). More research should address this issue in the future.

The next chapter will introduce the impact of construal levels on job outcomes; and whether this impact is mediated by emotion regulation. This chapter and the next one will share almost the same design, procedures, and data analysis. The question addressed is therefore whether a construal level intervention will be also effective in promoting job outcomes.

Chapter Five

STUDY 3

Introduction

In the previous chapter, an experimental longitudinal study was conducted in order to enhance emotion regulation and job outcomes by using implementation intentions as an intervention. In this chapter, the same procedures and methods will be used. However, two levels of construal, a high level versus low level, will be used as an intervention. This is the main aim of this chapter: to find out whether emotion regulation could be enhanced through changing construal levels and whether this enhancement can influence job outcomes.

Construal Level Theory

Construal levels are defined as “the perception of what will occur: the processes that give rise to the representation of the event itself” (Trope & Liberman, 2010, p. 445). Two levels of construal have been distinguished, a high level and a low level construal (CLT) (Freitas et al., 2004; Trope & Liberman, 2003).

The first type of construal is the high-level construal. Trope and Liberman (1998) suggested that high-level construal is more likely to involve abstract, coherent, and super-ordinate mental representations. High-level construal consists of the events and features that produce key changes in the meaning of events. Three main points have been identified as important in shaping construal structure:

(i) Scholars have suggested that when individuals change their concern from concrete representations of an action, behaviour or object to more general representations (“abstract representations”), they focus more on the main features and ignore the minor features (Trope & Liberman, 2010).

(ii) People often think about their goals and values (Vallacher & Wegner, 1987) and make decisions on the basis of them (Rachlin, 2000). Some goals may be more important than others. Action identification theory suggested that actions can be categorised into subordinate or super-ordinate goals (Vallacher & Wegner, 1987). Thus, construal level theory proposed that high-level construal is related to super-ordinate goals (“central goals”) that may address, for example, why an action is performed (Smith, 1998). When an employee, for example, is looking to gain a bonus at the end of the year, he or she would work harder or build a better relationship with his or her advisor during the year. This action is related to the super-ordinate goal (gaining a bonus at the end of the year). Another example is when the same employee changes his or her representation of behaviour from “feeling angry at the workplace because of a bad customer” to representing the same behaviour in “showing unwanted behaviour in the workplace”. This change in meaning is mainly based on the personal/organisational goals. He or she may avoid showing angry feelings, and instead, he or she may think that displaying angry feelings to customers (e.g., yelling at them) may affect his or her job reputation.

(iii) Employees usually tend to experience the job environment in relation to the present time (i.e., the here and now) (Trope & Liberman, 2010). However, employees may construe the job environment in relation to the past or future, other work environments, or even other people. Accordingly, employees’ plans, hopes, memories and other factors could impact their behaviours, emotions, and actions. One question could be raised here: how could employees go beyond the present time and make plans for the distant future? Trope and Liberman (1998; 2003; 2007; 2010) proposed that “we do so by forming abstract mental construals of distal objects” (Trope & Liberman, 2010, p. 440). For example, even though employees may not have had a particular experience themselves, they could nonetheless, for instance, predict what will be in the future, remember what has happened to them in the past,

or even think about others' feelings. These abilities are considered to be mental constructions that are distinct from present experience. Hence, these mental constructions tend to transform the present experience and introduce objects considered to be psychologically distant.

Psychological distance is considered to be “a subjective experience that something is close or far away from the self, here and now” (Trope & Liberman, 2010, p. 441). The main idea suggested by construal level theory is that the mental level of construal is related to distance in which more distant actions or behaviours will be organised by high-level construal and using this construal will also motivate individuals to undertake more distant actions or behaviours. Studies have suggested that psychological distance is related to high-level construal (Liberman & Trope, 1998; Trope & Liberman, 2003, 2010). Hence, it could be concluded that the relationship between the psychological distance and construal level theory operates automatically and without deliberation (Fujita & Han, 2009; Gollwitzer, 1999). In general, the main purpose of high-level construal is to make individuals more capable of “mentally” changing the present action by developing a representation of the main features that are related to the present action and transforming this representation into the future or a past time (“distal situation”).

The second type of construal is low-level construal. Low-level construal is more specific than high-level construal because it includes contextual and subordinate features or the “irrelevant goals” of events. Although this level is more concrete than the higher level of construal, the changes in features energise minor changes in the meaning of events (Semin & Fiedler, 1988; Trope & Liberman, 2003). Action identification theory suggested that subordinate goals are more related with specific “how” details of an action. For example, an employee who looks forward to having an excellent job reputation and uses low-level construal may think about the specific details that could help him or her achieve this reputation instead of thinking about why this reputation is important (high-level construal).

Trope and his colleagues argued that scholars should focus on high-level construal as it has more effective influence. However, other scholars believe that low-level construal is an effective way to increase the ability to solve social problems (Watkins & Moulds, 2005), enhance emotion regulation and problem solving (Stober & Borkovec, 2002), and find an adaptive route in relation to new or difficult events (Watkins, 2008). In my opinion, the influence of the low-level construal is important for achieving even the main goals. For example, when these goals are motivated regularly, they may be transformed from being main goals to being minor goals. For example, when job performance is very important for an employee (“high-level”) to get a bonus at the end of the year, he or she will make sure that job tasks should be achieved correctly to achieve his or her main goals. However, when he or she has done several tasks daily, his or her construal may change from why doing these tasks is important to how to perform these tasks. He or she may also feel bored from doing these tasks. Accordingly, he or she may think of an idea over how to perform these tasks without feeling bored. The low-level construal may now be an important factor that could affect the main goals too. Hence, the frequency and intensity of goal striving may play a key role in the transformation between the construals.

Construal Level Theory, Emotion Regulation, and Job Outcomes

Construal level has been found to be related to task performance (Förster, Friedman & Liberman, 2004; Nussbaum, Liberman & Trope, 2006; Wakslak, Trope, Liberman & Alony, 2006). When a student, for example, thinks about how to gain high grades in a semester, it could be expected that she/he will figure out a way to raise his/her performance in order to get better grades. This student, therefore, may show better performance than others who may not have thought about how to increase their grades. In this case, thinking about how to gain high grades intervenes positively in the student’s behaviour. Thus, construal levels could be

considered as interventions that may affect the individual's performance. In the work context, by understanding the goals behind performing the job tasks and by thinking about how to perform those job tasks, employees would be more capable of doing their job. As a result, it is proposed:

H 11a: The High/Low Construal Level Intervention will affect Job Performance.

Construal levels were found to be related to self-control (Fujita & Han, 2009; Fujita, Trope, Liberman & Levin-Sagi, 2006) and decision making (Trope, Liberman & Wakslak, 2007). By conducting six experimental studies, Fujita and his colleagues (2006) found that an increase in high-level construal was related to a better ability to induce self-control. In particular, Fujita and his colleagues (2006) indicated that "high-level construals led to decreased preferences for immediate over delayed outcomes, greater physical endurance, stronger intentions to exert self-control, and less positive evaluations of temptations that undermine self-control" (p. 351).

For example, if a student has been asked to join his/her friends for a dinner even though he/she has an exam the following day, he/she may or may not accept this invitation. If he/she had high-levels of construal, he/she would be more likely to think about the consequences of not studying for the exam. Hence, having a high-level construal may increase his/her self-control by resisting the temptation to go with his/her friends; and therefore, he/she will have a greater chance to perform better in the exam. In this scenario, the impact of construal levels on the student's performance is ascertained through the student's ability to manage his behaviour and emotion. In other words, it could be expected that construal levels work as an intervention that affects how people regulate behaviour or emotion, which in turn, affects their performance. According to the first study's results (chapter 3), emotion regulation should affect job performance. Also, based on the findings in

the literature about the association between emotion regulation and job performance (see Janovics & Christiansen, 2001; O'Boyle et al., 2010), it is expected that:

H 11b: Emotion regulation will mediate the effect of the intervention on Job Performance.

The influence of high/low levels of construal may also be related to social values (i.e., relationships and freedom) (Rokeach, 1968; Watkins & Moulds, 2005). Accordingly, employees who try to understand and activate their relationships at work in relation to their goals and values would experience better relationships. For example, achieving excellent relationship with the direct supervisor may influence the employee's career in the future. Hence, by helping an employee to recall the main goals of this relationship, he/she may achieve a friendship with his supervisor. As a result, it is expected that:

H 12a: The High/Low Construal Level Intervention will affect Work Relationships.

Imagine John, who is a new employee, on his first day at a company. He is trying very hard to build new relationships with his manager and other co-workers. Although he has been told about his new office location, he still ends up in other offices by mistake. When the other employee sees such a stranger entering his/her office without permission, he/she gets very angry and yells at the stranger. In this case, if John has high construal levels, he is more likely not to yell back at the other employee. He may think about his reputation and how the others will look at him. Accordingly, John may show no aggressive response, and instead, he may ask the employee why he/she is angry in a polite way. In this scenario, the John's reaction is affected by his construal, which in turn affects his relationship and reputation at work. According to the first study's results (chapter 3), emotion regulation would affect work relationships. Also, based on the findings in the literature about the association between emotion regulation and work relationships (see Denham et al., 2003; Lopes et al., 2006), it is expected that:

H 12b: Emotion regulation will mediate the effect of the intervention on Work Relationships.

In addition, it is assumed that high/low levels of construal might also affect well-being at work. Since scholars suggested that construal levels are related to some social values (Rokeach, 1968), these social values are more likely to influence the employees' well-being too. In the previous example about the new employee, it could be possible that when John recalls how or why he needs to build a relationship with others, this recall may make him feel happy as he will make a new friendship. Accordingly, it is proposed that:

H 13a: The High/Low Construal Level Intervention will affect Well-being at Work.

According to the previous example about the new employee, John's recall of the importance of building a good relationship with others and gaining high reputation in the job may also affect his feelings, e.g., be happy, through controlling his behaviour, or being calm and not responding in an aggressive way. As the first study's results showed, there is an association between emotion regulation and well-being at work. In addition, based on the views in the literature about this association (see Ciarrochi & Scott, 2006; Malterer et al., 2008; Mayer et al., 1999), it is expected that:

H 13b: Emotion regulation will mediate the effect of the intervention on Well-being at Work.

Research has shown that as individuals increasingly understand events in relation to their values and goals (Liberman, Trope & Stefan, 2007), such activation of high-level construal promotes self-control (Fujita et al., 2006). As self-control has also been linked to some social problems such as breakdown in relationships (Baumeister et al., 2007), it is expected that a high-level construal, "why" construal would have more effects on job outcomes that include or are affected by social engagement. In a work environment such as a charity, for example, it is expected that social engagement is one of the regular activities that employees encounter during work time. Having a high self-regulation or self-control would

help employees deal more effectively with such an environment. Accordingly, as employees increase their understanding of these social engagements in relation to their personal goals, their engagement in those social activities will be more effective. Thus, it is proposed that:

H 14a: The High-Level Construal Intervention group will have better Relationships at Work than Low-Level Construal Intervention group.

On the other hand, it is expected that the frequency and the intensity of the goals may play a main role in the transformation between the construals (see Rimes & Watkins, 2005; Trope & Liberman, 2010; Watkins & Moulds, 2005). I hypothesise that job performance, among other job outcomes, may be affected more by low-level construal. This hypothesis is warranted by the fact that the employees in charitable organisations generally face task loads that are difficult to achieve. In addition, according to the suggestion by Watkins (2008) that low-level construal is adaptive for difficult events; therefore, it is proposed that:

H 14b: The Low-Level Construal Intervention group will have better Job Performance than the High-Level Construal Intervention group.

As high-level construal consists of the events and features that produce key changes in the meaning of events (Trope & Liberman, 2003), it is expected that a high-level construal would associate with well-being at work more so than a low-level construal. An example of the effect of high-level construal on well-being at work for someone working in a charitable organisation is as follows: An employee, from the interviews in the previous study, indicated that “If you face stress at work, you remind yourself that this work will lead you to heaven and that GOD will be pleased with you”. For many employees who work in charity, their happiness in work is one of the main reasons that led them to work for these organisations. In other words, helping employees think and understand the events in the workplace in relation to their main personal goals should enhance their overall well-being at work. In addition, and based on my opinion, most well-being factors are related to the sense of time. For example, job satisfaction tends to take more time to develop while being happy may arise in the here

and now. In this case, these particular factors are expected to be influenced more by high-level construal as scholars found that time-distance is associated more with high-level construal (Fujita, Eyal, Chaiken, Trope & Liberman, 2008; Trope & Liberman, 2000). As a result, it is expected that:

H 14c: The High-Level Construal Intervention group will have higher Well-being at Work than the Low-Level Construal Intervention group.

Finally, as with well-being at work, greater organisational commitment was also expected to be affected by understanding work events in relation to super-ordinate goals more than sub-ordinate goals. One explanation could be related to the temporal distance theory. As has been mentioned, the values or goals that are related to a high-level construal would be increased with the temporal distance, while the same values or goals would be decreased or discounted with a low-level construal (Trope & Liberman, 2003). Another explanation could be related to the concept of organisational commitment. Bateman and Strasser (1984) defined organisational commitment as “multidimensional in nature, involving an employee’s loyalty to the organisation, willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organisation, degree of goal and value congruency with the organisation, and desire to maintain membership” (p. 95). Accordingly, as the process of organisational commitment is quite complicated and needs time to be accomplished, it was expected that organisational commitment would be related to the super-ordinate goals which also need time to be accomplished more than sub-ordinate goals. Hence, it is proposed that:

H 15: The High-Level Construal Intervention group will have higher Organisational Commitment than the Low-Level Construal Intervention group.

Method

Research methods were applied in order to achieve the study aims. Firstly, a questionnaire, which is a research instrument that includes questions about specific issues and which allows for participants to respond to those questions, was the most commonly used research instrument in the thesis. Questionnaires may be one of the best ways to get information from a large number of people. The potential for researcher's bias is less than in other instruments (e.g., interviews) though questionnaires may be more expensive and require time to collect (Gillham, 2008). Although some scholars have argued that the questionnaire may have missing data, open-ended questions may have vague answers, and analysing the data may sometimes take a long time (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998), using a questionnaire is still an effective way to obtain data from large samples.

In addition, a semi-structured interview, which is defined as a "grouping of topics and questions that the interviewer can ask in different ways to different participants" (Lindlof & Taylor, 2002, p. 195), has been used in this study. Using this type of interview will increase flexibility in terms of acquiring more information from the interviewee or obtaining in-depth information about specific issues. This in-depth information would be more effective for answering complex questions than other methods, e.g., a questionnaire. Scholars usually employ a semi-structured interview when they have themes that need to be further explored (Lindlof & Taylor, 2002). However, it all depends on the ability and skills of the interviewer, especially to be flexible in the interview and ask questions that are more relevant to a particular issue. In addition, it is difficult to apply this method in large samples or to generalise the findings in terms of the entire population.

Also, a diary which is defined as a tool for assessing "little experiences of everyday life that fill most of our working time and occupy the vast majority of our conscious attention" (Wheeler & Reis, 1991, p. 340), was used in this study. Using diary data can help

the researcher examine the repeated behaviours in their real situations (Bolger et al., 2003). Another advantage of using a diary study is that it could be considered quantitative or qualitative according to the research aims (George, 2006). In this study, it is considered as a quantitative method as the purpose of using the diary study is to link daily use of emotion regulation behaviour to improvement in job outcomes. Also, Palen and Salzman (2002) indicated that “participants’ diary reports sometimes hinted at issues that deserved much deeper investigation and empirical treatment. Because they were spurred by real events, the reports sometimes raised issues that did not emerge in the interviews because participants forgot about them” (p. 90). Other scholars, however, argued that a diary study may affect participants’ ability to continue with the study as they may get tired or lose interest in participating (Bolger et al., 2003). In addition, participants may sometimes behave according to what is socially desirable or what the researcher expects (Reiman, 1993). However, designing an appropriate diary study (e.g., by using a short diary) may increase the individuals’ desire to participate in the research. Participants could be encouraged and informed on how important it is to behave in their usual behaviour instead of what is socially desirable.

Finally, an intervention design, which is an experimental study conducted in the field that assesses cause-effect relationships by manipulating the causal factor, was used in this study. The precise nature of the intervention will be discussed later in this chapter. In general, the intervention studies are an effective way to assess cause-effect relationships and offer a rigorous means of assessing the impact of predictor variables on outcomes.

Occupational Context

The number of non-profit organisations that are registered every year is growing by 5-6% in the United Kingdom and United States. The number of non-profit organisations in the

UK has increased to 210,000 (Pharoah, 2005) and more than 1.2 million in the USA (Giving Institute, 2002). This growth is attributed to the fact that these organisations are becoming more competitive and more professional (Giving Institute, 2002). The reason for collecting data from charitable organisations was to involve a type of work where interpersonal emotion regulation in particular is common. In addition, the regulation of emotion in these organisations is likely to have an impact on job outcomes because the nature of the job involves a high level of interpersonal interaction. As is the case for any non-profit organisation, charitable organisations are sensitive about their reputation. They may gain this reputation by building a strong relationship with clients (i.e., donors). To establish this relationship, employees need to be aware of how to regulate their emotions.

Research Design

The current study had an experimental longitudinal design and involved a pre-post questionnaire booklet, an intervention, daily diary for one month, and a follow-up questionnaire booklet after 8 months.

High/low Levels of Construal Interventions

In the current study, the research aim was to measure the impact of manipulating emotion regulation behaviour using a high versus low level of construal intervention. The participants were randomly divided into two experimental groups: the high construal level or the “why” group, and the low construal level or the “how” group. Both groups were asked daily to answer this question: “What is the most important job outcome for you today?” Participants were asked to provide an answer that was related to job outcomes such as their relationship with their supervisor, clients, and co-workers, job reputation, well-being at work, and job performance. After providing this answer, the high construal level group was required to answer the following question: “Why is the particular job outcome that you have

chosen important?” An example of an employee’s answers is: “I chose the relationship with colleagues as an important outcome because it helps me to make the workplace a friendly place.” Then, they have to answer the next question: “Why did you choose this reason?” An example of an employee’s answers is: “I think that having a friendly workplace will make me happy.”

On the other hand, the low construal level group was asked daily to answer this question: “What is the most important job outcome for you today?” An employee said: “The most important outcome is doing my job in a perfect way.” Then, they had to answer the next question: “How do you perform the particular job outcome that you have chosen?” The same employee emphasised that: “I will not postpone any task until tomorrow.” Then, the participants had to answer the final question: “According to your previous answer, how you perform or execute it?” The same employee indicated that: “I will use sticker papers to remind myself about every new task” (see Table 27).

Table 27

High versus Low Level Intervention

High-level construal group	Low-level construal group
Today, what is the most important job outcome for you?	Today, what is the most important job outcome for you?
Why is it important? (Answer 1)	How you perform this job outcome? (Answer 1)
According to your answer, why you choose this reason? (Answer 2)	According to your answer, how you perform or execute it? (Answer 2)
According to your answer, why you choose this reason?	According to your answer, how you perform or execute it?

Participants

Forty-five male employees voluntarily participated in the research during their work time. When comparing this sample to the larger sample that participated in the same charitable organisation in the first study, this sample was representative of the larger sample for some but not all of the demographic variables. For example, the independent *t*-test showed that there were no significant differences in the participants' age (Study 3 sample: $M = 31.4$, $SD = 7.6$; Study 1 sample: $M = 34.6$, $SD = 8.8$, $t = 1.66$, *ns*), tenure (Study 3 sample: $M = 8.2$, $SD = 7.6$; Study 1 sample: $M = 8.5$, $SD = 7.00$, $t = .21$, *ns*). In addition, no female agreed to participate in Study 3. All participants had completed a diary and three questionnaires. In particular, their response rate was 100% by completing a daily diary with 795 entries, pre-post questionnaires, and follow-up questionnaire. Participants' age range was between 23 and 53 years ($M = 31.4$ years, $SD = 7.6$). The average experience for working in charity was 8.2 years ($SD = 7.6$) ranging from 1 to 30 years. More than half of the sample (61.9 %) had third-level education level (e.g., bachelor and master's degree). Three job-types were included in the study: administrative job (59.5 %), fundraiser job (16.7 %), and finance job (23.8 %). By picking up a diary without knowing which group the diary referred to, participants were randomly divided into two groups: the first experimental group was the high construal level and consisted of 23 participants; and the second experimental group was the low construal level and consisted of 22 participants.

Measures

The Questionnaire Booklet

In accordance with Brislin's guidelines (1976), all the questionnaire scales were translated into Arabic by using the back and forward translation method. A committee of three psychologists who teach at Kuwait University and are proficient in the English language in addition to being researchers translated the questionnaires to Arabic. Then, another committee of two psychologists who teach at Kuwait University translated the Arabic version into English. They recommended that the final English version was the same as the original and no changes were recommended.

Participants completed a structured questionnaire booklet three times: before and after the intervention (pre-post questionnaire; the intervention lasted for four weeks and the pre-post questionnaires were conducted before and after the intervention) and again after 8 months.

The questionnaire booklet consisted of two sections. Section I comprised two major measures: The Emotion Regulation of Self and Others scale and the Emotional Exhaustion Scale. Section II consisted of job outcomes such as job performance, job satisfaction, well-being, job commitment, relationship with peers/supervisor/ donor, and reputation at work.

Section I:

Emotion regulation: Emotion regulation was measured by the *Emotion Regulation of Others and the Self (EROS)* which was developed by Niven, Totterdell, Stride, and Holman (2011). EROS has been divided into two major dimensions and each one of them consists of two sub-scales: the first assesses the strategies that are used to handle one's own feelings and whether those strategies are used to either improve (6 items) or worsen feelings (4items),

while the second assesses the strategies that are used to handle others' feelings and whether those strategies are used to either improve (6 items) or worsen feelings (3 items). Sample items are: "I thought about my positive characteristics to try to make myself feel better" (Intrinsic Improving strategies); "I looked for problems in my current situation to try to make myself feel worse" (Intrinsic Worsening strategies); "I gave someone helpful advice to try to improve how s/he felt" (Extrinsic Improving strategies); "I told someone about their shortcomings to try to make him/her feel worse" (Extrinsic Worsening strategies).

Emotional exhaustion: *Emotional Exhaustion (EE) Sub-scale from Maslach Burnout Inventory.* This measure was developed by Maslach and Jackson (1981). Maslach and Jackson (1981) categorised burnout into three components: emotional exhaustion, personal accomplishment, and depersonalization. Some researchers have argued that emotional exhaustion is the core component of burnout (Maslach & Leiter, 1997). Participants were asked to describe the way they feel about working in their charitable organisation. The sub-scale consists of 9 items. An example item is: "I feel emotionally drained from work". The response format was a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from "Never" to "Everyday". Maslach and Jackson (1981) found that the Alpha coefficient for the EE sub-scale was .89. The current study showed an Alpha coefficient of .74.

Section II:

Job Performance: Six items developed by Griffin, Neal, and Parker (2007) were used to measure *Individual Task Adaptivity* (3 items) and *Individual Task Proactivity* (3 items) (*ITAP*) as important elements for job performance. Sample items are: "I adapted well to changes in core tasks" (Individual task adaptively); "I initiated better ways of doing my core tasks" (Individual task proactivity). The response format for this scale was a 5-point Likert-

type scale ranging from “very little” to “a great deal”. Alpha coefficient for individual task proactivity and adaptivity was reported as .73 and .67, respectively (Griffin et al., 2007).

The second job performance measure was designed by the researcher and consists of one self-report item that assesses the *General Job Performance (GJP)*. Due to the booklet’s length, minimising the number of questions became necessary. This item summarised the expectation of individuals about their job performance at work. The item is, “In general, how you evaluate your job performance?” The response format is a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from “Fair” to “Excellent”.

The third job performance measure is the *Standard Evaluation of Job Performance Measure (SEJP)*. In Kuwait, the Ministry of Social Affairs and Labour has a standard job evaluation for charitable organisations. Hence, this form was used in the current research. The job performance form consisted of three sections: Individual Performance Tasks (7 items); Collective Performance Tasks (4 items); and Personal Capabilities (4 items). Examples of items are: how you evaluate your “time management”, “teamwork skills”, and “communication skills”.

Relationships at work: Four main scales were adopted in this study. The first assesses *Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)*. It was developed by McAllister (1995) and includes 10 items that measure affiliative and assistance-oriented citizenship. Sample items are: “I take time to listen to the problems and worries of other employees” (Affiliative citizenship) and “I help other employees with difficult tasks even when they don’t directly ask for assistance” (Assistance – oriented citizenship). The reliability of affiliative citizenship and assistance-oriented citizenship was reported as .81 and .82 respectively (McAllister, 1995).

The second scale was the *Relationship with Donors Scale (RWD)*, which was developed by the researcher to assess the relationship between employees and donors in charitable organisations. The RWD scale consists of 6 items that measure the relationship with donors. Sample items are: “I established a personal and distinct relationship with donors” and “I made easily new relationships with new donors” (the diversity of the relationship).

The third scale is *Leader Membership Exchange (LMX)* (Graen & Uhl-Bien 1995). As the LMX is focused on the manager’s perspective more than the employee’s perspective, one item was adopted. That item was, “How would you characterise your working relationship with your supervisor?” One item was designed and added to the previous item to assess the relationship between employees and supervisors: “When compared to your colleagues, how good is your relationship with your supervisor?” The response format is a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from “Bad relationship” to “Ideal relationship”.

Finally, an item from *Relative Reputational Effectiveness (RE)* scale developed by Tsui (1984) was used to measure reputation in the workplace. Work reputation has been linked to interpersonal relationships (i.e., peer acceptance) as the most important condition for being an effective employee (Kanter, 1977). The participants answered this one item in relation to themselves. The item is, “Relative to all other employees that you know in the organisation, what is your personal view of your reputation in terms of your overall effectiveness in your job role”. The response format is a 9-point Likert-type scale ranging from “A great deal lower” to “A great deal higher”.

Organisational commitment: A sub scale “Affective Commitment (AC)” from *Organisational Commitment Scale (OC)*, developed by Allen, Meyer, and Smith (1993), was

used in this study. This sub-scale has 6 items. Sample item is: “I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation”.

Well-being at work: Two scales were used to assess well-being at work. The First scale is *the Job-Related Affect Scale (JRA)*. It was developed by Warr (1990) and consists of 12 items that index positive and negative affects at work. The positive affects include two main components: Comfort (3 items) and Enthusiasm (3 items), while the negative affects include Anxiety (3 items) and Depression (3 items). Participants were asked to indicate how often their job made them feel positive or negative during the last month. The response format was a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from “Never” to “Always”.

The second scale is the *Job Satisfaction Scale (JSS)* by Warr, Cook, and Wall (1979). The JSS scale consists of 16 items that measure intrinsic and extrinsic job motivation. Sample items are: How satisfied are you with “The freedom to choose your own method of working” (Intrinsic Satisfaction); “The amount of responsibility you are given” (Extrinsic Satisfaction). The scale had an acceptable alpha coefficient (.88) (Lawson et al., 2009).

The job outcomes were evaluated by the employee him/herself, a co-worker, and the direct supervisor. Same scales, which were mentioned above, were used also by a co-worker and a direct manager to assess the employees’ job outcomes. For example, in addition to ask the employees how they evaluated their performance in this month, their co-workers and managers were asked to speculate on their performance too. It should be noted, however, that organisational commitment and job well-being were only evaluated by the employees themselves because they may not be accurately assessed by others (see Table 28). In other words, the scales there were used as three-evaluation systems are: individual task adaptivity, individual task proactivity, standard evaluation of job performance, organizational citizenship

behaviour, the relationship with managers, the relationship with donors, and job reputation. A copy of the scale's items is represented in Appendix 4.

The mean values of each variable that has three evaluation scores were taken and divided by three to obtain a general mean value. This is an important step due to the high number of variables that are included in the current thesis. In addition, the correlation between the three evaluation scores showed positive associations among all job outcomes. For example, there is a positive correlation between self-evaluation and co-worker evaluation for organisational citizenship behaviour in ($r = .60, p < .01$). In addition, the same positive association was found for individual task adaptivity ($r = .58, p < .01$).

Table 28

Evaluating the Job Outcomes and the Correlation Values of Some Outcomes

Job outcomes	How it is evaluated		
	By the employees themselves	By a co-worker	By the direct manager
Individual task adaptivity	✓	✓	✓
Individual task proactivity	✓	✓	✓
Standard evaluation of job performance	✓	✓	✓
General job performance	✓	✓	✓
Organisational citizenship behaviour	✓	✓	✓
Relationship with supervisor	✓	✓	✓
Relationship with donors	✓	✓	✓
Relative reputational effectiveness	✓	✓	✓
Organisational affective commitment	✓		
Organisational normative commitment	✓		
Organisational continuance commitment	✓		
Job-related affect scale	✓		
Job satisfaction	✓		

The diary

Participants also completed a daily diary at the end of work time for one month (except the weekends). The diary consisted of 19 items for the current study (see Table 29). These items were represented in one A4 page. Each item in the diary was derived from a longer scale that was included in the questionnaire booklet (single items were used to reduce participant burden). The response formats for those items were the same as the large scales. To make it easier to complete the daily diaries, they were packaged in a single booklet comprising 15 pages for the post-baseline diary and 3 pages for the pre-baseline diary. Organisational commitment was not represented in the diary as measuring it needs more time than daily measuring. Also, the standard evaluation form (SEJP) was not presented as three other job performance items were included in the diary and was necessary to keep the diary short. A copy of the diary is presented in Appendix 5.

Table 29

The Diary Items and Their Relationship to the Research Variables

Variable	The number of items related to the variable
Emotion regulation	4
Individual task adaptivity	1
Individual task proactivity	1
Standard evaluation of job performance	0
General job performance	1
Organisational citizenship behaviour	0
Relationship with supervisor	1
Relationship with donors	1
Relative reputational effectiveness	1
Organisational affective commitment	0
Job-related affect scale	4
Emotional exhaustion	1
Suppression	1

Job satisfaction	1
High versus low level construal	1

The items in the diary represented the following:

Emotion regulation: Instead of using EROS items, four general items were developed to represent the EROS four sub-scales. The reason for not using the EROS items in the diary is because the EROS items are related to the use of specific emotion regulation strategies and people may not use these strategies daily. For example, people may not yell at others as a way to worsen their feelings each day. As a result, four general items were developed: “I tried to improve how I felt” (intrinsic improving regulation strategy); “I tried to improve how others felt” (extrinsic improving regulation strategy); “I tried to worsen how I felt” (intrinsic worsening regulation strategy); and “I tried to worsen how others felt” (extrinsic worsening regulation strategy).

Job Performance: Two items from the ITAP, which was developed by Griffin et al. (2007), were included in the diary. The items are: “I adapted well to changes in core tasks” (Individual task adaptively); “I initiated better ways of doing my core tasks” (Individual task proactively). One item that assessed the general job was added. The item is: “In general, how do you evaluate your job performance? The response format is a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from “Fair” to “Excellent”.

Relationships at work: Four general items were used to assess the relationship with supervisor, co-workers, and clients in addition to job reputation. The items were: today “How do you evaluate your relationship with supervisor”; “How do you evaluate your relationship with co-workers”; “How do you evaluate your relationship with donors”; and “Relative to all

other employees that you know in the organisation, what is your personal view of your reputation in terms of your overall effectiveness in your job role.”

Well-being at work: Four items from *the job-related affect scale (JRA)* by Warr (1990) was used. These four items represents the four sub-scales of JRA which are: Calm, Enthusiasm, Gloomy, and Anxiety. In addition, one general item was used to assess the general job satisfaction: “Today, how satisfied are you with your workplace?”

Suppression: One item from *Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (ERQ)* by Gross and John (2003) was used. The item is “I kept my emotions to myself.”

Emotional exhaustion: One item from *Emotional Exhaustion (EE)* Sub-scale from *Maslach Burnout Inventory* by Maslach and Jackson (1981) was used. The item is: “I feel emotionally drained from work.”

High/low levels of construal: In the third study, participants completed the same diary once a day at the end of work time except that it consisted of 19 single items. The item that represented implementation intentions was excluded and two items that represent high/low levels of construal were included. The items were: “Today, how often did you think deeply about WHY some aspect of your work or work-life was making you feel gloomy or anxious” and “Today, how often did you think deeply about HOW to deal with feeling gloomy or anxious about some aspect of your work or work-life.”

Procedure

Participation in this study was entirely voluntary, and participants were informed that they would be free to withdraw from the study at any time. Employees were invited to participate in the research via emails sent by the human resource department in the

organisation. To encourage them to participate, every participant had a chance to win an invitation for two persons to a famous restaurant in Kuwait.

The first week

Three steps were taken in the first week: (i) on the first day of week one, the researcher handed out the questionnaire booklet (8 pages) to the participants in person and asked them to complete it and return it on the same day. The personal and demographical data questions were included in the questionnaire booklet. (ii) On the second day, a direct supervisor and a co-worker, who worked in the same department where a participant worked, were asked to evaluate this participant. Co-workers were asked randomly if they had time to evaluate the participant. (iii) And finally, on the third day, participants were asked to complete a baseline daily diary for the rest of the first week (3 days). These three days were used as baseline data.

The second, third, and fourth week

After conducting the daily diary in the first week, participants were asked to complete the intervention daily, at the beginning of the working day. In addition, they were instructed to complete the daily diary at the end of the working day. The daily diary started on the first working day of the second week and lasted three weeks. On the last day of the fourth week, participants were asked to complete the post questionnaire booklet again. Furthermore, the participants' direct supervisor and co-workers were again asked to evaluate the participants. The same procedures that were used in the first week for conducting the questionnaire booklet and the evaluations by the direct supervisors and co-workers were applied.

Eight months later

The researcher handed out the same questionnaire booklet (8 pages) to the participants in person and asked them again to complete it and return it on the same day. The same procedures that were used in the first and fourth week for conducting the questionnaire booklet and the evaluations by the direct supervisors and co-workers were obtained.

Data Analysis

In the current study, two main analyses were used in order to assess the research aims. As a result, two result sections are presented so that the reader can easily follow the results. The first results section concerned the daily diary. Multi-level Modelling Analysis (MLM) with mixed procedure was used to analyse the daily diary as the data had two hierarchical levels; the response occasions (level-1) which were nested within individuals (level-2). It should be noted that individuals were also nested within two conditions: the experimental and control conditions in the second study and two experimental conditions in the third study. The second section of the results concerned the pre-post questionnaire and the follow-up questionnaire. Repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to analyse the questionnaire.

MLM was defined as “a generalization of regression methods, and as such can be used for a variety of purposes, including prediction ... and causal inference from experiments and observational studies” (Gelman, 2005, p. 1). Researchers have argued that MLM is an acceptable procedure for analysing the repeated observations on individuals (Heck et al., 2010; Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). For example, Bauer, Preacher, and Gil (2006) pointed out that by using the MLM, the independent variables could be nested within different levels (e.g., group level or individual level). As a result, MLM was used to analyse the longitudinal diary data.

In order to assess the MLM, five steps were carried out. The first step (null model) was to assess the baseline value for the -2log-likelihood statistic (-2LL). The -2LL was used to test the model improvement along the five steps. In the second step (unconditional model), the intercepts were allowed to vary and individual differences (between-subject variation) could be assessed. In the third step (serial dependency model), the correlations within subject effects “autoregressive structure” were examined. The fourth model (using cross-level interaction) was applied to assess the impact of the cross-level interaction at adjacent time-points. In addition, between/within subject differences were assessed in this model. Finally, in the fifth model (mediation effect model), the indirect and total mediation effect was measured. More information about each step will be provided later in this chapter.

To prepare the data for analysis using MLM, researchers argued that the predictor variables could be centred in two main ways: *Group-Mean Centring* and *Grand-Mean Centring* (Kreft & De Leeuw, 1998). Group-mean centring is applied when the predictor variables are centred around the group mean, in which each occasion is measured in relation to the group mean. However, grand-mean centring is applied when each occasion should be measured in relation to the overall mean. Scholars argue that deciding between grand-mean centering or group-mean centering is related to the research aims (Hofmann & Gavin, 1998). That is, group-mean centring was applied as the responses were nested within individuals. The full maximum-likelihood method and first-order auto-regressive residual covariance matrix were applied in order to remove the bias of the serial dependency in the time-points of the dependent variables (Hox, 2010).

Regarding the second results section (i.e., the analysis of the pre-, post, and follow-up questionnaire data), repeated measures ANOVA analysis was used to assess the impact of the intervention on the two groups after one month and then after eight months.

Results: Section 1

High and Low construal interventions

Regarding the job outcomes that were chosen by employees as important, 67.5% participants of the “how” group (low-level construal) and 69.5% participants of the “why” group (high-level construal) indicated that job performance is the most important outcome. About half of the “how” group answered that they performed their daily tasks by ordering the task priorities which could be achieved by making daily charts for those tasks, by asking help from other employees, or by working as a team. On the other hand, about half of the “why” group indicated that job performance was important as performing good work will help other people. They answered that helping other people is a virtue and that God will be pleased with them if they do it. The second most important job outcome was well-being at work in both groups, achieving 35% response rate in the “how” group and 24.2% response rate in the “why” group. About half of the “how” group also indicated that their well-being at work would be increased if they know how to order the task priorities which could be achieved by working as team and by informing the direct manager about their achievements. Some participants indicated that building a friendly relationship with co-workers would increase their well-being at work which could be gained by smiling at them or asking how they are regularly. On the other hand, the “why” group indicated that well-being is important because it will affect job outcomes. Some of them added that it is important as it could affect, or could be affected, by outside problems (e.g., home-related problems). Twenty-two-point-five per cent participants of the “how” group and 15% participant of the “why” group choose the relationship with co-worker as the third most important job outcome. No responses, however, were given for job satisfaction and organisational commitment, which make them the least important outcomes for both groups (see Table 30).

Table 30

Examples of the Most Important Job Outcomes for the Two Groups

“why” group	Why 1	Why 2	Response rate
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “I chose job performance because it will help me to get a bonus and promotion. • Job performance is important as it is a charity work.” 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “I need money for my family.” • “My God will be pleased with me.” 	69.5%
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “If I am happy and calm, I will do my work perfectly.” • “Not being anxious or depressed would increase my overall work.” 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “If I were happy at work, this may affect my mood at home too. And vice versa.” 	24.2%
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “I need to make friendship relationship with my colleagues.” • “Having good relationships with colleagues will improve the team work.” 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “Having such friendly relationships will make the work environment more pleasurable.” 	15%
“how” group	How 1	How 2	Response rate
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “I will not postpone today’s tasks to tomorrow.” • “I will ask for help from my colleagues.” 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “I will use paper stickers.” • “I will work as a team.” 	67.5%
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “To be happy and not feel anxious, I should order the task priorities.” • “Thinking positive in the workplace will make me happier.” 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “Working as team.” • “Smiling at others is always good.” 	35%
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “By building a strong relationship with my friends at work.” 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “By smiling at them every morning and saying: Hello.” 	22.5%

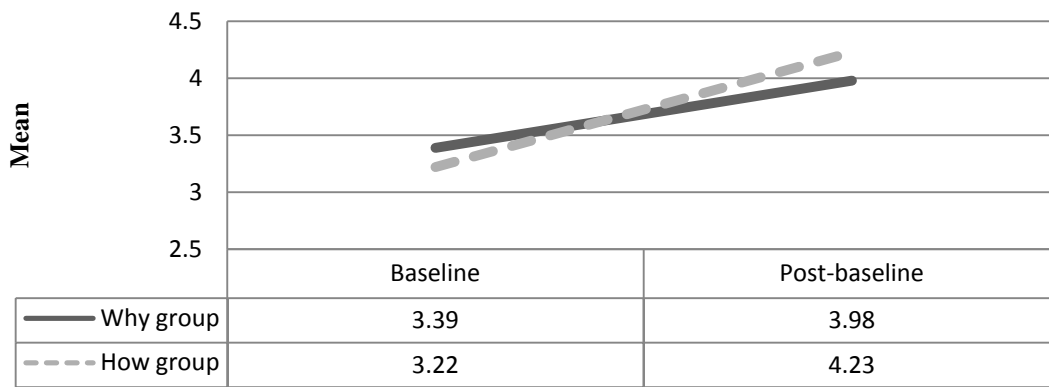
Given the variance in the job outcomes that were considered important in the workplace, one could ask whether focusing on one of them affects only that particular outcome or affects other outcomes as well. For example, by choosing job performance as the most important outcome, would this choice affect only the employees’ job performance or the other job outcomes too? Using hierarchical regression analysis, the results suggested that when employees considered job performance as an important outcome, this consideration also tended to influence other job outcomes such as the relationship with supervisor, $\beta = .49$, $R^2 = .06$, $p < .05$, and enthusiasm, $\beta = .40$, $R^2 = .07$, $p < .01$. In general, these results suggest that focusing on one job outcome seems to alter other outcomes.

Before introducing the research hypotheses, two points should be addressed. First, since I have proposed that emotion regulation would mediate the relationship between

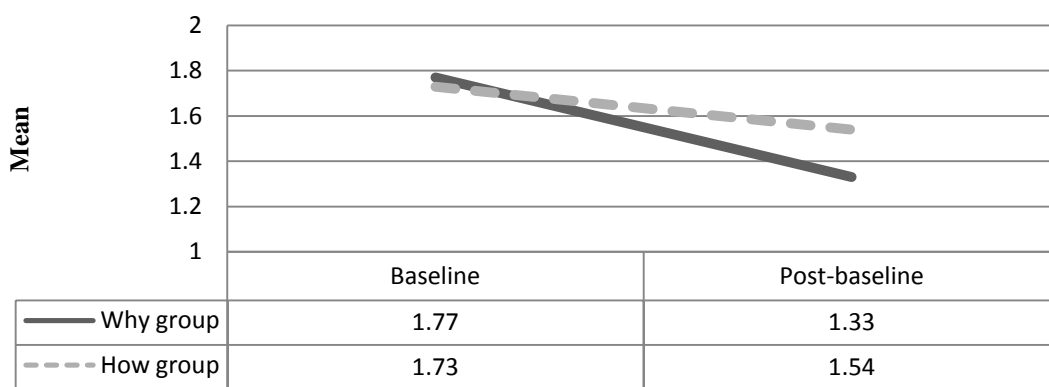
high/low levels of construal interventions and job outcomes, the issue of whether the interventions actually influenced emotion regulation should be addressed. Hence, all variables in the SPSS program were restructured and “MIXED” to cases. This is an important procedure in conducting the multilevel modelling analysis (MLM). The results indicated that although there was no significant difference between the two groups on the baseline period, both groups used more improving regulation strategies, IIS/EIS, during the intervention. In addition, both used less worsening regulation strategies, IWS/EWS, during the intervention strategies.

To assess the differences between the two groups, the estimated marginal means for these two groups were assessed before vs. after the intervention. Using the estimated marginal means is important especially when comparing the means of unequal sample sizes (Becker, 1999). In addition, this method is preferred over observed mean as it accounts for the underlying model of the data (SPSS, 2005). Thus, the /EMMEANS subcommand was added to the MIXED command. The results addressed two points: (i) the “how” group seemed to use more improving regulation strategies than the “why” group during the intervention. For example, the “how” group showed significantly higher use of IIS ($M = 4.23$) and EIS ($M = 4.11$) compared to the “why” group (IIS: $M = 3.98$; EIS: $M = 3.85$, both $ps < .01$). (ii) The “why” group, on the other hand, seemed to use less worsening regulation strategies than the “how” group during the intervention, i.e., the “why” group significantly showed lower use of IWS ($M = 1.33$) and EWS ($M = 1.41$) compared to the “how” group (IWS: $M = 1.54$, $p < .05$; EWS: $M = 1.61$, $p < .01$; see Figure 38).

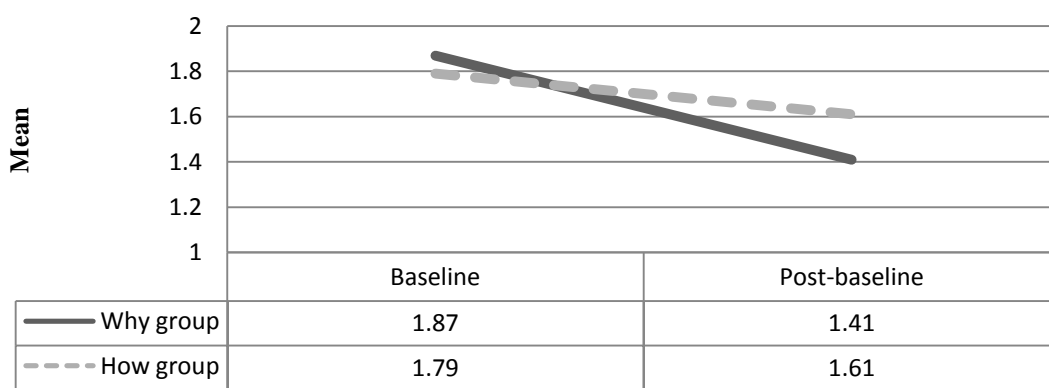
The estimated marginal mean for Intrinsic Improving Strategies



The estimated marginal mean for Intrinsic Worsening Strategies



The estimated marginal mean for Extrinsic Worsening Strategies



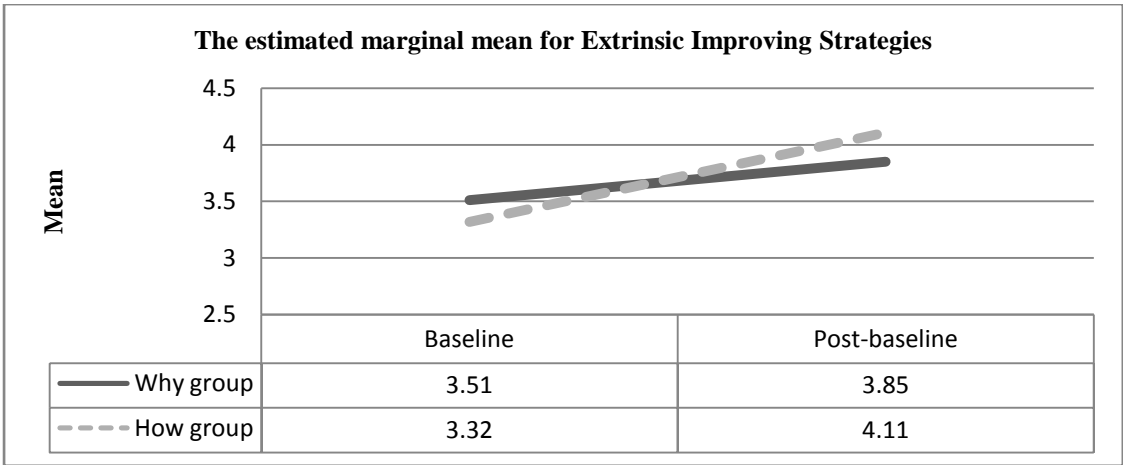


Figure 38 The Estimated Marginal Means for Emotion Regulation Strategies by Condition and Time.

Second, in order to check the manipulation effect, it was expected that the “why” group would think more regularly about the main reasons that made them feel bad at workplace while the “how” group would think more about how to deal with these feelings at workplace. As a result, two items were designed and added to the diary for assessing the frequency of using the interventions. The estimated marginal means support the expectation that the “why” group thought significantly more regularly during the intervention about the reasons behind feeling anxious or gloomy in the workplace ($M = 3.64$) while the “how” group thought less regularly about those feelings during the intervention ($M = 2.78$; fixed estimate = .87, $SE = .21$, $p < .01$; see Figure 39). The results also showed that both groups thought regularly about how to deal with feeling gloomy during the intervention. The “how” group, however, showed higher means ($M = 3.80$) compared to the “why” group during the intervention ($M = 3.28$; fixed estimate = -.47, $SE = .20$, $p < .05$). The results suggest, as it was expected, that the “why” group would think more regularly about the reasons behind their feelings at work while the “how” group would think more about how to deal with these feelings. These results are consistent with the literature (see Freitas et al., 2004; Trope & Liberman, 2003). Figure 39 presents the baseline values (the estimated marginal means

before the intervention) and the post-baseline values (the estimated marginal means after the intervention) for the two interventions.

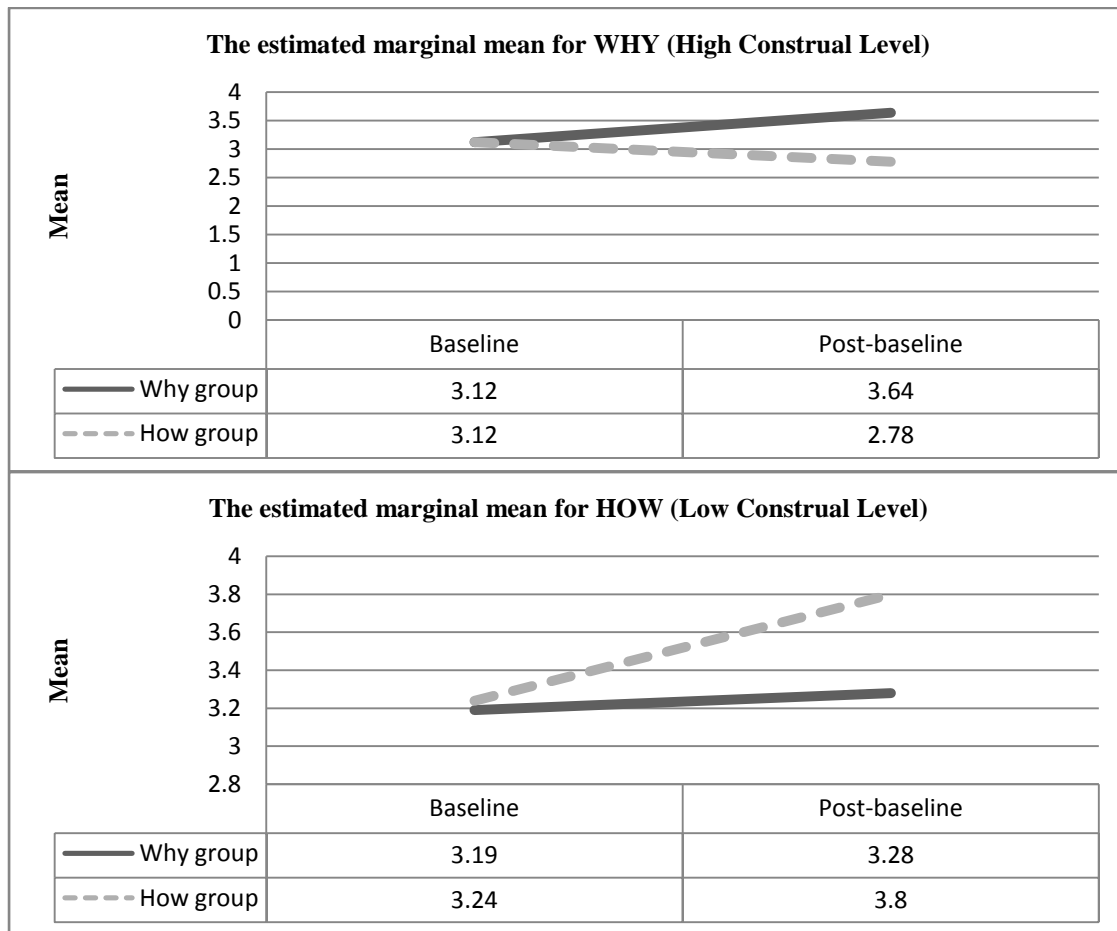


Figure 39 The Estimated Marginal Means for Frequency of Thinking About the Reasons to Feel Gloomy at Workplace (WHY) and the Frequency of Thinking about How to Deal with this Feeling (HOW) by Condition and Time.

Descriptive Analysis

A descriptive analysis was conducted to assess both the distribution and frequency for the variables included in the analysis of the hypotheses. Table 31 shows some interesting correlations. For example, both intrinsic/extrinsic positive emotion regulation variables have moderate positive correlation with the frequency of using high-level construal, IIS ($r = .41, p < .01$) and EIS ($r = .38, p < .01$); while the intrinsic/extrinsic negative emotion regulation variables had negative association with the frequency of using high-level construal, IIS ($r = -$

.47, $p < .01$) and EIS ($r = -.37, p < .01$). The same as the previous correlations, the frequency of using low-level construal has positive correlation with IIS and EIS and a negative correlation with IWS and EWS, IIS ($r = .52, p < .01$) and EIS ($r = .52, p < .01$), IWS ($r = -.46, p < .01$) and EWS ($r = -.38, p < .01$). It seems that the correlation between emotion regulation factors and low-level construal is greater than the association between emotion regulation factors and high-level construal.

Table 31

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlation Values of Questionnaire and Diary's Mediators

Variables	Means	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1.IIS	3.63	.54	1.00											
2.EIS	4.05	.58	.35**	1.00										
3.IWS	1.71	.72	.11	.14	1.00									
4.EWS	1.62	.74	.37**	.36**	.45**	1.00								
5.D.IIS	2.40	.68	-.07	-.13	.20*	.02	1.00							
6.D.EIS	2.32	.78	-.15	-.03	.13	.09	.03	1.00						
7.D.IWS	2.42	.64	-.09	-.01	.12	-.01	.08	.09	1.00					
8.D.EWS	2.32	.64	.03	.01	.14	.12	.19*	-.08	.20*	1.00				
9.D.WHY	3.21	1.28	-.14**	-.10**	-.02	-.09**	.41**	.38**	-.47**	-.37**	1.00			
10.D.HOW	3.49	1.19	-.07**	-.06	-.10**	-.03	.52**	.52**	-.46**	-.38**	.29**	1.00		
11.D.REAP	3.06	.91	.02	.02	-.04	.05	.09**	.11**	-.13**	-.11**	-.01	.04	1.00	
12.D.SUP	3.04	1.13	-.04	-.04	.04	.02	-.09	-.04	-.08	-.10*	.04	-.10*	.20**	1.00

Note: These values represent the pre-questionnaire and the baseline diary. SD = standard deviation, D = diary items, IIS = Intrinsic Improving Strategies, EIS = Extrinsic Improving Strategies, IWS = Intrinsic Worsening Strategies, EWS = Extrinsic worsening Strategies, REAR = Reappraisal, SUP = Suppression, WHY = frequency of using high-level construal, HOW = frequency of using low-level construal. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Control variables

With respect to potential control variables, some demographic variables such as age, tenure, marital status, job position (e.g., employee vs. director), citizenship status, job type (e.g., administrative), and education level have been tested using independent t -test and chi-square test to measure if there is a significant difference between the two experimental groups. No significant differences between the two groups were found (see Table 32).

Table 32

The t-Test and Chi-Square Test Values for Some Demographic Variables

Variables	Statistic	The high-level construal group		The low-level construal group	
		Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean
Age	$t = -.07$	8.30	36.88	6.70	37.05
Tenure	$t = .26$	8.07	11.63	5.30	11.05
Marital status	$\chi^2 = 2.41$.59	3.63	.73	3.52
Job position	$\chi^2 = .03$.34	.13	.36	.15
Citizenship status	$\chi^2 = 2.68$.42	.23	.22	.05
Job type	$\chi^2 = 3.29$	1.07	2.35	.99	1.86
Education level	$t = -.47$.48	1.65	.50	1.57

Table 33 Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlation Values of Questionnaire and Diary's Dependent Variables

Variables	Means	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26
1.ITA	3.98	.66	1.00																									
2.ITP	3.80	.74	.90**	1.00																								
3.GJP	5.54	.89	.38**	.36**	1.00																							
4.OCB	3.68	.36	.29**	.32**	-.18*	1.00																						
5.RWS	3.97	.55	.50**	.43**	.37**	.36**	1.00																					
6.RWD	4.54	1.26	.26*	.27*	-.02	.21	.02	1.00																				
7.RE	7.6	.96	.67**	.64**	.21*	.26**	.51**	.03	1.00																			
8.JSS	4.95	1.24	.22*	.14	.19*	.08	.50**	.19	.25*	1.00																		
9.COMF	3.34	.84	.20*	.17*	.08	-.09	.18*	.15	.02	.47**	1.00																	
10.ENTH	3.90	.84	.32**	.28**	.07	-.14	.05	.52**	.19*	.52**	.58**	1.00																
11.DEPR	1.82	.91	-.20*	-.05	-.13	.03	-.20*	-.13	-.23**	-.67**	-.40**	-.34**	1.00															
12.ANX	2.20	.93	-.31**	-.23**	.07	.09	-.15*	-.28**	-.19*	-.55**	-.39**	-.36**	.54**	1.00														
13.EE	2.98	1.14	-.12	-.10	-.11	-.10	-.25*	-.27*	-.11	-.74**	-.46**	-.38**	.65**	.52**	1.00													
14.D.ITA	3.89	1.01	-.03	.01	-.11	.21*	.02	.22*	.08	.03	-.17*	.09	.05	.01	-.04	1.00												
15.D.ITP	3.80	1.10	-.07	-.07	-.03	-.04	.08	-.15	-.06	.01	.02	-.05	.06	-.03	.10	.04	1.00											
16.D.GJP	4.89	1.41	.04	-.05	.17*	-.09	-.11	.07	.04	-.05	.03	.06	.01	-.02	.07	.03	.05	1.00										
17.D.OCB	4.19	.85	.09	.02	.20*	-.02	.26**	-.01	.21*	.18*	.16	.11	-.09	-.05	-.12	-.18*	-.06	.02	1.00									
18.D.RWS	4.31	.84	-.04	.05	.09	-.12	.18*	-.01	.10	.19*	.03	-.03	-.07	-.05	-.08	-.08	.11	.14	.38**	1.00								
19.D.RWD	5.83	1.09	.01	-.03	.01	-.13	.19*	.16	.15	.08	.02	.17	.07	.09	-.08	.33**	.08	.09	.27**	.45**	1.00							
20.D.RE	7.27	1.38	-.06	-.03	.20*	.11	.04	.09	.03	-.01	-.08	-.10	.09	.08	-.12	.14	.05	-.12	.07	.19*	.12*	1.00						
21.D.JSS	5.18	1.66	.16	.15	.04	.08	.24**	.28**	.01	.39**	.33**	.24**	-.17*	-.16	-.37**	.01	-.20*	-.06	.07	.27**	.21*	.13	1.00					
22.D.COMF	3.33	1.27	.19*	.14	.01	-.01	.12	.27*	.10	.27**	.26**	.45**	-.23*	-.15	-.20*	-.17	-.09	.08	.30**	.13	.09	-.13	.29**	1.00				
23.D.ENTH	3.90	.97	-.10	-.05	-.04	.02	-.03	.27*	-.05	.03	.01	.09	.10	.07	-.02	-.01	.01	.09	-.04	.03	.13	.03	.05	.17*	1.00			
24.D.DEPR	1.68	.79	-.03	-.05	-.01	-.19*	-.12	-.12	.03	-.14	-.05	.01	.05	.14	.03	.12	.08	.08	.01	.03	.24*	.01	-.05	-.15*	-.18*	1.00		
25.D.ANX	2.01	1.08	-.22**	-.25**	-.28**	.01	-.20*	-.22*	-.10	-.41**	-.28**	-.34**	.24**	.40**	.39**	.17*	.15	.07	-.22*	-.28*	.06	-.11	-.42**	-.41**	.05	.06	1.00	
26.D.EE	2.08	1.21	-.12	-.15	-.16	.03	.01	-.15	.04	-.33**	-.12	-.26**	.46**	.15	.37**	.09	.04	.11	-.13	-.04	.30**	.07	-.08	-.19*	.14	.03	.49**	1.00

Note: These values represent the pre-questionnaire and the baseline diary. SD = standard deviation, D = diary items, OCB: Organisational Citizenship Behaviour, RWD: Relationship with Donors, RE: Job Reputation, RWS: Relation with Supervisor, JSS = Job Satisfaction, EE = Emotional Exhaustion, ANX = Anxiety, DEPR = Depression, ENTH = Enthusiasm, COMF = Comfort, GJP = General Job Performance, ITA = Individual Task Adaptivity, ITP = Individual Task Proactivity.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Multi-level modelling analysis

Research hypotheses 11a to 14c assumed that there will be a positive association between the intervention and job outcomes and that this association will be mediated by emotion regulation. As a result, five steps were taken in order to assess these hypotheses using multi-level modelling analysis (MLM). Before carrying out the following steps, the diary's variables have been reconstructed to cases in order to prepare the data for the MLM analysis. The first three steps are introduced separately first as they may not be related directly to the research hypotheses but should still be addressed as a basis for the fourth and fifth steps.

The null model

The first step (null model) was assessed to conduct the baseline value for -2log-likelihood statistic (-2LL). The -2LL was used to test the model improvement along the five steps. In addition, this model provided the initial information for conducting the next models such as the estimates of individual parameters and their standard errors, the estimate of the residual error variance and its standard error, confidence intervals, and interval for the residual error variance estimate. The results showed that the baseline value for -2LL for all job outcomes was significant. Hence, the null model provided a basis for supporting the research hypotheses.

The unconditional model

In addition to the initial information that was obtained in the previous model, the intercepts were allowed to vary and the variations between individuals were assessed in this model. The SUBJECT and COVTYPE options in /RANDOM command were added as they provide many options for modelling the covariance structures of random effects and residual

errors. Table 34 indicates that the variance attributed to between-subject variation for individual task adaptivity, individual task proactivity, and organisational citizenship behaviour were 36%, 13%, and 28%, $p < .01$ respectively. See the interclass correlation (ICC) in Table 33 for more information about between-subject variation. Hence, the unconditional model provided a basis for supporting the research hypotheses as it illustrated the between individual variations.

Table 34

The Unconditional Model

Unconditional model	-2*LL	Δ -2*LL	F	ICC
Individual task adaptivity	2154.81	19.44	5809.47**	.36**
Individual task proactivity	2268.79	40.87	2753.93**	.13**
General job performance	2675.15	.11	12101.28**	.004
Organisational citizenship behaviour	1780.40	142.06	3109.27**	.28**
Relationship with supervisor	1665.57	220.34	3033.09**	.34**
Relationship with donor	1483.51	112.57	2659.75**	.31**
Job reputation	2409.34	238.95	2999.38**	.36**
Job satisfaction	2271.86	610.26	661.60**	.64**
Anxious	1834.44	432.74	270.74**	.53**
Comfort	2400.29	113.79	1067.12**	.23**
Depression	1767.34	48.67	1035.73**	.12**
Enthusiasm	1995.08	128.13	2408.32**	.24**
Emotional exhaustion	1912.89	501.62	201.78**	.60**

Note. Models are random intercept. SE = standard error; LL = log likelihood; ICC = interclass correlation; df = degree of freedom. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

The serial dependency model

When assessing the repeated measures data, it is expected to find a correlation between the repeated responses from the same respondents. Thus, a systemic pattern of correlations between the observations within subjects should be accounted for. A standard

method to assess this non-independent affect is to use an autoregressive structure which is the correlation (or serial dependency) between successive time points. As a result, the command /REPEATED, which assesses the nesting structure (time within subject), was added in order to assess the autoregressive structure (AR1). Table 35 indicates that all job outcomes showed significant auto-correlation over the study period. In other words, there was a positive correlation between successive time-points when assessing each job outcome, meaning that each observation was related to the preceding one.

Table 35

The Serial Dependency Model

Serial Dependency	Estimated of covariance parameters	SE
Individual task adaptivity	.59**	.02
Individual task proactivity	.61**	.04
General job performance	.70**	.02
Organisational citizenship behaviour	.63**	.03
Relationship with supervisor	.64**	.03
Relationship with donor	.67**	.04
Job reputation	.46**	.03
Job satisfaction	.52**	.04
Anxious	.43**	.04
Comfort	.25**	.04
Depression	.70**	.02
Enthusiasm	.58**	.03
Emotional exhaustion	.29**	.04

Note. Models are random intercept. SE = standard error. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

The Intervention using cross-level interaction model

In this model, the influence of the intervention and time effects was assessed. Each dependent variable, e.g., ITA, was included in this model. Also, baseline vs. Follow-up periods in addition to experimental vs. Control groups were added. As no significant effect of

the demographic variables was found, no control variables were added to the model. The following research hypotheses will be assessed separately using this model.

Hypotheses 11a and 14b

To test hypothesis 11a, whether there will be a positive impact of high/low construal levels on job performance, three job performance measures were assessed; individual task adaptivity (ITA), individual task proactivity (ITP), and general job performance (GJP). The fourth model results indicated that construal interventions had significantly affected, over and above the general growth, ITA (fixed estimate = $-.38$, $SE = .15$, $p < .05$), ITP (fixed estimate = $-.65$, $SE = .14$, $p < .01$), and GJP (fixed estimate = $-.63$, $SE = .13$, $p < .01$) over the study period (see Table 36). In support of hypothesis 11a, the results supported the notion that the construal interventions influence the employee’s job performance.

Figure 40 indicates that although both groups showed significantly increase in all job performance factors during the intervention, the “how” group showed higher means in all job performance factors (ITA: $M = 4.17$; ITP: $M = 4.11$; GJP: $M = 6.37$) than the “why” group (ITA: $M = 3.89$, $p < .05$; ITP: $M = 3.65$, $p < .01$; GJP: $M = 5.99$, $p < .01$). These findings support the research hypothesis 14b by showing that although job performance was increased in both groups during the intervention, the “how” group has higher job performance than the “why” group after the intervention (see Figure 40).

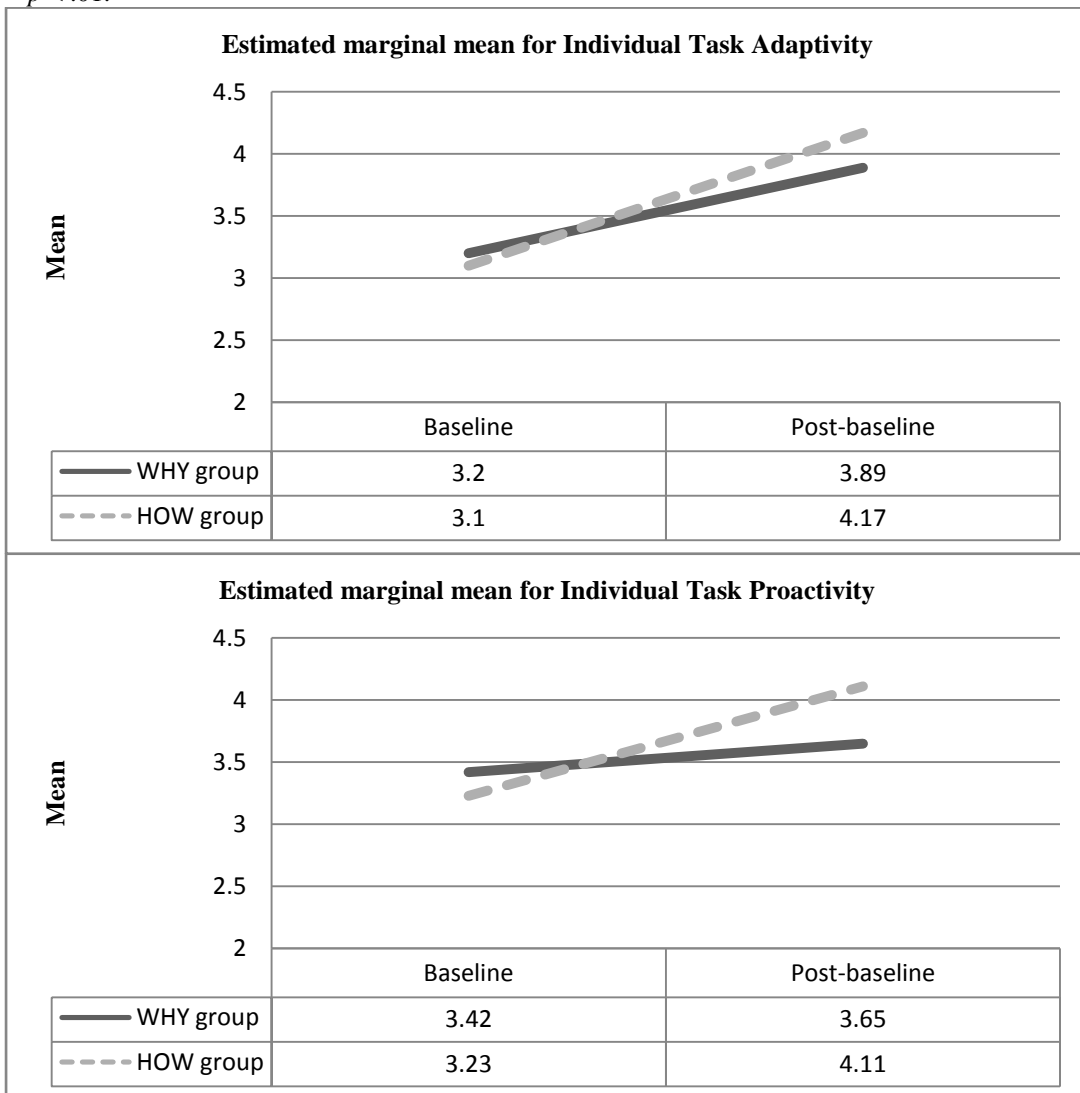
Table 36

The Intervention Using Cross-Level Interaction Model for Job Performance

Job outcome	-2*LL	Δ - 2*LL	df	Key variables	Fixed effects estimates	Fixed effects SE	Random effects variance
Individual task adaptivity	1315.66	111.89	208	Intercept	3.09**	.11	.50**
			477	Stage (time)	-0.69**	.12	
			51	Group	-0.28**	.09	
			372	stage * group	-0.38*	.15	

	1201.16	57.8				
Individual task proactivity	169		Intercept	2.42**	.11	.55**
	492		Stage	-0.22*	.11	
	48		Group	0.46**	.11	
	370		stage * group	-0.65**	.14	
	1086.30	381.66				
General job performance	201		Intercept	4.85**	.10	.62**
	693		Stage	-1.52*	.10	
	111		Group	0.28**	.09	
	582		stage * group	-0.63**	.13	

Note. Models are random intercept. SE = standard error; LL = log likelihood; df = degree of freedom. Individual task adaptivity ($N=755$), individual task proactivity ($N=758$), general job performance ($N=756$). * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.



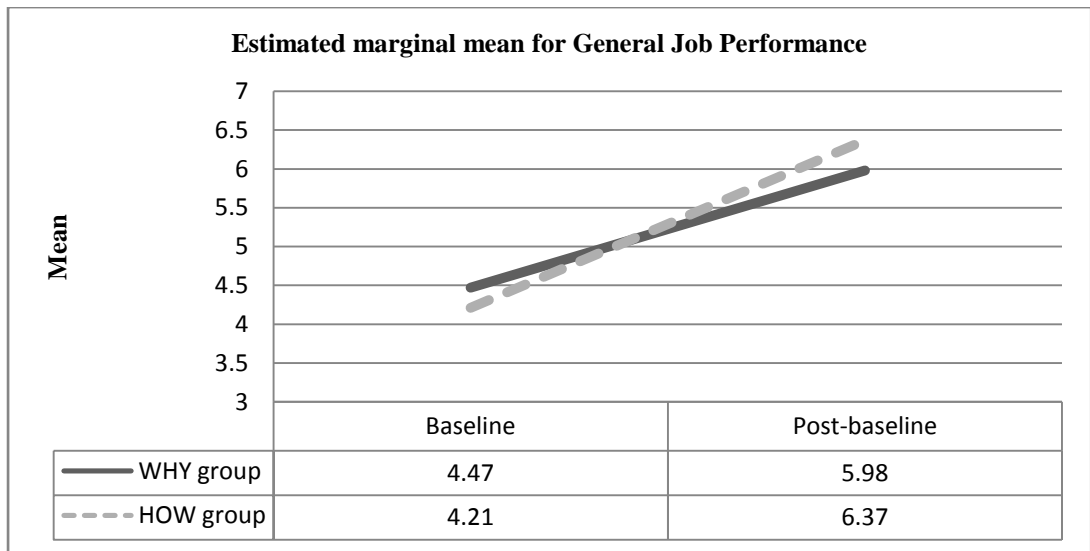


Figure 40 The Estimated Marginal Means for Job Performance by Condition and Time.

Hypotheses 12a and 14a

To test hypothesis 12a, that there will be a positive impact of high/low construal levels on work relationships, four relationships measures were assessed; organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), relationship with supervisor (RWS), relationship with donors (RWD), and job reputation (REP). Table 37 shows that the construals had significantly affected, over and above the general growth, OCB (fixed estimate = .58, $SE = .12$, $p < .01$), the RWS (fixed estimate = .34, $SE = .14$, $p < .05$), and REP (fixed estimate = .88, $SE = .24$, $p < .01$) over the study period. However, no significant effect was found on the RWD (fixed estimate = .19, $SE = .18$, *ns*). In general, hypothesis 12a has been partly supported in which three relationship factors were affected by the interventions.

Although both groups showed significant increases during the intervention, the “why” group showed higher means in all work relationship factors (OCB: $M = 4.45$; RWD: $M = 6.15$; REP: $M = 7.81$) compared to the “how” group (OCB: $M = 4.09$; RWD: $M = 5.51$; REP: $M = 6.93$, all $ps < .01$) (see Figure 41). It should be noted that no significant difference between the two groups was found on RWS during the intervention, baseline (why group: $M = 3.88$; how group: $M = 3.95$) and post-baseline (why group: $M = 4.55$; how group: $M = 4.27$,

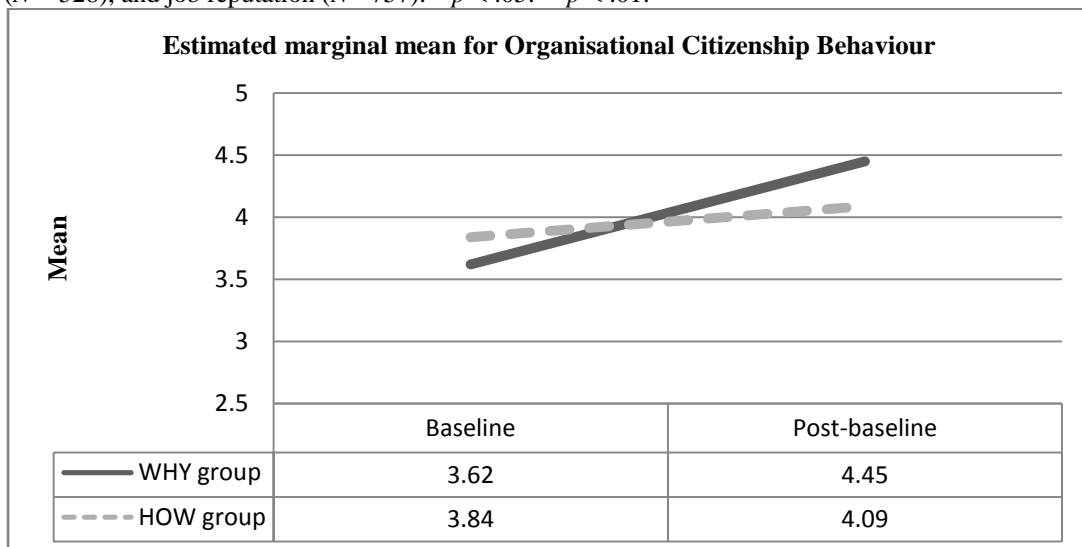
ns). Thus, the significant interaction for RWS is due to the significantly larger improvement for the why group ($M_{diff} = 0.67$) compared to the how group ($M_{diff} = 0.32$). In sum, the results support research hypothesis 14a with the exception of the relationship with donors.

Table 37

The Intervention Using Cross-Level Interaction Model for Work Relationships

Job outcome	-2*LL	Δ - 2*LL	df	Key variables	Fixed effects estimates	Fixed effects SE	Random effects variance
Organisational citizenship behaviour	1077.76	57.1					
			114	Intercept	3.80**	.12	.55**
			505	Stage	-.82**	.10	
			45	Group	-.36**	.13	
		377	stage * group	.58**	.12		
Relationship with supervisor	1182.57	32.47					
			94	Intercept	4.14**	.14	.58**
			514	Stage	-.66**	.10	
			42	Group	-.28	.16	
		377	stage * group	.34*	.14		
Job Reputation	2144.96	25.97					
			118	Intercept	7.27**	.22	.42**
			448	Stage	-.91**	.19	
			47	Group	-.88**	.24	
		352	Stage * group	.88**	.24		
Relationship with donors	913.35	23.64					
			93	Intercept	5.30**	.18	.44**
			399	Stage	-.58**	.13	
			35	Group	-.64**	.20	
		276	stage * group	.19	.18		

Note. Models are random intercept. SE = standard error; LL = log likelihood; df = degree of freedom. Organisational citizenship behaviour ($N=757$), relationship with supervisor ($N=756$), relationship with donors ($N=528$), and job reputation ($N=757$). * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.



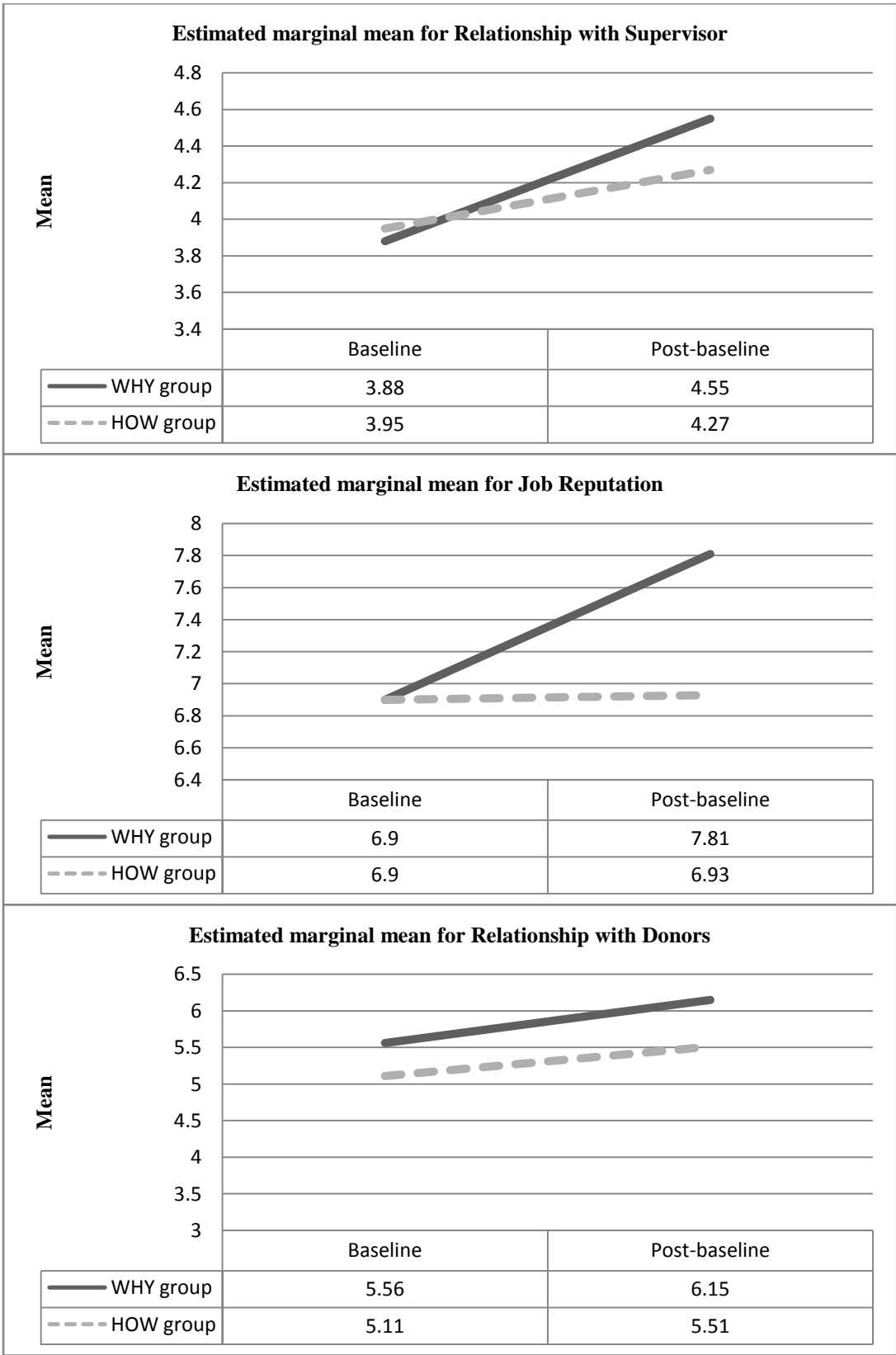


Figure 41 The Estimated Marginal Means for Work Relationships by Condition and Time.

Hypotheses 13a and 14c

Six well-being measures were used to test hypothesis 13a; job satisfaction scale (JSS), anxiety, comfort, depression, enthusiasm, and emotional exhaustion (EE). Table 38 shows that construal levels had significantly affected, over and above the general growth, job satisfaction (fixed estimate = .93, $SE = .24$, $p < .01$), anxiety (fixed estimate = -.61, $SE = .17$, $p < .01$), depression (fixed estimate = -.39, $SE = .11$, $p < .01$), and enthusiasm (fixed estimate = -.47, $SE = .13$, $p < .01$) over the study period. However, no significant influence was observed for comfort (fixed estimate = .42, $SE = .23$, ns) or emotional exhaustion (fixed estimate = .18, $SE = .18$, ns). Thus, four well-being at work factors (e.g., job satisfaction, anxiety, depression, and enthusiasm) have supported the hypothesis 13a.

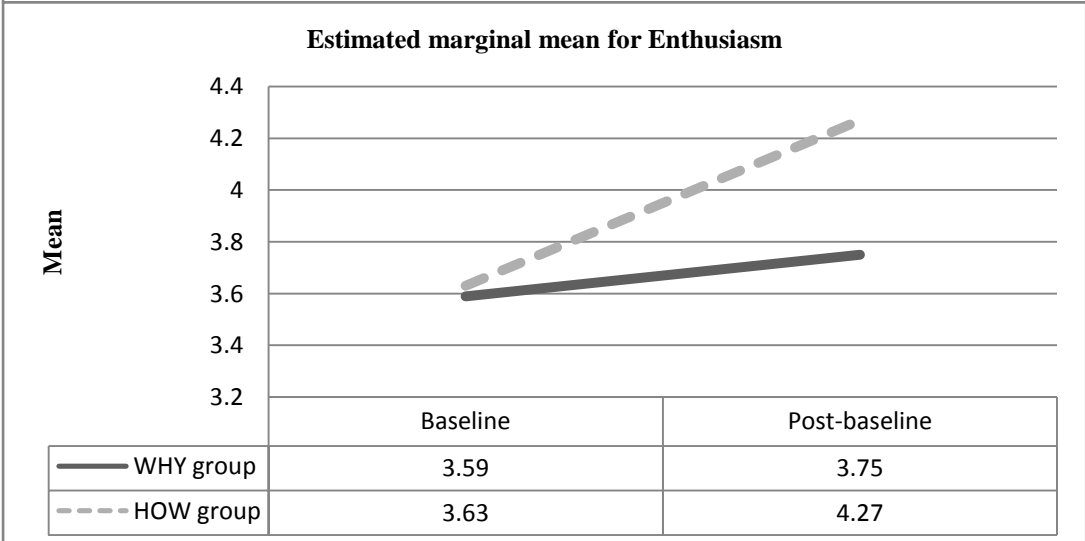
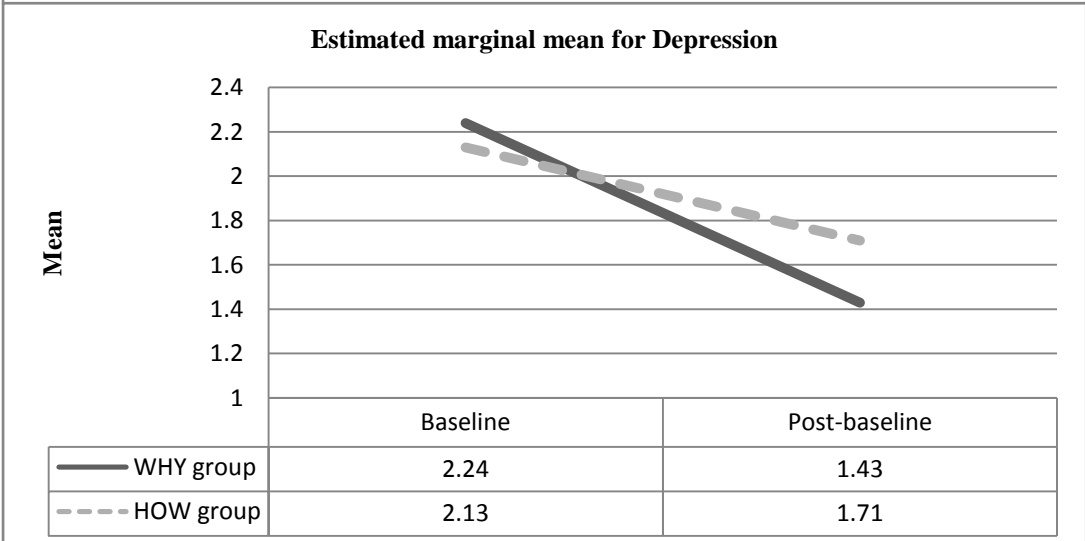
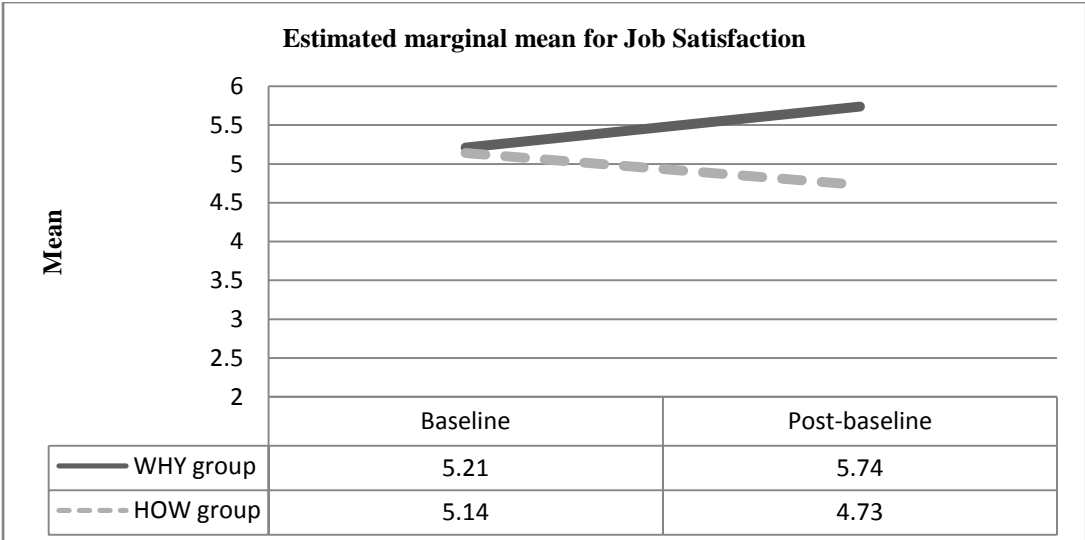
Figure 42 shows that job satisfaction for the “why” group ($M = 5.74$) increased during the intervention, whereas it decreased for the “how” group ($M = 4.73$, $p < .01$). Also, the “why” group ($M = 1.43$) showed reduced depression levels during the intervention, as well the “how” group ($M = 1.71$, $p < .01$). The results also suggested that the “how” group ($M = 4.27$) were more enthusiastic than the “why” group during the intervention ($M = 3.75$, $p < .01$). It should be noted that the “why” group ($M = 1.78$) showed reduced anxiety levels while the “how” group ($M = 2.29$, $p < .01$) showed increased anxiety levels during the intervention. No significant differences were found between the two groups for comfort (“why” group: $M = 3.45$; “how” group: $M = 3.31$, ns), and emotional exhaustion (“why” group: $M = 2.49$; “how” group: $M = 1.68$, ns) during the intervention. In conclusion, the results suggested that hypothesis 14c is partly supported by showing that the “why” group had higher well-being at work, i.e., higher job satisfaction, lower depression and anxiety compared to the “how” group. However, it should be noted that the “how” group are more enthusiastic than the “why” group (see Figure 42).

Table 38

The Intervention Using Cross-Level Interaction Model for Well-Being at Work

Job outcome	-2*LL	Δ - 2*LL	df	Key variables	Fixed effects estimates	Fixed effects SE	Random effects variance
Job satisfaction	2098.63	15.27					
			70	Intercept	5.68**	.30	.49**
			453	Stage	-.53**	.19	
			44	Group	-1.01**	.39	
		344	stage * group	.93**	.24		
Anxiety	1693.67	13.32					
			80	Intercept	2.12**	.19	.43**
			420	Stage	.07	.13	
			45	Group	.51*	.23	
		331	stage * group	-.61**	.17		
Depression	825.70	81.35					
			175	Intercept	2.06**	.09	.64**
			578	Stage	.81**	.08	
			49	Group	.28**	.09	
		446	stage * group	-.39**	.11		
Enthusiasm	1138.16	34.95					
			120	Intercept	2.86**	.12	.59**
			509	Stage	-.16*	.10	
			44	Group	.51**	.14	
		376	stage * group	-.47**	.13		
Comfort	2289.81	.50					
			136	Intercept	4.17**	.19	.25**
			367	Stage	-.40*	.19	
			46	Group	-.13	.20	
		311	stage * group	.42	.23		
Emotional exhaustion	1850.31	4.23					
			67	Intercept	4.68**	.22	.29**
			376	Stage	-.01	.14	
			43	Group	-.81**	.28	
		315	stage * group	.18	.18		

Note. Models are random intercept. SE = standard error; LL = log likelihood; df = degree of freedom. job satisfaction ($N=747$), anxiety ($N=757$), depression ($N=758$), enthusiasm ($N=758$), comfort ($N=755$), and emotional exhaustion ($N=747$). * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.



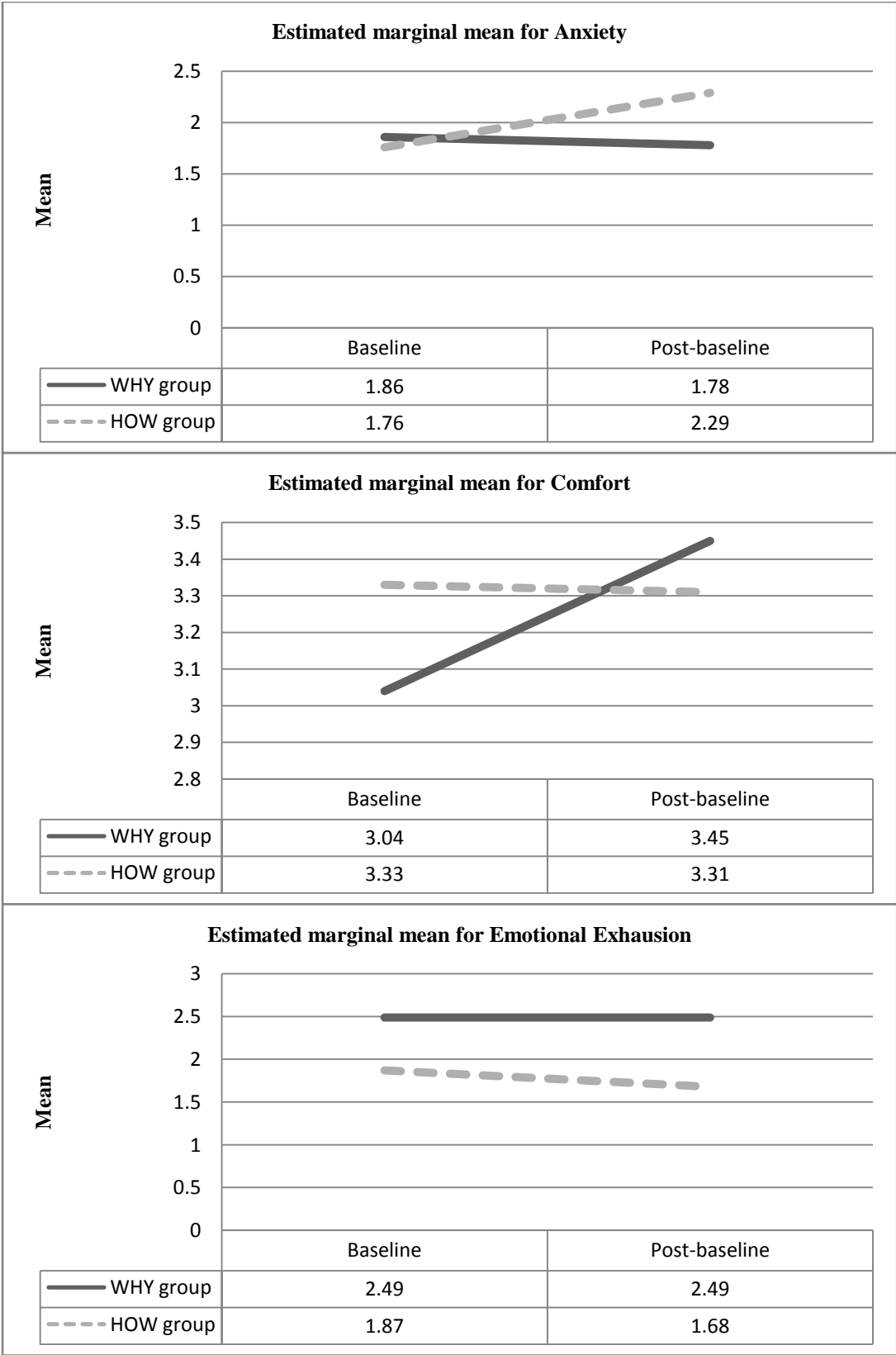


Figure 42 The Estimated Marginal Means for Well-Being at Work by Condition and Time.

The Mediation Model

The mediation analyses followed the same procedures that were used in Chapter 4. For example, the lower level mediation model was assessed using Bauer's method (2006). After that, Mathiowetz and Bauer (2008) instructions and syntax file for assessing the lower mediation effect were adopted. Finally, confident intervals were calculated using the Monte Carlo (MC) approach (i.e., using website).

Hypothesis 11b

Based on the previous procedures, Table 39 suggests that all emotion regulation strategies have only a partial mediation effect on the association between the interventions and job performance factors. In particular, IIS, EIS, IWS, and EWS accounted for 34%, 48%, 42%, and 43% respectively of the relationship between the interventions and individual task adaptivity, IIS = .34 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [.18, .50]; EIS = .48 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [.29, .67]; IWS = -.42 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [-.63, -.21]; EWS = .43 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [.23, .62]. Regarding individual task proactivity, all emotion regulation factors showed significant partial mediation effect and accounted for 76%, 14%, 59%, 10% respectively of the relationship between the interventions and ITP, IIS = .76 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [.52, .99]; EIS = .14 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [.03, .25]; IWS = .59 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [.38, .79]; EWS = .10 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [.01, .21]. Finally, the findings were also consistent when assessing the mediation effect on general job performance, IIS = .75 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [.53, .97]; EIS = .69 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [.50, .88]; IWS = .68 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [.45, .91]; EWS = .55 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [.32, .78]. In support of hypothesis 11b, it seems that all emotion regulation factors have only a partial mediation effect on job performance factors.

Table 39

The Mediation Effect for Job Performance

Outcome	Mediators	<i>a</i> path		<i>b</i> path		Total direct effect (95% CI)		Total indirect effect (95% CI)			
		Effect	SE	Effect	SE	Effect	SE	Effect	SE	LL	UL
ITA	IIS	1.61**	.11	.22**	.05	1.57**	.11	.34**	.08	.185	.50
	EIS	1.52**	.11	.30**	.05	1.38**	.12	.48**	.09	.29	.67
	IWS	-1.26**	.10	.45**	.07	.66**	.10	-.42**	.10	-.63	-.21
	EWS	-1.18**	.09	-.34**	.07	1.66**	.11	.43**	.09	.23	.62
ITP	IIS	1.58**	.11	.44**	.06	1.54**	.12	.76**	.11	.52	.99
	EIS	.14**	.10	.51**	.06	.60*	.17	.14**	.05	.03	.25
	IWS	-1.26**	.11	-.47**	.07	1.63**	.09	.59**	.10	.38	.79
	EWS	-.12**	.09	-.61**	.06	.97**	.11	.10**	.06	.01	.21
GJP	IIS	1.55**	.11	.43**	.05	2.80**	.13	.75**	.11	.53	.97
	EIS	1.48**	.10	.48**	.05	2.64**	.12	.69**	.22	.50	.88
	IWS	-1.31**	.11	-.59**	.07	2.88**	.11	.68**	.12	.45	.91
	EWS	-1.23**	.09	-.47**	.08	2.89**	.11	.55**	.11	.32	.78

Note: Confidence intervals for indirect effect are based on the Monte Carlo method (available at <http://www.quantpsy.org>); CI= confidence interval; SE= standard error; IIS = Intrinsic Improving Strategies, EIS = Extrinsic Improving Strategies, IWS = Intrinsic Worsening Strategies, EWS = Extrinsic Worsening Strategies, GJP = General Job Performance, ITA = Individual Task Adaptivity, ITP = Individual Task Proactivity. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Hypothesis 13b

Hypothesis 12b proposed that emotion regulation would mediate the relationship between interventions and work relationships. The results supported this hypothesis and showed that all emotion regulation factors have a significant partial mediation effect on two relationship factors (i.e., organizational citizenship behaviour “OCB” and relationship with donors “RWD”), OCB: IIS = 3.69 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [3.30, 4.07]; EIS = .25 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [.10, .40]; IWS = .38 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [.19, .56]; EWS = .35 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [.21, .50]; RWD: IIS = .55 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [.27, .83]; EIS = .54 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [.30, .78]; IWS =

.51 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [.29, .73]; EWS = .57 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [.28, .86]. In addition, Table 40 illustrates that three significant mediation effects were found when assessing the relationship with supervisor, IIS = .22 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [.07, .36]; EIS = .12 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [.001, .25]; EWS = 2.26 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [1.85, 2.66]. Finally, only IIS was found to have a mediation effect on job reputation and accounted for 34% of the relationship, IIS = .34 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [.10, .58].

In support of hypothesis 12b, it seems that organizational citizenship behaviour and the relationship with supervisor were the outcomes most affected by the mediation effect (i.e., all emotion regulation factors have mediation effect). However, it seems that only intrinsic improving regulation strategies have a mediation effect on job reputation. In general, the findings support hypothesis 12b.

Table 40

The Mediation Effect for Work Relationships

Outcome	Mediators	<i>a</i> path		<i>b</i> path		Total direct effect (95% CI)		Total indirect effect (95% CI)			
		Effect	SE	Effect	SE	Effect	SE	Effect	SE	LL	UL
OCB	IIS	1.88**	.12	1.98**	.04	4.67**	.24	3.69**	.19	3.30	4.07
	EIS	1.76**	.11	.18**	.04	1.17**	.13	.25**	.07	.10	.40
	IWS	-1.01**	.11	-.34**	.08	1.15**	.12	.38**	.09	.19	.56
	EWS	-1.02**	.09	-.35**	.05	1.15**	.11	.35**	.07	.21	.50
RWS	IIS	1.74**	.12	.13**	.04	.90**	.15	.22**	.07	.07	.36
	EIS	1.57**	.11	.09*	.03	.69**	.14	.12**	.06	.001	.25
	IWS	-1.10**	.10	-.10	.05	.82**	.14	.18	.06	.04	.31
	EWS	-1.07**	.08	-2.08**	.06	2.87**	.21	2.26**	.20	1.85	2.66
RWD	IIS	1.68**	.12	.33**	.08	1.27**	.17	.55**	.14	.27	.83
	EIS	1.53**	.11	.35**	.07	1.06**	.18	.54**	.12	.30	.78
	IWS	-1.17**	.11	-.44**	.10	1.26**	.17	.51**	.11	.29	.73

	EWS	-1.14**	.09	-.51**	.11	1.28**	.15	.57**	.14	.28	.86
RE	IIS	1.68**	.12	.20**	.07	.90**	.21	.34**	.12	.10	.58
	EIS	1.54**	.11	.16	.09	.79*	.22	.24	.14	-.03	.52
	IWS	-1.16**	.11	-.14	.10	.93**	.20	.25	.12	.02	.49
	EWS	-1.13**	.09	-.11	.12	.95**	.19	.14	.14	-.12	.42

Note: Confidence intervals for indirect effect are based on the Monte Carlo method (available at <http://www.quantpsy.org>); CI= confidence interval; SE= standard error; IIS = Intrinsic Improving Strategies, EIS = Extrinsic Improving Strategies, IWS = Intrinsic Worsening Strategies, EWS = Extrinsic Worsening Strategies, OCB = Organisational Citizenship Behaviour, RWD = Relationship with Donors, RE = Job Reputation, RWS = Relation with Supervisor. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Hypothesis 13b

Hypothesis 13b proposed that there will be a mediation effect of emotion regulation on the relationship between high/low construal levels interventions and well-being at work. The results showed that four of six well-being factors have been mediated by emotion regulation. In particular, IIS, EIS, IWS, and EWS have a partial mediation effect and accounted for 40%, 46%, 47%, and 42% respectively of the relationship between the interventions and depression, IIS = .40 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [-.60, -.29]; EIS = -.46 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [-.60, -.33]; IWS = -.47 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [-.62, -.31]; EWS = -.42 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [-.57, -.27]. While IIS showed a full mediation effect on enthusiasm, IIS = .27 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [.16, .39], worsening strategies showed a partial mediation effect on enthusiasm, IWS = .61 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [.40, .83]; EWS = .69 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [.49, .89]. Regarding feeling anxious, IIS, EIS, and EWS showed a full mediation effect and accounted for 5%, 24%, 36% respectively of this relationship. Finally, a full mediation effect was obtained when assessing feeling comfortable for three emotion regulation strategies, IIS = -.54 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [-.80, -.28]; EIS = -.47 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [-.73, -.22]; IWS = -.31 ($p < .01$), 95% CI [.004, .63]. Thus, no mediation effect was obtained when assessing job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion. In general, the results support the mediation effect of emotion regulation since four of six well-being factors have been affected (see Table 41).

Table 41

The Mediation Effect for Work Relationships

Outcome	Mediators	<i>a</i> path		<i>b</i> path		Total direct effect (95% CI)		Total indirect effect (95% CI)			
		Effect	SE	Effect	SE	Effect	SE	Effect	SE	LL	UL
JS	IIS	1.73	.12	.06	.05	-.12	.28	-.0002	.54	-.10	.10
	EIS	1.51	.12	-.007	.04	-.27	.288	-.01	.10	-.22	.20
	IWS	-1.10	.11	-.09	.06	-.10	.26	.09	.07	-.06	.24
	EWS	-1.09	.09	.07	.08	-.04	.26	-.07	.18	-.24	.10
DEPR	IIS	1.54**	.12	-.29**	.04	-1.40**	.12	-.40**	.07	-.60	-.29
	EIS	1.41**	.12	-.34**	.04	-1.52**	.10	-.46**	.06	-.60	-.33
	IWS	-1.18**	.09	.37**	.05	-1.52**	.10	-.47**	.07	-.62	-.31
	EWS	-1.17**	.07	.35**	.12	-1.51**	.10	-.42**	.76	-.57	-.27
ENTH	IIS	.55**	.11	.39**	.05	.59	.12	.27**	.59	.16	.39
	EIS	1.58**	.10	.40	.05	.85	.12	.60	.07	.45	.75
	IWS	-1.27**	.11	-.49**	.06	1.09**	.10	.61**	.10	.40	.83
	EWS	-1.26**	.08	-.44**	.06	1.15**	.10	.69**	.10	.49	.89
ANX	IIS	1.61**	.13	-.16*	.06	.09	.17	-.05**	.10	.25	.14
	EIS	1.38**	.11	-.20**	.05	-.32	.16	-.24**	.06	-.36	-.12
	IWS	-1.21**	.10	.14	.08	-.30	.16	-.25	.10	-.45	-.55
	EWS	-1.18**	.09	.33**	.08	-.29	.17	-.36**	.11	-.58	-.14
COM	IIS	1.79**	.13	-.31**	.07	-.53	.19	-.54**	.13	-.80	-.28
	EIS	1.55**	.12	-.28**	.07	-.71	.19	-.47**	.12	-.73	-.22
	IWS	-1.09**	.11	.28**	.09	-.64	.23	-.31**	.16	.004	.63
	EWS	-.10**	.10	.12	.11	-.43	.19	-.04	.02	-.08	.0002
EE	IIS	1.74**	.13	-.08	.03	-.23	.15	-.12	.05	-.23	-.01
	EIS	1.59**	.11	-.04	.04	-.38*	.15	-.04	.07	-.18	.09
	IWS	-.11**	.11	.08	.06	-.28	.16	-.04	.01	-.07	-.02
	EWS	-.19**	.09	.01	.06	-.31	.17	.01	.009	-.004	.03

Note: Confidence intervals for indirect effect are based on the Monte Carlo method (available at <http://www.quantpsy.org>); CI= confidence interval; SE= standard error; IIS = Intrinsic Improving Strategies,

EIS = Extrinsic Improving Strategies, IWS = Intrinsic Worsening Strategies, EWS = Extrinsic Worsening Strategies, EE = Emotional Exhaustion, ANX = Anxiety, DEPR = Depression, ENTH = Enthusiasm, COMF = Comfort, JS= Job Satisfaction. * p < .05. ** p < .01.

Results: Section 2

Descriptive Analysis

A descriptive analysis was conducted to assess the distribution, means, and standard deviations of the variables included in the pre-post and follow-up questionnaires. It should be noted that two factors had been included in section 2: organisational commitment (AC) and standard evaluation form of job performance (SEJP). This form is used by the Ministry of Social Affairs and Labour in Kuwait as a standard job evaluation for charitable organisations. These two factors had not been included in the daily diary to keep the diary short. Also, it is not appropriate to measure the organisational commitment on a daily basis. Table 42 shows the means and standard deviations for the pre-post and follow-up questionnaires.

Table 42

Means and Standard Deviations for the Pre-Post and Follow-Up Questionnaires

Time		IIS	EIS	IWS	EWS	ITA	ITP	SEJP	GJP	OCB	RWS
Pre-questionnaire	Mean	3.63	4.05	1.71	1.62	3.96	3.80	6.08	5.50	3.68	3.97
	SD	.55	.58	.73	.74	.65	.63	.63	.87	.36	.56
Post-questionnaire (1 month later)	Mean	4.03	4.26	1.41	1.37	4.47	4.30	6.39	5.82	3.95	4.23
	SD	.44	.51	.52	.51	.48	.50	.51	.83	.39	.52
Follow-up questionnaire (8 months later)	Mean	4.67	4.60	1.24	1.23	4.69	4.61	6.61	6.13	4.17	4.46
	SD	.32	.44	.36	.40	.42	.44	.42	.88	.49	.51
Time		RWD	RE	AC	JSS	ANX	DEPR	COMF	ENTH	EE	-
Pre-questionnaire	Mean	4.54	7.61	5.70	4.95	2.20	1.82	3.37	3.90	2.98	-
	SD	1.28	.97	.92	.125	.94	.92	.70	.85	1.16	-
Post-	Mean	5.22	7.98	6.18	5.09	2.11	1.71	3.73	4.09	2.81	-

questionnaire	SD	1.25	.83	.93	.117	.91	.86	.70	.87	1.10	-
(1 month later)											
Follow-up	Mean	5.54	8.24	6.44	4.82	1.99	1.50	4.07	4.28	2.63	-
questionnaire	SD	1.19	.75	.79	.97	.86	.68	.69	.65	1.15	-
(8 months later)											

Note: IIS = Intrinsic Improving Strategies, EIS = Extrinsic Improving Strategies, IWS = Intrinsic Worsening Strategies, EWS = Extrinsic Worsening Strategies, OCB = Organisational Citizenship Behaviour, RWD = Relationship with Donors, RE = Job Reputation, RWS = Relation with Supervisor, JSS = Job Satisfaction, EE = Emotional Exhaustion, ANX = Anxiety, DEPR = Depression, ENTH = Enthusiasm, COMF = Comfort, GJP = General Job Performance, ITA = Individual Task Adaptivity, ITP = Individual Task Proactivity, SEJP = Standard Evaluation Form of Job Performance, AC = Affective Commitment.

Repeated Measures ANOVA

To estimate the influence of high/low levels of construal on emotion regulation and job outcomes over one month and then after 8 months, and to measure whether there were significant differences between the two groups, a series of 2-between (condition) x 3-within (time) *Analyses of Variance* (ANOVAs) was conducted. Table 43 shows that there were main effects of time on most variables. Most important, however, the interaction between condition and time proved significant for all of the dependent variables except three outcomes: job satisfaction ($F(2, 43) = .01$), anxiety ($F(2, 43) = 1.91$), and emotional exhaustion ($F(2, 43) = .74$, all ps, ns). The following paragraphs will take a closer look at each interaction between condition and time (simple effects analyses).

Table 43

Repeated Measure ANOVA: Tests of Between and Within-Subjects Effects

Variable	Condition (group)		Time (1,2, and 3)		Condition × Time	
	<i>F</i>	η^2	<i>F</i>	η^2	<i>F</i>	η^2
IIS	.77	.02	206.64**	.83	6.03*	.12
EIS	.75	.39	119.97**	.74	19.19**	.32
IWS	3.77	.08	28.79**	.41	5.16*	.11
EWS	1.05	.02	20.54**	.33	5.51*	.11
ITA	2.10	.04	71.30**	.62	11.10**	.21
ITP	2.08	.04	87.89**	.67	7.48**	.15

SEJP	3.30	.07	165.93**	.79	10.57**	.20
GJP	6.47*	.13	95.73**	.69	20.73**	.32
OCB	6.75*	.14	185.10**	.81	57.82**	.58
RWS	3.66	.08	91.71**	.68	62.91**	.60
RWD	3.79	.12	87.27**	.77	35.99**	.58
REP	4.28*	.10	73.91**	.66	13.78**	.26
AC	.18	.01	64.40**	.61	20.16**	.33
JSS	1.31	.03	.66	.01	.01	.01
ANX	.01	.01	20.78**	.33	1.91	.04
DEPR	.19	.01	30.23**	.42	15.75**	.27
COMF	.06	.01	95.88**	.70	19.17**	.32
ENTH	.32	.01	62.19**	.60	7.39**	.15
EE	.81	.02	1.64	.04	.74	.02

Note: IIS = Intrinsic Improving Strategies, EIS = Extrinsic Improving Strategies, IWS = Intrinsic Worsening Strategies, EWS = Extrinsic Worsening Strategies, OCB = Organisational Citizenship Behaviour, RWD = Relationship with Donors, RE = Job Reputation, RWS = Relation with Supervisor, JSS = Job Satisfaction, EE = Emotional Exhaustion, ANX = Anxiety, DEPR = Depression, ENTH = Enthusiasm, COMF = Comfort, GJP = General Job Performance, ITA = Individual Task Adaptivity, ITP = Individual Task Proactivity, SEJP = Standard Evaluation Form of Job Performance, AC = Affective Commitment. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

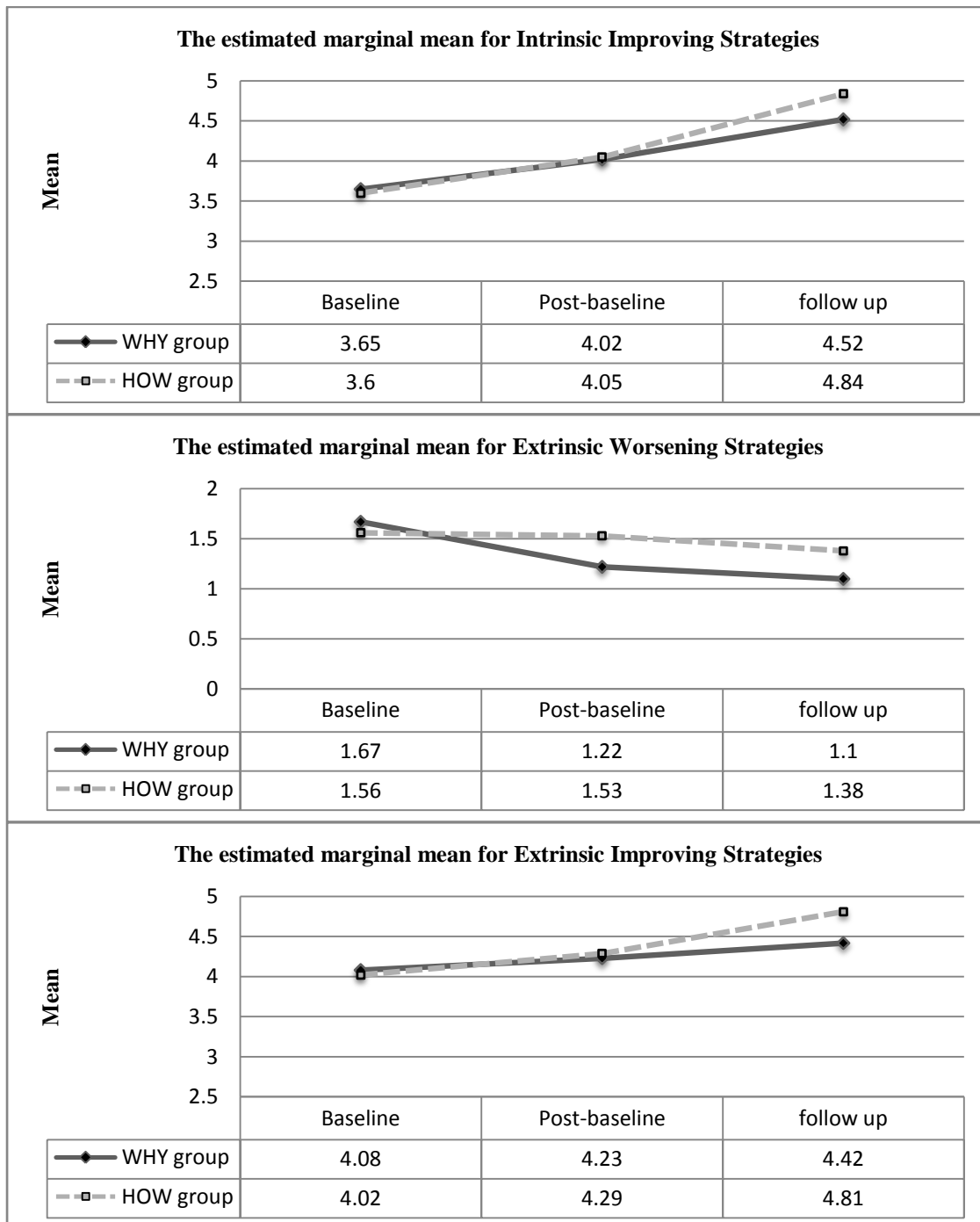
Emotion regulation Strategies

Next I examined whether the previous effects differed for the two groups at each level of time? The results showed that there was no significant difference between the two groups for all emotion regulation factors at baseline. However, a significant difference was found within a short-term (one month) for negative emotion regulation only. The “why” group (IWS: $M = 1.26$; EWS: $M = 1.22$) used less negative emotion regulation strategies than the “how” group (IWS: $M = 1.60$; EWS: $M = 1.53$, both $ps < .05$). Within the long-term (8 months), significant differences were also found between the two groups on all emotion regulation factors. Figure 43 shows that the “how” group (IIS: $M = 4.84$; EIS: $M = 4.81$) used more improving regulation strategies than the “why” group (IIS: $M = 4.52$; EIS: $M = 4.42$, both $ps < .01$), while the “why” group (IWS: $M = .94$; EWS: $M = 1.10$) used less worsening regulation strategies than the “how” group (IWS: $M = 1.43$; EWS: $M = 1.38$, both $ps < .01$).

The impact of time within each group was analysed in three ways: the effect of baseline vs. post-baseline period, the effect of post-baseline vs. follow-up period, and the effect of baseline vs. follow-up period. At the first period, both groups used significantly more improving regulation strategies after one month; the “how” group: IIS ($F(1, 19) = 73.28$), EIS ($F(1, 19) = 18.06$, both $ps < .01$); the “why” group: IIS ($F(1, 22) = 27.79$), EIS ($F(1, 22) = 31.16$, both $ps < .01$). In addition, both groups used significantly less intrinsic worsening emotion regulation strategies during this period; the “how” group ($F(1, 19) = 16.76$); the “why” group ($F(1, 22) = 10.65$, $p < .01$). No significant effect from this period was found on extrinsic worsening emotion regulation strategies. Second, when assessing the effect of post-baseline vs. follow-up period, both groups showed increase in their use of improving emotion regulation strategies; the “how” group: IIS ($F(1, 19) = 97.52$), EIS ($F(1, 19) = 59.41$, both $ps < .01$); the “why” group: IIS ($F(1, 22) = 44.75$), EIS ($F(1, 22) = 30.48$, both $ps < .01$). In relation to the worsening emotion regulation, both groups also showed significant reduction in their use of worsening emotion regulation; the “how” group: IWS ($F(1, 19) = 17.67$), EWS ($F(1, 19) = 19.95$, both $ps < .01$); the “why” group: IWS ($F(1, 22) = 8.10$), EWS ($F(1, 22) = 8.65$, both $ps < .01$). Finally, regarding the baseline vs. follow-up period, both groups also showed a significantly higher increase after 8 months; the “how” group: IIS ($F(1, 19) = 141.39$), EIS ($F(1, 19) = 74.65$, both $ps < .01$); the “why” group: IIS ($F(1, 22) = 72.38$), EIS ($F(1, 22) = 39.21$, both $ps < .01$). Also, the use of worsening emotion regulation strategies was reduced over the first month and even lower reduction was found after 8 months; the “how” group: IWS ($F(1, 19) = 19.56$), EWS ($F(1, 19) = 24.15$, both $ps < .01$); the “why” group: IWS ($F(1, 22) = 18.82$), EWS ($F(1, 22) = 14.26$, both $ps < .01$).

These findings suggest that although the usage of emotion regulation was enhanced after one month and even more after 8 months, the significant differences between the two groups in the improving emotion regulation strategies were more apparent over time. Figure

43 shows the estimated marginal means for the baseline (before the intervention), the post-baseline (after the intervention), and the follow-up (after 8 months).



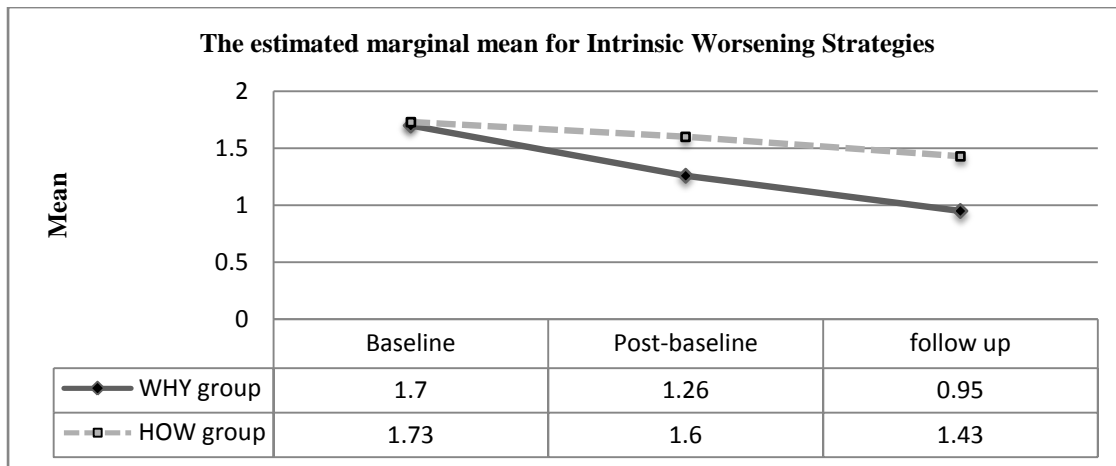


Figure 43 The Estimated Marginal Means for Emotion Regulation Strategies.

The Effect of High/Low levels of Construal on the Job Outcomes

Hypotheses 11a and 14b

Hypothesis 11a proposed that construal levels intervention will positively influence job performance. This hypothesis was supported by significant interactions between condition and time for individual task adaptivity (ITA) ($F(2, 43) = 11.10$), individual task proactivity (ITP) ($F(2, 43) = 7.48$), standard evaluation form of job performance (SEJP) ($F(2, 43) = 10.57$), and general job performance (GJP) ($F(2, 43) = 20.73$, all $ps < .01$).

Figure 44 indicates that no significant difference was found between the two groups before the intervention. However, significant differences between the two groups were found after the intervention and even more so after 8 months. In particular, the “how” group showed a greater increase in their job performance than the “why” group after the intervention. For example, although the job performance in both groups was increased after the intervention, the “how” group showed a larger increase in ITA ($M = 4.73$), ITP ($M = 4.62$), SEJP ($M = 7.23$), and GJP ($M = 6.31$) than the “why” group (ITA: $M = 4.34$; ITP: $M = 4.21$; SEJP: $M = 6.77$; GJP: $M = 5.58$, all $ps < .01$). The follow-up study confirmed this finding and suggested that the “how” group showed even higher ITA ($M = 4.76$), ITP ($M = 4.71$), SEJP ($M = 7.43$),

and GJP ($M = 6.55$) than the “why” group (ITA: $M = 4.40$; ITP: $M = 4.35$; SEJP: $M = 7.02$; GJP: $M = 5.72$, all $ps < .01$). Thus, the results support hypothesis 14b.

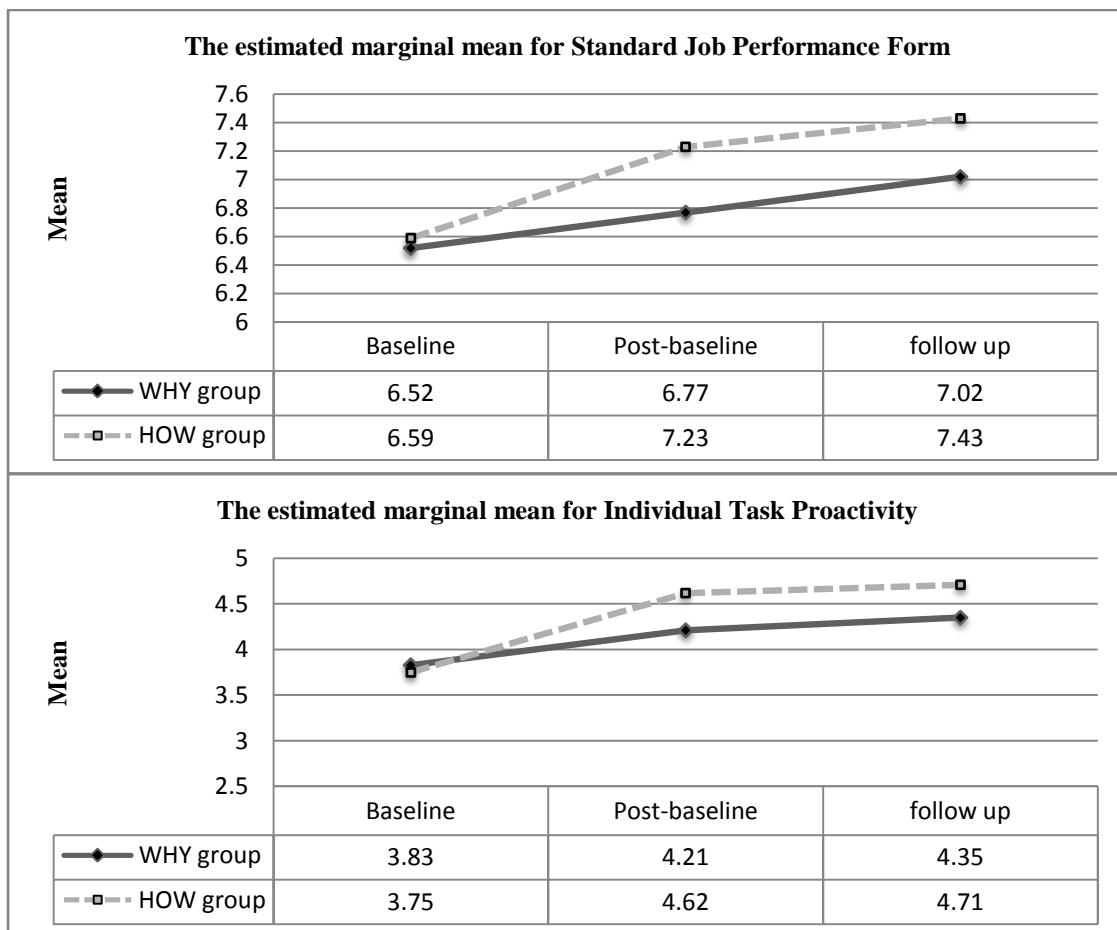
Regarding the simple effect of time within each condition, the results in the first period (baseline vs. post-baseline) showed that each group had significant improvement on all job performance factors: the “how” group: ITA ($F(1, 19) = 67.65$), ITP ($F(1, 19) = 67.70$), SEJP ($F(1, 19) = 100.12$), GJP ($F(1, 19) = 62.77$, all $ps < .01$); the “why” group: ITA ($F(1, 22) = 24.82$), ITP ($F(1, 22) = 38.32$), SEJP ($F(1, 22) = 121.13$), GJP ($F(1, 22) = 24.70$, all $ps < .01$). The second period (post-baseline vs. follow-up) indicated that there was significant improvement for all job performance factors except ITA and ITP for the “how” group: SEJP ($F(1, 19) = 19.24$), GJP ($F(1, 19) = 11.47$, both $ps < .01$); the “why” group: ITA ($F(1, 22) = 4.99$), ITP ($F(1, 22) = 8.57$), SEJP ($F(1, 22) = 19.90$), GJP ($F(1, 22) = 6.12$, all $ps < .05$). Finally, the third period (baseline vs. follow-up) illustrated that both groups showed significant improvement in all job performance factors: the “how” group: ITA ($F(1, 19) = 41.57$), ITP ($F(1, 19) = 49.21$), SEJP ($F(1, 19) = 94.84$), GJP ($F(1, 19) = 87.88$, all $ps < .01$); the “why” group: ITA ($F(1, 22) = 29.85$), ITP ($F(1, 22) = 37.65$), SEJP ($F(1, 22) = 67.85$), GJP ($F(1, 22) = 16.24$, all $ps < .01$).

In general, the results support research hypotheses 11a and 14b by showing that the construal levels enhanced all job performance factors and that a low construal level intervention enhanced job performance more so than a high construal level intervention. In addition, the influence of the intervention on the job performance factors seems to increase in the long-term.

Hypothesis 11b

To see if emotion regulation influenced these findings, improving and worsening emotion regulation strategies were added separately as covariates. It was found that the p

value for ITA was reduced when adding EROS factors but still showed a significant effect, from $p = .001$ to $p = .04$ for both the improving and worsening emotion regulation strategies. Also, the p value for ITP turned out to be non-significant when adding EROS factors, changing from $p = .01$ to $p = .14$ for the improving emotion regulation strategies, and from $p = .01$ to $p = .24$ for the worsening emotion regulation strategies. In addition, when adding the worsening emotion regulation strategies, the p value for SEJP was changed to become non-significant, i.e., from $p = .002$ to $p = .10$. Finally, the results suggested that the p value for GJP became non-significant, from $p = .001$ to $p = .22$, when adding improving emotion regulation strategies while worsening emotion regulation strategies showed no effect on GJP. This may suggest that emotion regulation strategies may partly explain the effect of the construal levels interventions on performance.



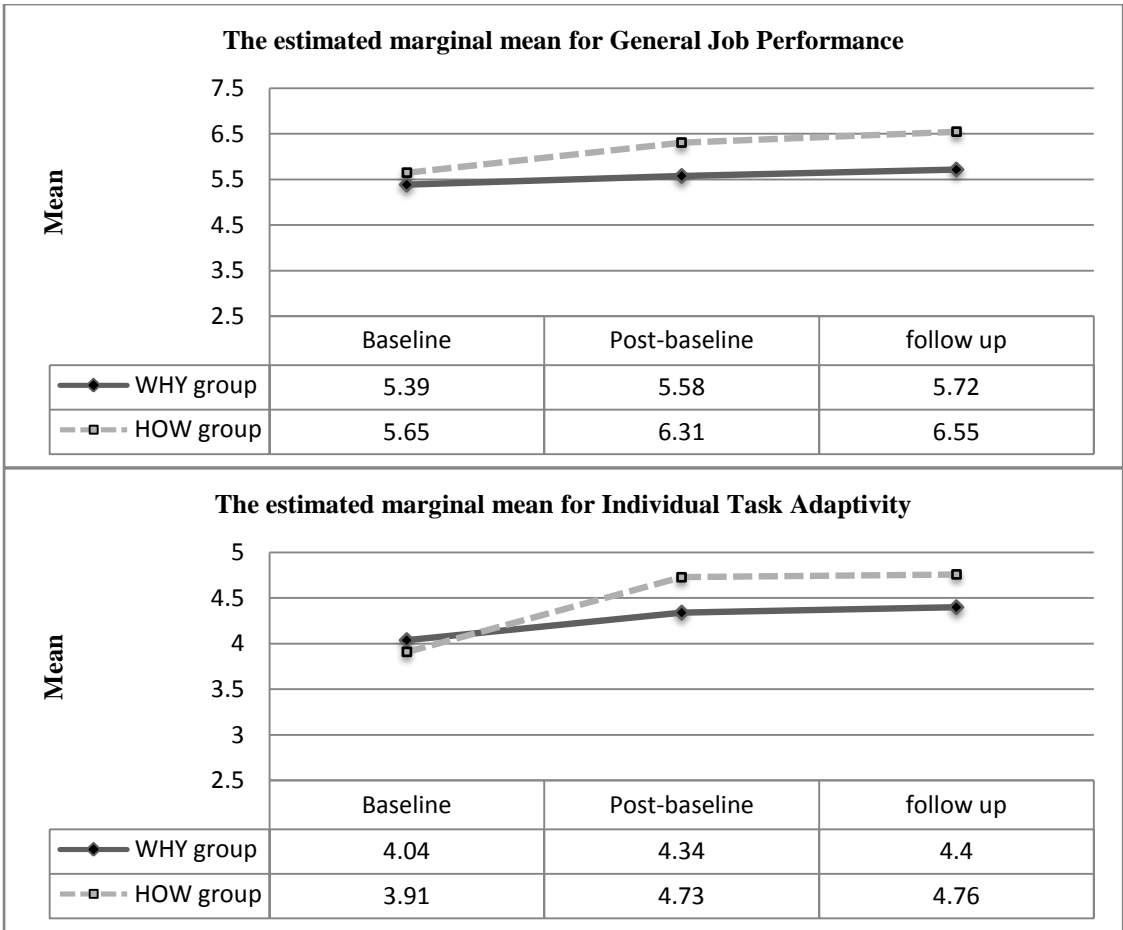


Figure 44 The Estimated Marginal Means for Job Performance.

Hypotheses 12a and 14a

Hypothesis 12a proposed that construal levels will influence positively work relationships. This hypothesis was supported by significant interaction effects; organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) ($F(2, 43) = 57.82$), relationship with supervisor (RWS) ($F(2, 43) = 62.91$), relationship with donors (RWD) ($F(2, 43) = 35.99$), and job reputation (REP) ($F(2, 43) = 13.78$, all $ps < .01$).

Tests of the simple effect of condition within each level of time showed indicated that there was no significant difference between the two groups before the intervention; however, significant differences between the two groups were found for all relationships factors except for job reputation after the intervention. The “why” group had higher OCB ($M = 4.10$), RWS

($M = 4.38$), and RWD ($M = 5.68$) than the “how” group (OCB: $M = 3.79$; RWS: $M = 4.07$; RWD: $M = 4.61$, all $ps < .05$) after one month. After eight months, although both groups showed higher mean in all relationship factors, the “why” group showed higher OCB ($M = 4.43$), RWS ($M = 4.77$), RWD ($M = 6.11$), and REP ($M = 8.55$) than the “how” group (OCB: $M = 3.89$; RWS: $M = 4.13$, RWD: $M = 4.78$, REP: $M = 8.02$, all $ps < .01$) (see Figure 45).

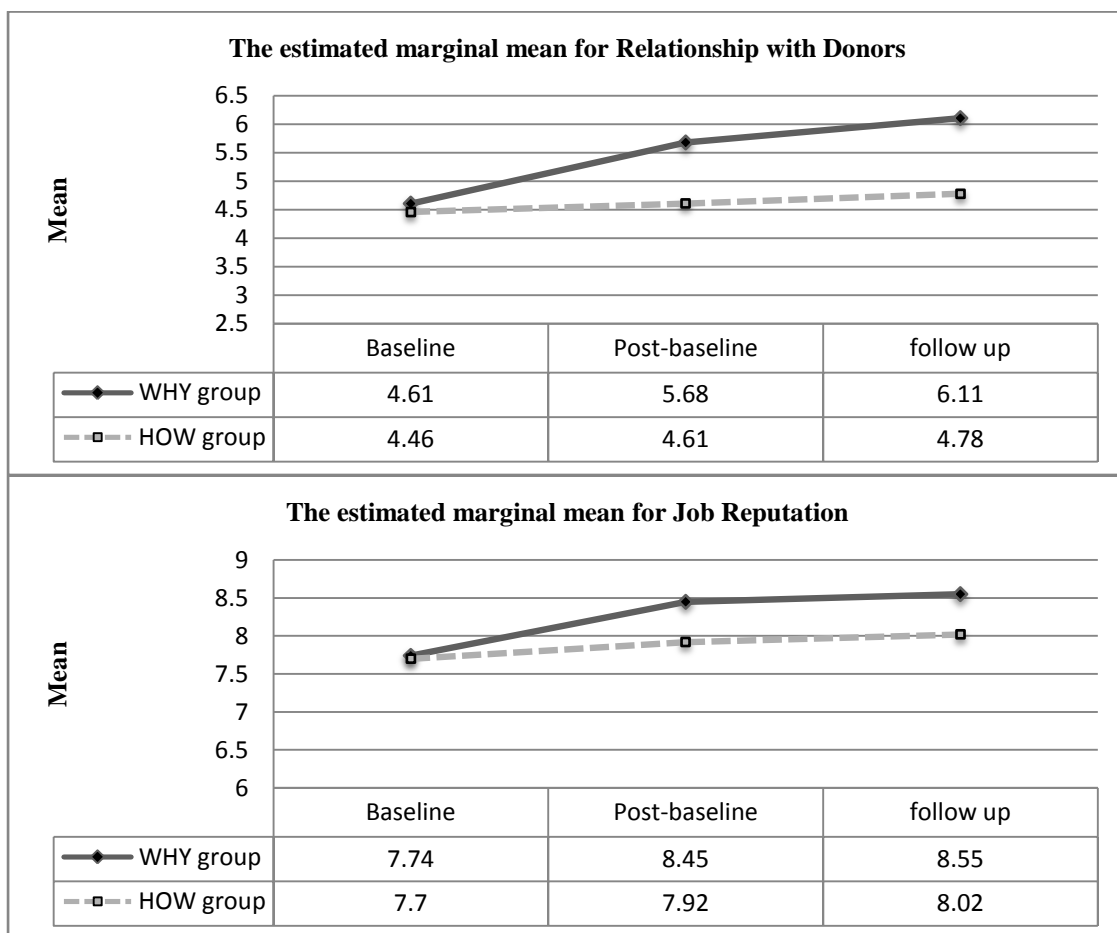
The results also showed that both groups had improvement in all relationship factors when considering the baseline vs. post-baseline period. The “how” group showed improvement in OCB ($F(1, 19) = 50.10$), RWS ($F(1, 19) = 7.09$), RWD ($F(1, 19) = 29.03$), and REP ($F(1, 19) = 16.54$, all $ps < .01$); as well as the “why” group: OCB ($F(1, 22) = 131.80$), RWS ($F(1, 22) = 64.27$), RWD ($F(1, 22) = 72.36$), and REP ($F(1, 22) = 74.14$, all $ps < .01$). When assessing the post-baseline vs. follow-up period, the results were consistent with the previous period except the effect of this period on the association between the “how” group and job reputation. The result suggested that the “how” group showed enhancement in RWD ($F(1, 19) = 7.34$, $p < .05$), OCB ($F(1, 19) = 39.53$), RWS ($F(1, 19) = 14.90$, both $ps < .01$). The “why” group showed improvement in all relationship factors in this period: OCB ($F(1, 22) = 59.66$), RWS ($F(1, 22) = 35.55$), RWD ($F(1, 22) = 32.28$, all $ps < .01$), and REP ($F(1, 22) = 5.43$, $p < .05$). Finally, both groups showed increase in their relationship factors when assessing the baseline vs. follow-up period. The “how” group showed improvement in OCB ($F(1, 19) = 75.37$), RWS ($F(1, 19) = 23.48$), RWD ($F(1, 19) = 18.88$), and REP ($F(1, 19) = 14.09$, all $ps < .01$); as well as the “why” group: OCB ($F(1, 22) = 138.49$), RWS ($F(1, 22) = 86.37$), RWD ($F(1, 22) = 89.94$), and REP ($F(1, 22) = 75.37$, all $ps < .01$).

In sum, the results support the research hypothesis 12a by showing that the construal interventions enhanced work relationships. In addition, the influence of the interventions on work relationships seems to increase over time. The “why” group showed better relationships at work (except job reputation) after the intervention and even better relationship after 8

months (including job reputation) compared to the “how” group. That is, hypothesis 14a is supported when considering the long-term effect.

Hypothesis 12b

To see if emotion regulation behaviour influenced these findings, improving and worsening emotion regulation strategies were added separately as covariates. No significant effect was found when adding EROS factors as covariates to all relationships factors.



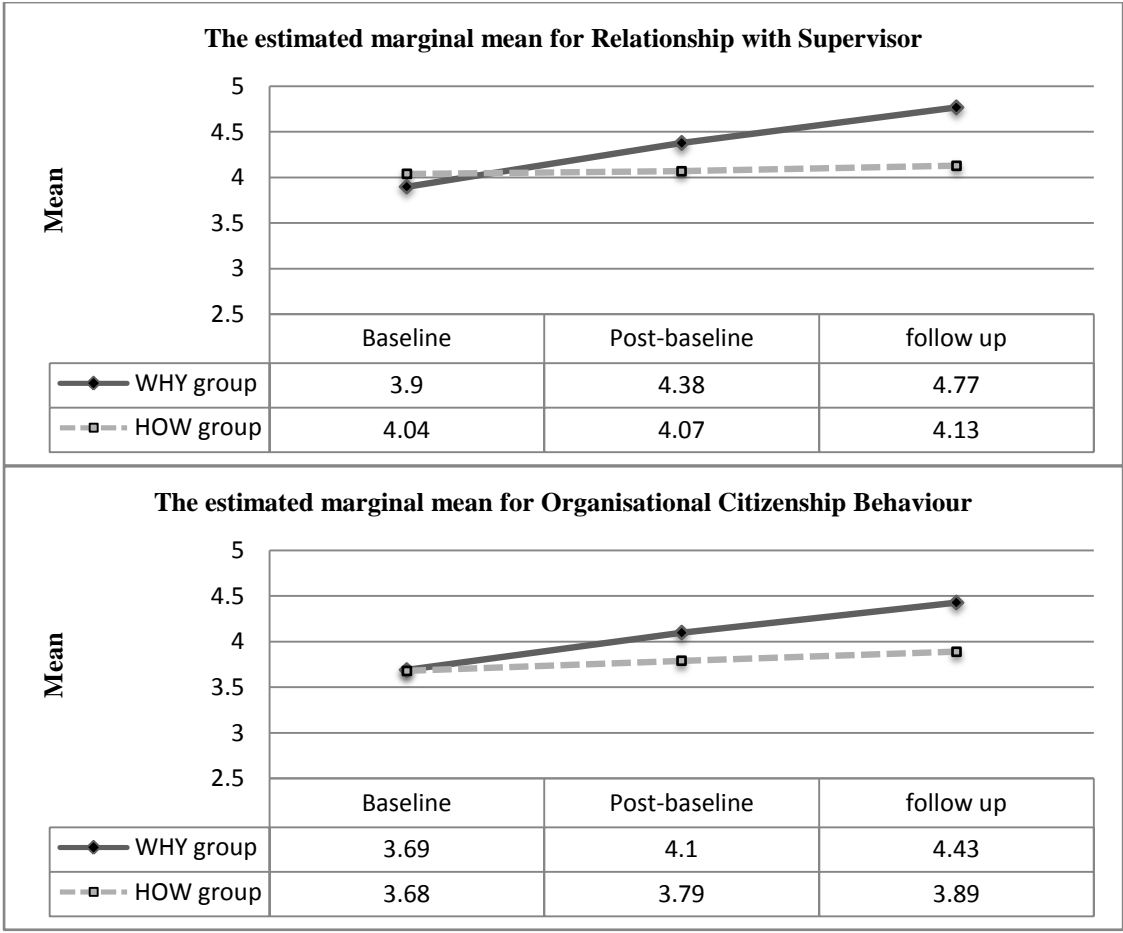


Figure 45 The Estimated Marginal Means for Work Relationships.

Hypotheses 13a and 14c

Three of the well-being at work factors showed significant change over the study period (after 1 and 8 months); enthusiasm ($F(2, 43) = 7.39$), comfort ($F(2, 43) = 19.17$), and depression, ($F(2, 43) = 15.75$, all $ps < .01$). These results partially support hypothesis 13a.

In relation to hypothesis 14c, no significant difference was found between the two groups before and after the intervention (see Figure 46). Just one factor, namely comfort, showed a significant difference between the two groups after 8 months. The results indicated that the “how” group reported more comfort ($M = 4.30$) than the “why” group ($M = 3.86$, $p < .01$). Hence, the results had not supported hypothesis 14c. It should be noted that both groups

still showed non-significant increase in their enthusiasm and a non-significant decrease in their depression.

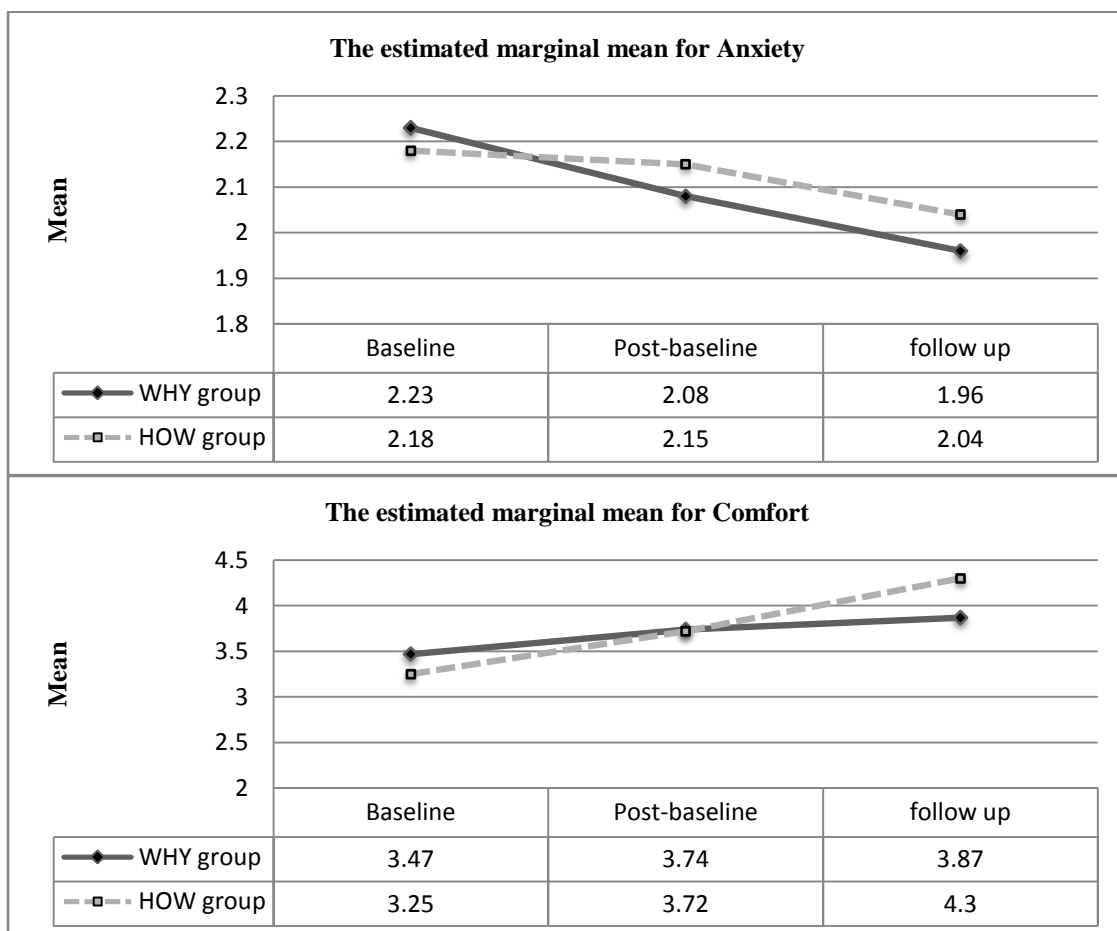
The construal levels and time had a significant impact on three well-being factors (comfort, enthusiasm, and depression). The results showed that both groups had been affected when considering the baseline vs. post-baseline period. The “how” group showed improvement in COMF ($F(1, 19) = 25.64$), ENTH ($F(1, 19) = 11.70$), and reduction in DEPR ($F(1, 19) = 9.96$, all $ps < .01$); as well as the “why” group: COMF ($F(1, 22) = 33.41$), ENTH ($F(1, 22) = 19.47$), DEPR ($F(1, 22) = 19.90$, all $ps < .01$). Based on the second period, post-baseline vs. follow-up period, both groups had been affected except the association between the “why” group and enthusiasm. The “how” group had been affected in the following factors: COMF ($F(1, 19) = 48.56$), ENTH ($F(1, 19) = 19.32$), DEPR ($F(1, 19) = 8.01$, all $ps < .01$). The “why” group also showed enhancement in COMF ($F(1, 22) = 17.22$) and reduction in DEPR ($F(1, 22) = 19.03$, both $ps < .01$). Finally, both groups had been influenced when considering the baseline vs. follow-up period. The “how” group showed improvement in COMF ($F(1, 19) = 51.16$), ENTH ($F(1, 19) = 29.34$), and reduction in DEPR ($F(1, 19) = 10.39$, all $ps < .01$); as well as the “why” group: COMF ($F(1, 22) = 56.40$), ENTH ($F(1, 22) = 45.35$), DEPR ($F(1, 22) = 27.18$, all $ps < .01$).

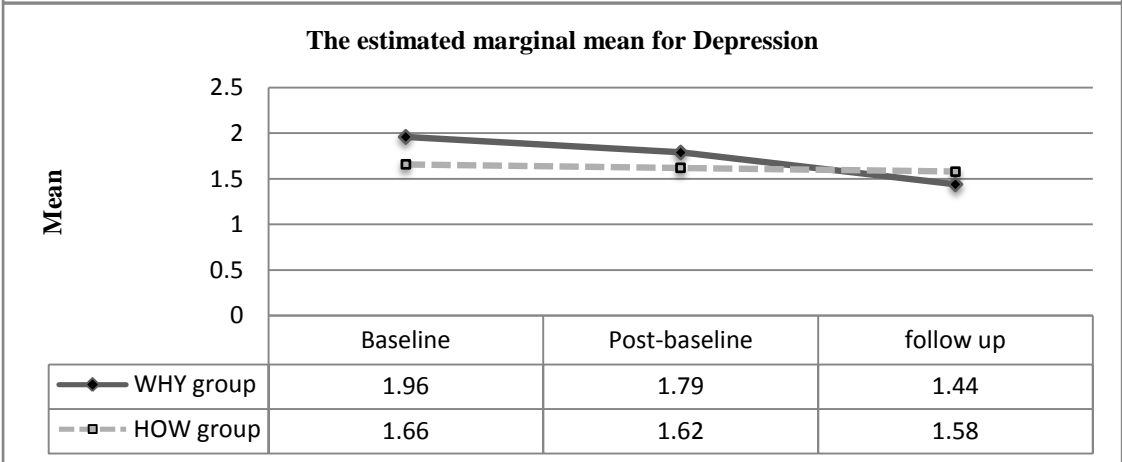
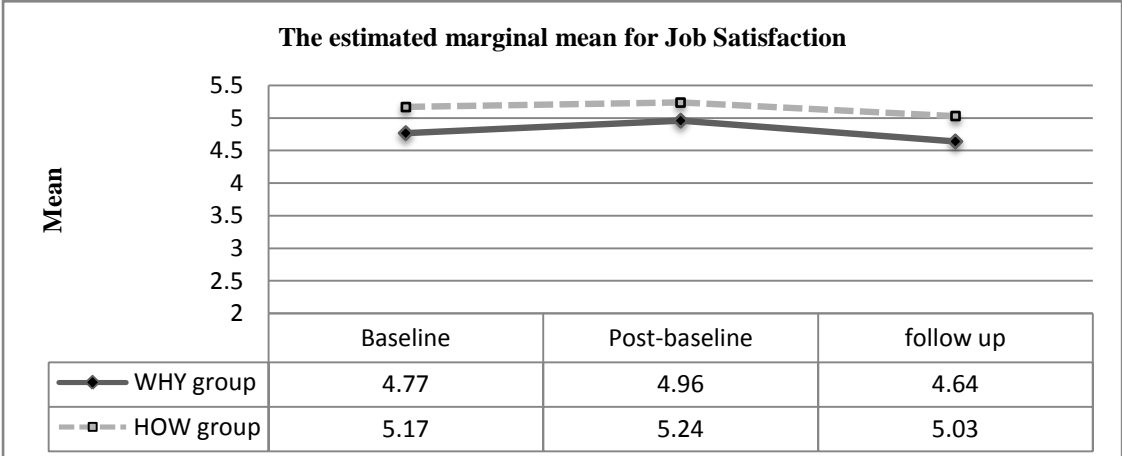
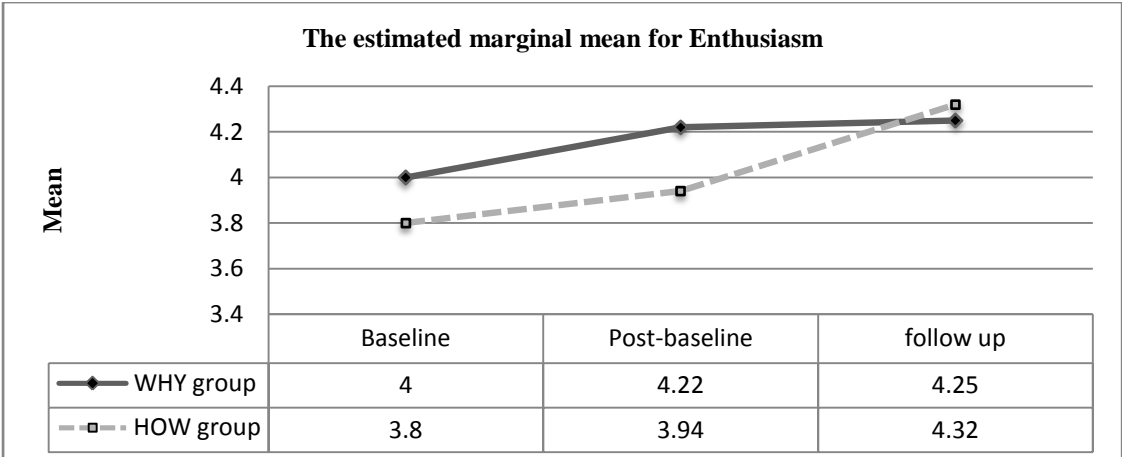
In summary, hypothesis 13a has been partly supported by only three well-being factors: comfort, enthusiasm, and depression. In addition, no significant differences were found between the two groups in almost all well-being factors except for comfort. Thus, hypothesis 14c has not been supported.

Hypothesis 13b

To see if emotion regulation behaviour may impact the previous hypothesis, improving and worsening emotion regulation strategies were added separately as covariates.

The p value for depression was changed to become non-significant, from $p = .001$ to $p = .13$, when adding the worsening emotion regulation while the improving strategies had no effect on depression. No significant change was found when adding EROS factors as covariates to comfort and enthusiasm. However, improving emotion regulation slightly increased the p value for these two factors, from $p = .001$ to $p = .04$. These findings may suggest that improving/worsening regulation strategies may partly explain the effect of the construal levels interventions on job well-being.





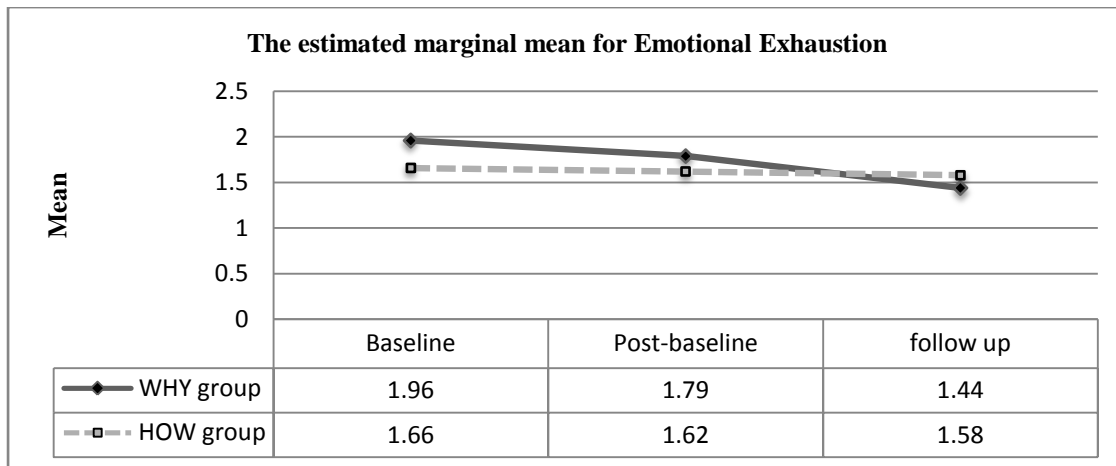


Figure 46 The Estimated Marginal Means for Well-Being at Work.

Hypothesis 15

Finally, the results supported the research hypothesis 15 that affective organisational commitment (AC) would be significantly higher after the intervention ($F(2, 39) = 20.16, p < .01$).

Figure 47 indicates that there was a significant difference between the two groups before the intervention: The “how” group had higher AC ($M = 6.04$) than the “why” group (AC: $M = 5.41, p < .05$). However, no significant difference was found between them after one month and again after eight months.

The results showed that both groups showed improvement in affective commitment when considering the three periods. In the baseline vs. post-baseline period: the “how” group ($F(1, 19) = 8.79$), the “why” group ($F(1, 19) = 26.19$, both $ps < .01$); the post-baseline vs. follow-up period: the “how” group ($F(1, 19) = 16.48$), the “why” group ($F(1, 19) = 20.14$, both $ps < .01$); and in the baseline vs. follow-up period: the “how” group ($F(1, 19) = 17.22$), the “why” group ($F(1, 19) = 53.60$, both $ps < .01$). Again, the influence of the intervention on affective commitment seems to increase over time.

To see if emotion regulation behaviour influences the relationship between construal levels and affective commitment, improving and worsening emotion regulation strategies were added separately as covariates. No significant effect was found when adding EROS factors as covariates to AC, which may suggest that emotion regulation may have had no effect on the association between construal levels and AC.

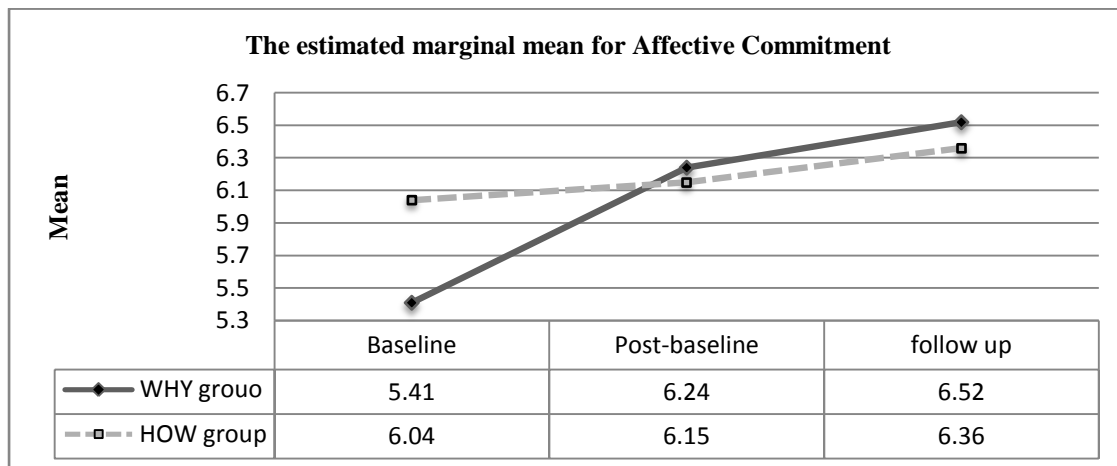


Figure 47 The Estimated Marginal Means for Organisational Commitment.

Discussion

The current study was mainly aimed at investigating whether high/low level construal interventions could enhance job outcomes and whether there was a difference between high-level and low-level interventions. In addition, the study aimed to examine whether construal levels effects were mediated by emotion regulation strategies. By using a multi-level modelling analysis (MLM) for the daily diary data and an analysis of variance (ANOVA) for the pre-post and follow up questionnaires, the results in both analyses suggest that the interventions have significantly enhanced job performance, work relationships, well-being at work, and job commitment. Also, the influence of the interventions on almost all job outcomes and on emotion regulation seems to increase over time. MLM results suggested that emotion regulation, especially positive emotion strategies, partially mediated the relationship between the construal interventions and some of the job outcomes.

High and Low Construal Interventions

Increasing job performance is one of the most practical, theoretical, and important issues in organisational literature (Staw, 1984). The importance of job performance also shapes employees' attitude towards their work. In fact, about 70% of the participants in both construal groups indicated that their job performance was the most important outcome in the workplace. Examples of their answers were: "I chose job performance because it will help me get a bonus and promotion"; "Job performance is important as it is a charity work". The current findings are consistent with the second study in that job performance was identified as the most important outcome. Three reasons could explain why job performance is the most important outcome in this study: (i) As the data were collected from charitable organisations, the employees may look at their performance as a virtuous value. For example, in the previous study's interviews, an employee explained: "If you face stress at work, you remind yourself that this work will lead you to heaven and that GOD will be pleased with you". As a result, their attitude toward their performance may lead them to think that job performance is the most important outcome. (ii) About 13% of the participants had a non-specific nationality, and so, these people may not qualify to benefit from many social or living rights. As a result, it may be expected that more than anything else they apply for a job in order to get money in which case job performance will fulfil their desires. (iii) The literature showed that the growth of non-profit organisations has become part of daily life as those organisations are becoming more competitive and even more professional (Giving Institute, 2002). In Kuwait, these organisations are also changing their scope from just being charitable organisations to becoming more professional organisations. Hence, thinking that job performance is the most important outcome is a logical choice in professional organisations.

In addition, the results suggest that focusing on one job outcome in relation to super/sub-ordinate goals and values seems to alter other outcomes. The findings indicate, for

example, that when the employees consider their relationship with co-workers as an important outcome, this consideration also influences other outcomes such as individual task proactivity and job well-being. Other research has also shown that focusing on one aspect of a job can affect others. For example, it has been shown that maintaining good relationships at work enables employees to experience their job as important and meaningful (Wrzesniewski, Dutton & Debebe, 2003) and thus influences other job outcomes.

The Effect of the Intervention on Emotion Regulation

During the intervention, intrinsic and extrinsic improving emotion regulation strategies (IIS and EIS) were used more in both groups while intrinsic and extrinsic worsening emotion regulation strategies (IWS and EWS) were found to be used less in both groups. These findings were also supported in the follow-up study. Three additional points can be highlighted here: (i) The daily diary showed that the low-level construal group (how group) used improving regulation strategies significantly more often than the high-level construal group (why group). This result was also supported by the pre-post and follow-up questionnaires. Linking how to act in a situation to improving regulation strategies may open a new direction on the relationship between emotion regulation and low-level construal. This direction may help to secure a more effective intervention in future research. For example, employees who work in marketing jobs may need to be trained to use low-level construals in order to achieve their tasks in an effective way. Training employees to use low-level construal may result in more use of improving emotion regulation strategies which may be essential in marketing jobs. (ii) The findings also showed that the “why” group used worsening regulation strategies less during the intervention. These findings were also supported by the pre-post and the follow-up questionnaires. Like the previous finding, this link between high-level construal and worsening emotion regulation could have useful

implications for intervention. In the future, if the employees who work in front-line jobs, e.g., customer service, are trained to use high-level construals, they may be more capable of using less negative emotion regulation. (iii) Based on the follow-up study, although there were no significant differences in using positive or negative emotion regulation strategies between the two groups in the short term, significant differences emerged at eight months. These findings suggest that the influence of construal levels on using emotion regulation strategies improves over time.

The Effect of the Intervention on Job Outcomes

Hypotheses 11a and 14b

The results supported hypothesis 11a in that employees who are asked to think about their goals and how to perform them (the why and how groups) would show improved job performance after the intervention (ANOVA results). The multi-level modelling results also supported this hypothesis. Both groups showed higher job performance after one month and even a higher performance after 8 months. In fact, as construal theory is related to achieving super/sub-ordinate goals, scholars suggested that it would affect individual performance (Nussbaum et al., 2006; Trope & Liberman, 2003). Scholars also suggested that effectiveness in the workplace could be achieved through specified job behaviours (Campbell et al., 1993) while these specific job behaviours may also be related to personal or organisational goals. Thus, the finding that construal levels benefit job performance is consistent with the literature.

The research also supported hypothesis 14b. Although job performance increased in both groups during the intervention, the “how” group seemed to perform better than the “why” group. In the literature, this is a moot point. In a series of studies using the Gestalt Completion Task prior to performing a particular task, scholars observed that when

individuals planned to work on a particular task in the more distant future (“high-level”), their performance was increased (Förster et al., 2004). Another series of studies that focused on academic performance, however, showed that when the students see the question format as difficult, their confidence in their performance decreased in the near future. In the distant future, however, their confidence in their performance was not significantly decreased (Nussbaum et al., 2006). These findings suggest that high-level construal, as it is more related to distal objects, would increase job performance more than low-level construal. However, (i) it is also possible that when the task requires attention to specific details, when the task needs to be completed here and right now, or when the task is difficult, low-level construal would have better impact on performance. For example, scholars have also found that people tend to have worse performance when they think that they could complete the task later (Wakslak et al., 2006). In addition, Watkins (2008) suggested that low-level construal seems to be adaptive for new or difficult events. Accordingly, if a job involves difficult tasks or there is pressure to complete the job tasks, it is more likely that low-level construal benefit performing those tasks more so than high-level construal. (ii) Förster, Liberman, and Shapira (2009) suggested that when goals are familiar to individuals, low-level construal tend to facilitate those goals. When considering the job outcomes, job performance is likely to be a highly familiar outcome that is performed daily. Thus, familiar goals would gain more from concrete thinking or “low-level construal”. These two standpoints would support the research hypothesis 14b.

Hypotheses 12a and 14a

Research hypothesis 12a was supported. In particular, it was found that employees who were asked to think and understand their relationships at work in relation to their high/low levels of construal were more capable of establishing a good relationship with their supervisor, co-workers, and customers. In addition, the ANOVA analysis also supported this

finding. The relationships measures used in the follow-up questionnaire (“organisational citizenship behaviour, relationship with supervisor, relationship with donors, and job reputation”) were all improved after 1 month and improved even more after 8 months. This improvement may be explained by the idea that when employees think about the main goals of their relationships and how to maintain them, their relationships were improved. This finding is consistent with the literature, e.g., Watkins and Moulds (2005) indicated that high/low levels of construal have a significant influence on solving social problems. In general, in work environments that involve a teamwork system, it may be useful to train employees to use high-level construal because it showed an effective impact on work relationships.

In relation to hypothesis 14a, multi-level modelling results suggested that although the “how” group showed a higher job performance than the “why” group during the intervention, the “why” group, on the other hand, showed a higher ability to maintain relationships at work than the “how” group during the intervention. In addition, the ANOVA results supported hypothesis 14a by showing that the “why” group have a significantly higher organisational citizenship behaviour and relationship with supervisor and donors after 1 month and then after 8 months, while job reputation showed significant differences only after 8 months. In general, this finding is consistent with the literature. (i) As individuals increasingly understand events in relation to their values and goals at high-level construal (Lieberman et al., 2007), the activation of high-level construal promotes self-control which in turn increases the ability to deal with social problems (Baumeister et al., 2007). Greater ability to deal with social problems should in turn impact upon employees’ work relationships, (ii) Förster, Liberman, and Shapira (2009) suggested that when goals are considered to be novel, high-level construal tend to facilitate those goals. Building relationships in the workplace is likely to be more novel than others outcomes as it involves

ongoing communication with others. Thus, novel goals would facilitate more abstract thinking - “high-level construal”. (iii) In addition, it seems that most of the relationships at work are associated with greater psychological distance. For example, when employees care about improving their job reputation, it is more likely that gaining that job reputation will not be achieved within the near future. As a result, the need to achieve it within the distant future would be more appropriate. Hence, it is to be expected that high-level construal would have better effect on the work relationships than low-level construal.

Hypotheses 13a and 14c

Multi-level modelling results partly supported research hypothesis 13a in that four well-being factors (out of six factors) were influenced during the intervention. The four factors that were significantly influenced are job satisfaction, anxiety, depression, and enthusiasm; while being comfortable and emotionally exhausted were not significantly affected. However, ANOVA results indicated that both enthusiasm and comfort have been increased in both groups after the intervention and later after 8 months; while depression showed a significant decrease after the intervention. Figure 48 shows that two factors, enthusiasm and depression, have been influenced in the two results. Two questions could be raised here: (i) Why was there no significant effect of construal levels on emotional exhaustion? In fact, for many charitable organisations, working within charity may require having high religious behaviour and/or faith. These two factors may influence positively the employees’ feelings and well-being, which in turn may have relieved feelings of exhaustion. The first study, for example, showed that high religious behaviour and faith are associated with high well-being at work ($r = .23, p < .01$). Accordingly, it is expected that having a strong faith alters employees’ well-being and covers up the emotional exhaustion’s influence. (ii) Why was being comfortable significantly increased in the long term (ANOVA analysis) while no significant improvement was found in the short term (MLM analysis)? In fact, the

organisation made a general renewal of its building after the intervention, which includes new offices and desks. The new design may affect the employees in that they felt more comfortable after the intervention and in the long term. In general, this finding is consistent with the literature in that positive affect (Mitchell, Thompson, Peterson & Cronc, 1997) and negative affect (Fujita & Han, 2009) are associated with construal levels.

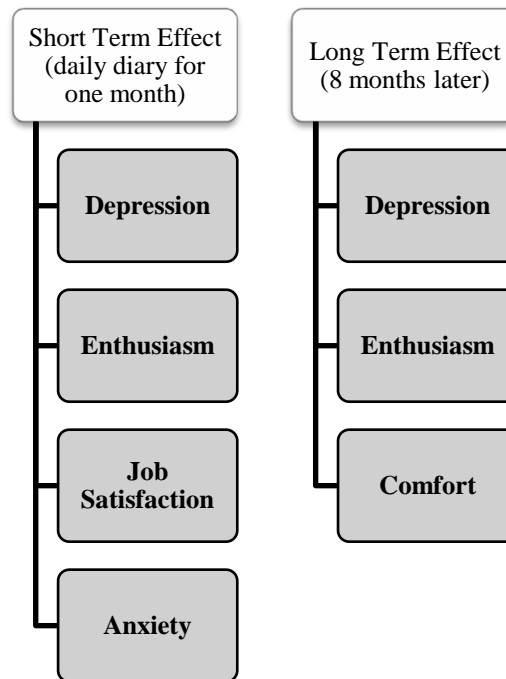


Figure 48 The significant influence of construal interventions on well-being factors (short/long-term).

Hypothesis 14c proposed that high-level construal would have better impact on well-being at work than low-level construal. Although the ANOVA results showed no significant differences between the two groups except for comfort, the results from the daily diary indicated that three well-being factors, i.e., job satisfaction, depression, and anxiety factors have been affected more by the “why” group compared to the “how” group; while the enthusiasm factor showed the opposite. In particular, (i) job satisfaction was found to be significantly higher for those who used high-level construal while those who use low-level construal showed a decrease in their job satisfaction during the intervention. In fact, it would seem that job satisfaction needs time in order for it to be achieved, which in turn may be

affected more by high-level construal as it is more related to temporal distance. this finding is consistent with the literature by showing that time-distance increases the value of the main goals, which is more related to high-level construal (Fujita et al., 2008; Trope & Liberman, 2000). Thus, it is understandable that high-level construal has better association with job satisfaction. (ii) During the intervention, the “how” group showed a smaller reduction in depression and anxiety compared to the “why” group. this finding is consistent with the literature (Fujita & Han, 2009; Fujita et al., 2006). Negative emotions such as depression, anxiety, and emotional exhaustion seem to have a distal reaction (“high-level construal”). Thus, high-level construal seems to impact these negative emotions more than positive emotions according to the temporal-distance. (iii) On the other hand, low-level construal seems to influence the positive emotions more than the negative emotions. The “how” group showed a higher level of enthusiasm than the “why” group during the intervention. Also, the “how” group showed higher comfort (according to the ANOVA results) compared to the “why” group. Here is one reason that could explain this effect. Imagine an employee who prefers to think about how to do a task here and now. Usually, he/she would encourage himself/herself to achieve this task on time. In other words, he/she is more likely to be enthusiastic about completing this task. Accordingly, it is expected that thinking about how to perform a task here and now would affect the individual’s level of enthusiasm and comfort. In general, it could be suggested that high-level construal may be an important criterion when dealing with customers as the employees will be more capable of managing the negative emotions associated with that role. On the other hand, low-level construal may be a more important issue when considering marketing jobs as employees may be more able to use positive emotions.

Hypothesis 15

Finally, the pre-post and follow-up questionnaires indicated that like well-being at work, organisational commitment was positively affected by both high and low levels of construal and this impact increased over time. However, the results show that there was no significant difference between the two groups. The literature suggests that high-level construal is more likely to influence organisational commitment than low-level construal. This assumption is attributed to the temporal distance theory. Bateman and Strasser (1984) illustrate that the process of organisational commitment is quite complicated, for it is expected that to be involved in this process, individuals need a long time to achieve it. Thus, it was expected that organisational commitment is related to the super-ordinate goals (“high-level”) which also need time to be accomplished more than sub-ordinate goals. However, the present findings indicate that both high-level and low-level construals have benefits for organisational commitment.

In conclusion, the findings suggest that construal levels intervention enhanced job performance, relationships at work, well-being at work, and job commitment. In particular, the ANOVA analyses suggest that both groups showed better job performance, relationships at work, and commitment after one month and even still after 8 months. In addition, both of them showed higher well-being, i.e., more comfort and enthusiasm and having lower depression, after 1 and 8 months (see Figure 49).

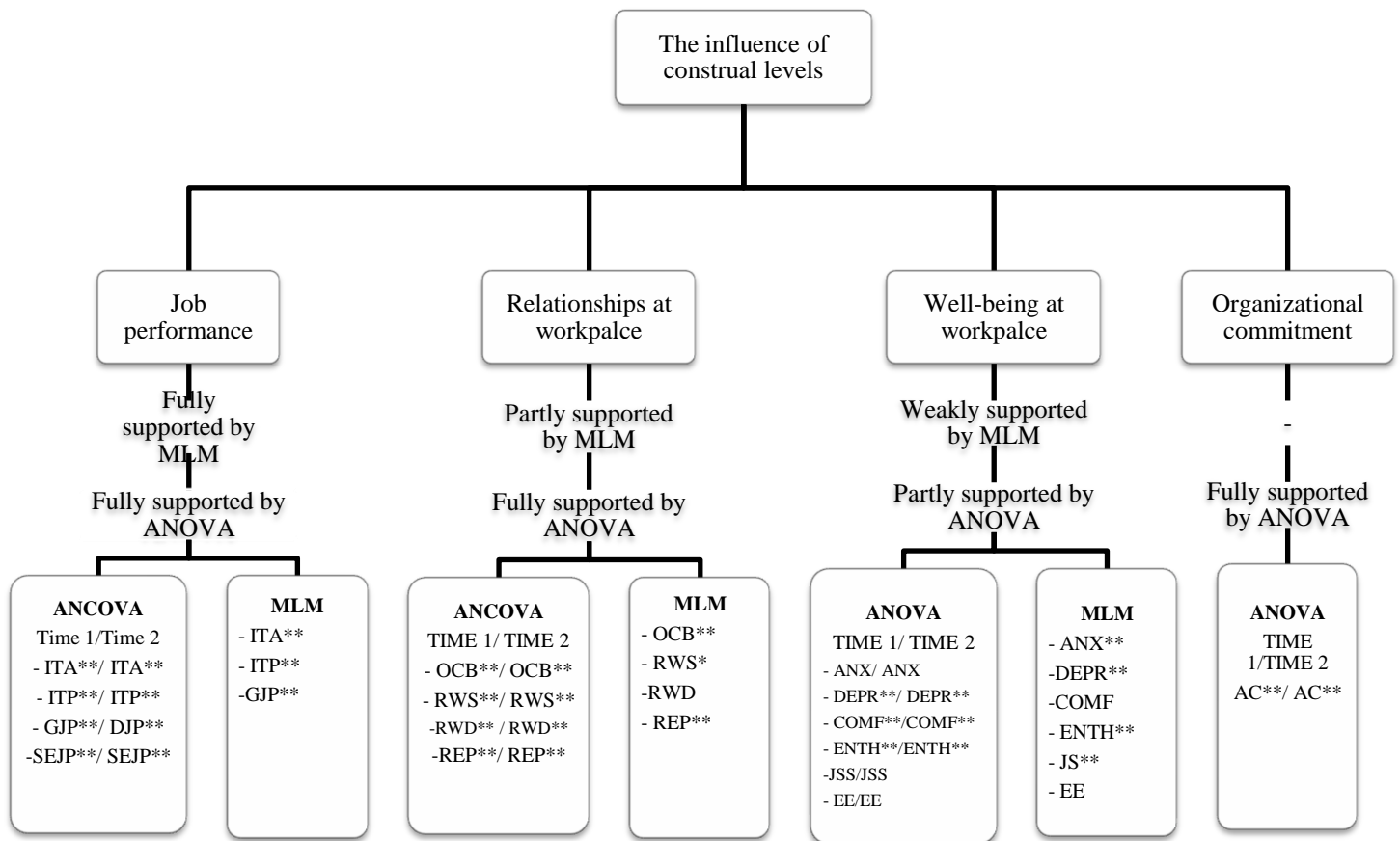


Figure 49 The general impact of construal levels on the job outcomes using two analyses. *Note:* OCB: Organisational Citizenship Behaviour, RWD: Relationship with Donors, RE: Job Reputation, RWS: Relation with Supervisor, JSS = Job Satisfaction, EE = Emotional Exhaustion, ANX = Anxiety, DEPR = Depression, ENTH = Enthusiasm, COMF = Comfort, GJP = General Job Performance, ITA = Individual Task Adaptivity, ITP = Individual Task Proactivity, SEJP= Standard Evaluation Form of Job Performance, AC= Affective Commitment, MLM= Multilevel modelling analysis. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

The Mediating Effect of Emotion Regulation

In relation to hypothesis 11b that emotion regulation would mediate the relationship between high/low levels of construal and job performance, multi-level modelling results supported the hypothesis. Based on the idea that construal level theory is related to self-control, while self-control is related to emotion regulation (Baumeister et al., 1998), it was expected that emotion regulation would mediate the relationship between high/low levels of construal and job performance. The results showed that all components of emotion regulation seem to have partial mediation effect on all job performance factors. Similarly, the ANOVA results showed that when improving/worsening emotion regulation strategies were added as

covariate variables, the p value for individual task proactivity became non-significant. Also, adding the worsening emotion regulation strategies as covariates changed the p value for general job performance as well as the organisations' form of job performance (SEJP) to become non-significant. Thus, this finding suggests that emotion regulation strategies partly explain the effect of the intervention on job performance. To explain how emotion regulation could mediate this relationship, I proposed the following: (i) When people focus on how to do their job, they may bring to bear emotion regulation strategies that enhance performance. (ii) nowadays, a teamwork system is widely used in many organisations due to its impact on job performance (LaFasto & Larson, 2001). As one who has worked in a charitable organisation in Kuwait for three years, I can say that the philosophy of teamwork has widely been used in charitable organisations in Kuwait too. Accordingly, it seems that working as a team would lead to being able to exert influence and being influenced by others' emotion, which requires a higher ability to regulate emotions. (iii) As mentioned earlier about the reasons that led me to collect the data from charitable organisations, employees frequently communicate with the customer "donors" as part of their job performance. For example, some employees work outside their office. They collect charity from houses, streets, markets and deal with people who may express undesired behaviours, e.g., shouting at the employees. This situation requires greater ability to regulate emotion. (iv) Finally, Griffin and his colleagues (2007) demonstrated that "in relation to work role performance, uncertainty in an organisational context occurs when the inputs, processes, or outputs of work systems lack predictability" (p. 329). It should be noted that one of those factors causing uncertainty is the demands that are made by customers (Burns & Stalker, 1961). Having worked for three years in Kuwaiti charity, charitable organisations in Kuwait seem to have an uncertain work system. In this case, employees may tend to be more interdependent and need other's help. As a result, regulating emotions would be a necessary strategy in such an environment.

In relation to hypothesis 12b that emotion regulation would mediate the relationship between high/low levels of construal and work relationships, the results supported hypothesis 12b (i.e., three of four factors have been affected). As the literature showed, emotion regulation should affect relationships at work (see Denham et al., 2003; Lopes et al., 2006). The results indicated that all emotion regulation strategies showed a partial mediation effect on organisational citizenship behaviour and the relationship with supervisor. The results also indicated that improving regulation strategies (IIS and EIS) and extrinsic worsening strategies (EWS) were found to have a partial mediation effect on the relationship with supervisor while only IIS showed a significant mediation effect on job reputation. As mentioned earlier, that the work environment in charitable organisations in Kuwait may be more likely to be based on teamwork and an uncertain work system, it is expected that emotion regulation especially improving strategies, would mediate the relationship between construal levels and the relationship at work. Although the mediation analysis supports the impact of IIS and EIS as mediators, adding emotion regulation factors as covariates showed no significant effect on the *p* value for the relationships factors. Further investigations are needed to understand why there is no effect when adding emotion regulation factors as covariates.

In relation to hypothesis 13b, the first study's results showed that emotion regulation affected well-being at work (see also Ciarrochi & Scott, 2006; Malterer et al., 2008; Mayer et al., 1999), and so it was expected that emotion regulation would mediate the relationship between high/low levels of construal and well-being at work. The results indicated that four of six well-being factors have been affected by emotion regulation strategies (e.g., all EROS factors have partial mediation effect on depression). Depression could be characterised as a negative internal feeling. It could be expected that worsening regulation strategies, especially the intrinsic strategy, would have a mediating effect on depression. How does EIS mediate depression in this case? To answer this question, imagine an employee who feels depressed

for some reason. He/she might think about something positive as an intrinsic improving strategy. This strategy may alter his/her feeling. However, since the charitable organisation environment seems to be described as a more social environment and as individuals in Eastern cultures are more likely to construe themselves as interdependent (Kanagawa, Cross & Markus, 2001), seeking joy from relationships with others, for example, may be more appropriate for him/her as he/she is used to doing so. In this sense then, EIS could logically have a mediation effect on depression. In general, these findings would suggest that emotion regulation has an important effect on improving well-being at work. The ANOVA results also supported the effect of improving emotion regulation strategies by partly explaining the effect of the construal levels on job well-being. It should be noted that in other cultures which seem more independent (e.g., European cultures), individuals tend to express their emotions and this expression was negatively related to sadness (Paez, Gonzalez, Fernandez, Carrera & Sanchez, 2009). In this case, cultural differences may alter the association between emotion regulation and well-being.

Figure 50 shows the mediation effect of emotion regulation on job outcomes. In general, it seems that all emotion regulation strategies share the same mediation effects on the job outcomes. For example, IIS EIS, IWS, and EWS have accounted for the variance between construal levels and (a) general job performance (75%, 69%, 68% and 55% respectively), (b) individual task adaptivity (34%, 48%, 42% and 43% respectively), (c) individual task proactivity (76%, 14%, 59% and 10% respectively), (d) organisational citizenship behaviour (369%, 25%, 38% and 35% respectively), (e) relationship with donors (55%, 54%, 51, and 57% respectively), and (f) depression (40%, 46%, 47% and 42% respectively). For more details about the mediation effect, please see Figure 50. Thus, there is good evidence that emotion regulation helps to explain the association between construal levels and most of the job outcomes.

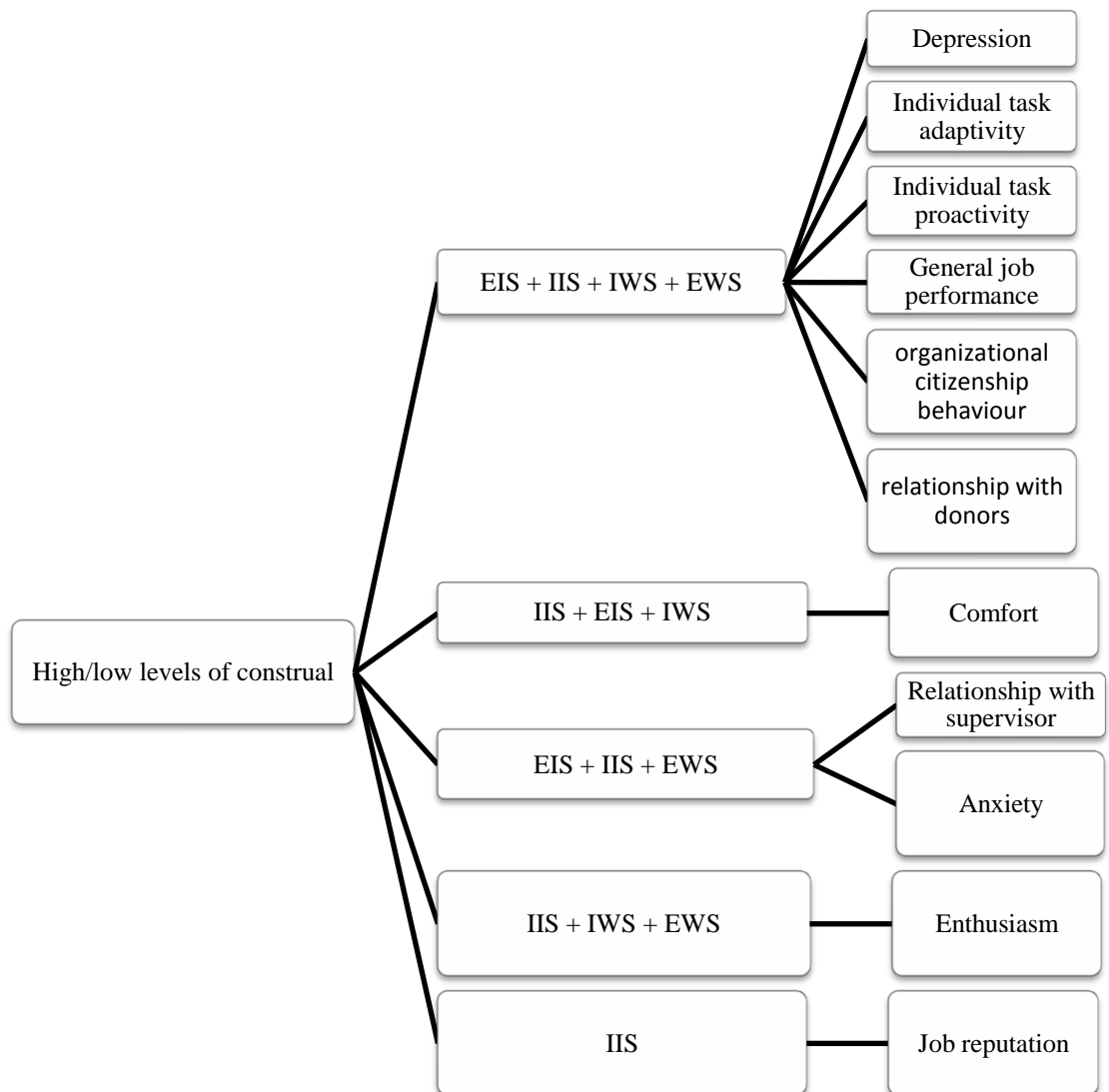


Figure 50 The significant mediation effect of emotion regulation by using Multi-level Modelling Analysis. IIS = Intrinsic Improving Strategies, EIS = Extrinsic Improving Strategies, IWS = Intrinsic Worsening Strategies.

Emotion regulation may be used as behavioural and emotional solutions to gain personal goals. Achieving a high-level of construal was found to be related to super-ordinate goals, while gaining a low-level construal was found to be related to sub-ordinate goals (Trope & Liberman, 2003). Indeed, individuals may use any emotional or behavioural strategy in order to gain these goals. They may tend to use emotion regulation strategies as strategies that would help them to achieve these goals. For example, in the current study, it was found that about half of the low-level construal group used asking help from other employees as a strategy to enhance their job performance. In the classification of emotion

regulation strategies, by Parkinson and Totterdell (1999), it was found that seeking help from others is a main emotion regulation strategy. Considering such a well known emotion regulation strategy as an effective way to improve job performance shows how the impact of high/low levels of construal is related to emotion regulation. Moreover, seeking help from others was also found as a preferable strategy from half of those who thought well-being and relationships with co-workers were the second and the third important outcomes. In general, although the current thesis did not find that emotion regulation has a full mediation effect, the impact of the construal levels on job outcomes seems to be partly influenced by the use of some emotion regulation strategies. Thus, further investigations should account for the impact of using these specific strategies of emotion regulation.

In conclusion, the current experimental longitudinal study has shown that high/low levels of construal affect positively the job outcomes and that some emotion regulation strategies mediate some of those outcomes. In particular, six main findings and implications could be drawn from the study results.

(i) Regarding the influence of construal levels on the job outcomes, ANOVA results suggest that construal levels intervention enhances job performance, relationship at work, well-being at work, and job commitment. MLM results consistent with ANOVA results. This finding increases the value of high/low-levels of construal in achieving the job outcomes.

(ii) Also, the results of both types of analyses confirm the influence of the construal levels on emotion regulation. This finding may add a new link to the literature by showing that construal levels impact emotion regulation.

(iii) This influence of construal levels on emotion regulation and job outcomes has been shown to increase in the long-term. More research should further examine the impact of time distance on such an influence.

(iv) The results suggest that almost all emotion regulation strategies that were used in the multi-level modelling analysis showed partial/full mediation effect on most of the job outcomes. Findings from ANOVA analyses support most of the mediation effects. Thus, future research should focus more on the mediation effect of emotion regulation on the job outcomes.

(v) According to the construal levels sheet, some findings could be further explored. Most of the employees indicated that their strategies on thinking of why or how to perform an outcome are related to well-known emotion regulation strategies, i.e., helping others. In this case, the impact of the construal levels on job outcomes seems to be partly influenced by the use of some emotion regulation strategies. The influence of these specific strategies should be examined more in future research. In addition, focusing on one job outcome in relation to super/sub-ordinate goals and values seems to alter other outcomes. Organisations may benefit from this finding. Instead of trying to improve all outcomes in one go, it may be possible to focus on the most important outcomes (e.g., job performance and relationships at work) because that may also positively alter other outcomes. However, that would need monitoring to avoid unforeseen detrimental consequences.

(vi) In relation to the differences between the two groups, two main findings were obtained. First, the results indicate that individuals who used high-level construals were more likely to reduce their negative regulation strategies. This finding may help organisations for the purpose of training. Employees who work in customer service may need more training on how to use high-level construal as it is more related to influencing one's negative emotions. In addition, linking high-level construal to reducing worsening emotion regulation strategies may open a new direction for future research. Second, the results also suggest that individuals who used low-level construals are capable of increasing their use of improving emotion regulation. Thus, organisations may train employees for a job that requires a high ability to

improve others' and one's own emotion. In addition, linking how to act in a situation to improving emotion regulation strategies may open up a new direction for the future research.

The next chapter will integrate the findings from the three main studies. In particular, several associations between emotion regulation factors and job outcomes have been observed. The next chapter will also discuss the limitations, contributions, and research/practical implications of this thesis.

Chapter Six

GENERAL DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Emotions have a significant impact on the individual's thoughts and actions at work. As employees may express or suppress their emotions daily at work, scholars believe that the regulation of these emotions may impact positively or negatively on job outcomes (Frijda, 1986). Therefore, many scholars have investigated how the regulation of emotion impacts job outcomes such as job performance and relationship at work (Brackett & Salovey, 2004; Goldberg & Grandey, 2007; Goodman et al., 2008). Furthermore, research has argued that emotion has a crucial role in job selection and development (Caruso & Wolfe, 2001; Young et al., 1996). In this chapter, the main findings will be discussed and linked to each other in order to have a broader view of the role of emotion regulation in the workplace. The thesis' limitations, contributions, future implications, and general conclusion will also be set forth.

The Main Aims of the Research

The current thesis focused on the impact of emotion regulation on job outcomes and how to enhance this impact. More precisely, the four main aims of the current thesis were to: (i) propose and test a model of how various types of emotion regulation strategies influence different kinds of job outcome; (ii) investigate whether implementation intention intervention can promote effective use of emotion regulation strategies in order to enhance job outcomes; and (iii) to investigate whether high or low levels construal interventions can improve emotion regulation in order to enhance job outcomes; and (iv) to examine whether the effects of the interventions on emotion regulation and job outcomes are sustained a number of months after training.

The first aim was mainly addressed by the correlational study (Study 1). Additional findings from the diary data (Studies 2 and 3) were included, too. This is to be sure that the

correlational data are sustained after the interventions (1 month). Figure 51 shows that there were significant associations between emotion regulation factors on one side (except for the association between intrinsic emotion regulation strategies and job performance) and job performance and work relationships on the other. The diary data (Figure 52) are consistent with this finding and even suggest that there is a significant association between intrinsic emotion regulation strategies and job performance. Moreover, Study 1 showed that intrinsic worsening strategies were the only factor that has a negative association with job well-being while the diary data from Studies 2 and 3 extended this effect to include the effect of the other emotion regulation factors. Finally, Figure 51 shows that only extrinsic regulation strategies (EIS, EWS) were found to predict employees' affective commitment. To test whether the previous associations could be influenced by individuals' goals and values, the results suggested that goals and intentions interacted with some of these associations. The influence of goals and intentions helped link the first aim to the rest of the aims as they are related to achieving goals and values. In general, the results supported the first aim.

Regarding the second and the third aims, both implementation intentions and construal levels were found to affect emotion regulation. In addition, a significant effect was found in terms of the interventions on job outcomes. Some of these outcomes were affected more immediately (like job performance) while others seem to need more time to be influenced (like job well-being). Also, there was evidence that emotion regulation mediated this effect. In particular, it seems that the extrinsic emotion regulation strategies have more mediation effect than intrinsic strategies. Finally, the results suggested that the impact of the interventions was sustained over time. The next paragraphs will discuss in-depth the findings in relation to each aim.

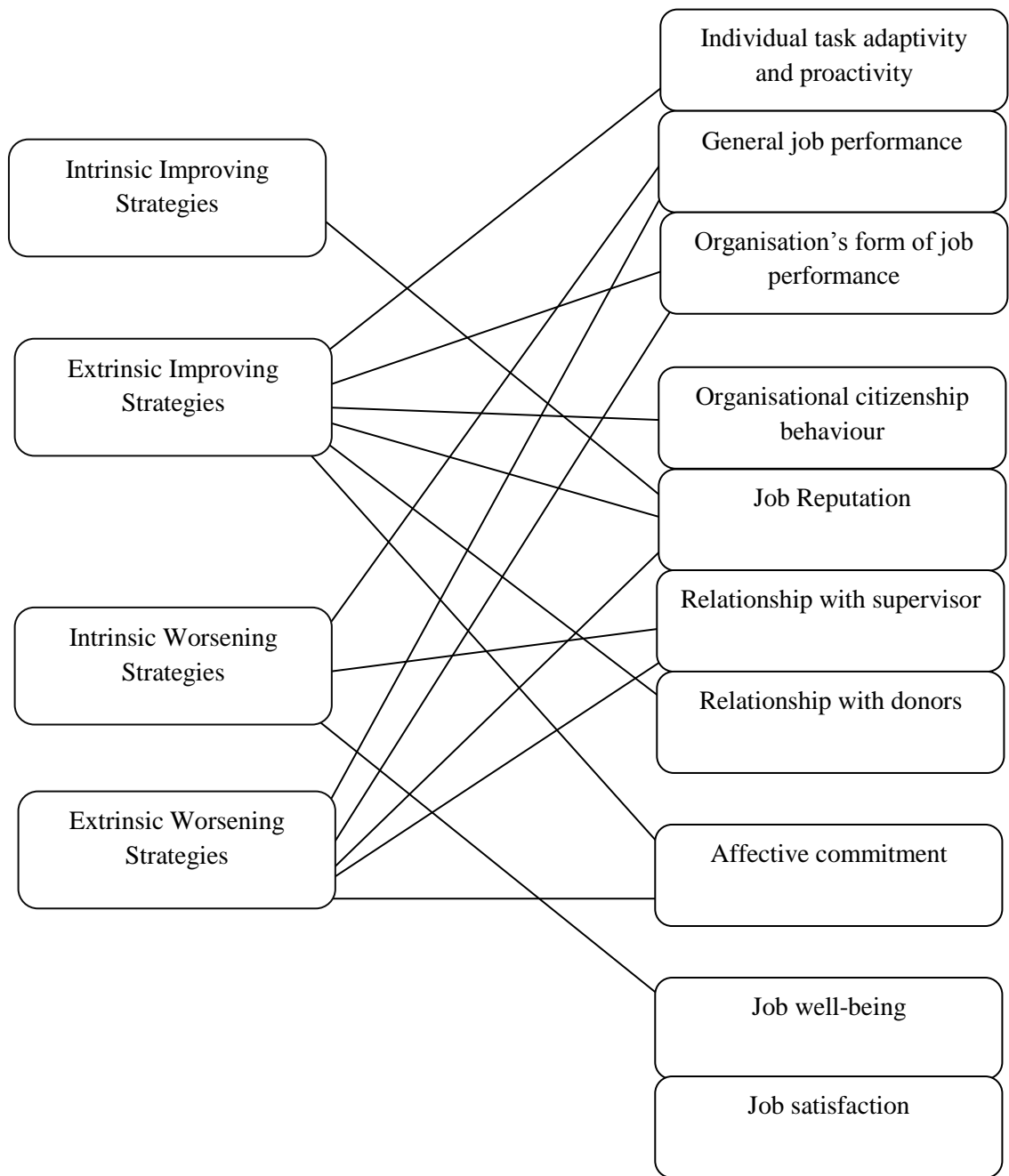


Figure 51 Findings for the impact of emotion regulation on job outcomes (Correlational findings - study 1).

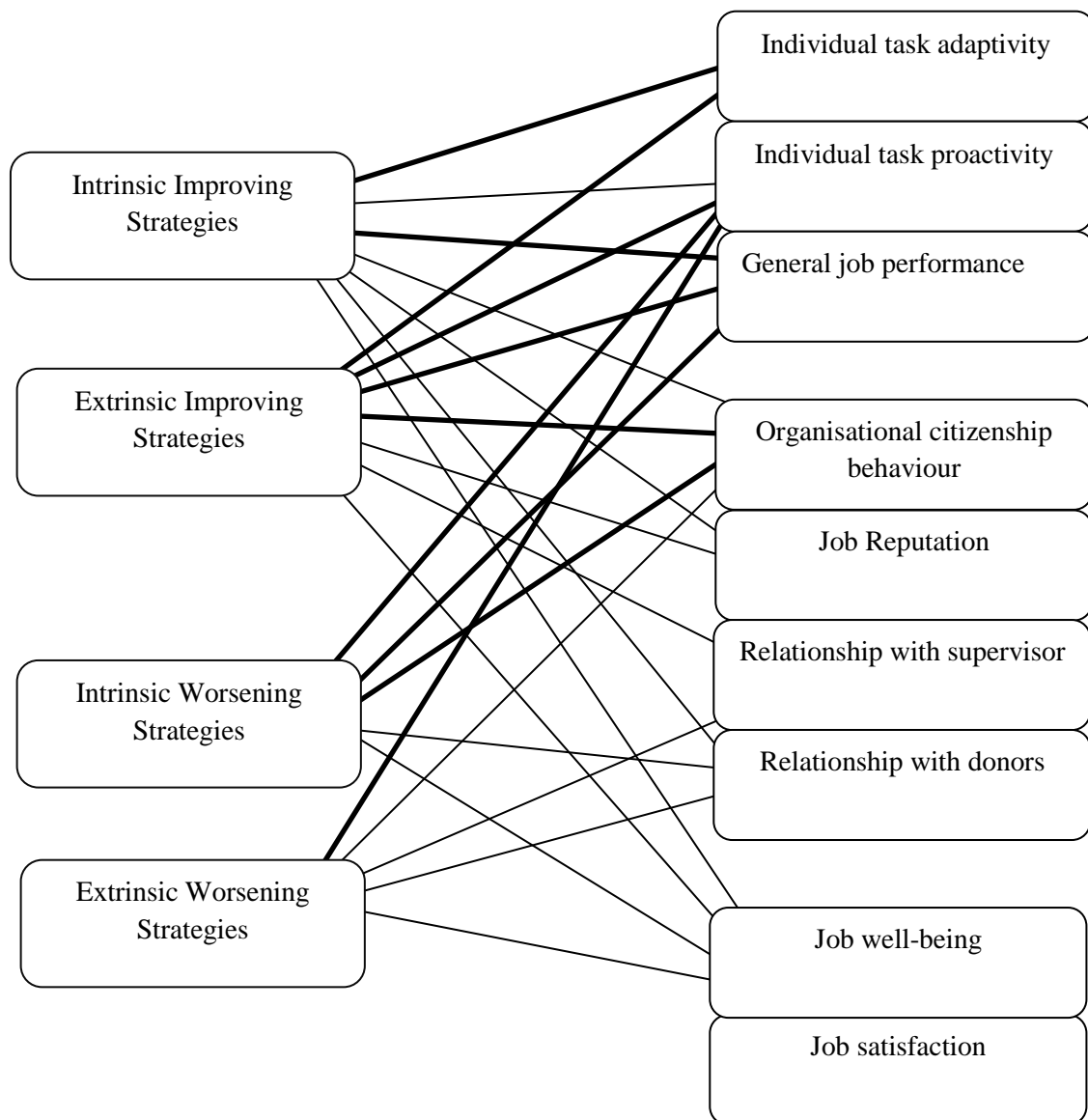


Figure 52 Findings for the impact of emotion regulation on job outcomes (Correlational findings based on the diary data- Studies 2 and 3). *Note:* Thick arrows = relationship was obtained by both studies; thin arrows = relationship was obtained by one study.

The Association between Emotion Regulation and Job Outcomes

Investigating the emotion regulation-job outcome association could be the basis for enhancing job outcomes. For example, by discovering that positive emotion regulation impacts positively on the job outcomes while the negative emotion regulation negatively influences the job outcomes, the thesis could propose both that emotion regulation could be enhanced and that this enhancement would affect the job outcomes. In this case, assessing the

association between emotion regulation and job outcomes should be the first step in helping to understand the role of emotion regulation and how to enhance it in the workplace.

Emotion Regulation and Job Performance

Hypotheses 1a to 1d proposed that there would be an association between emotion regulation factors and job performance. Based on the results in Study 1, Figure 51 shows that improving/worsening others' emotions has a better association with job performance compared to intrinsic emotion regulation. These findings are consistent with the literature in which expressing positive emotion (Denham, 1998; Liu et al., 2010; Moon & Lord, 2006; Newman et al., 2010) and negative emotion (Judge & Ilies, 2002; Kaplan et al., 2009) affect the individual's performance. Results from Studies 2 and 3 (diary data) suggested that the association between emotion regulation and job outcomes increased after the interventions.

As to the first study, why were extrinsic emotion regulation strategies found to have better association with job performance than intrinsic regulation strategies? It could be expected that social feedback is key to this association especially if the concept of job performance is not only based on doing particular tasks, but also the ability and skills to communicate with others at work (Griffin et al., 2007). For example, imagine an employee who sometimes helps others to improve their emotion. Over time, this behaviour may encourage others to respond positively and be friendly with this employee. Hence, having such a positive and a friendly environment would help the employee to perform his/her task more effectively. On the other hand, imagine another employee who yells at others as a way to worsen their emotion. As a result of this behaviour, other employees may give him/her a negative feedback which in turn may negatively affect his/her performance. In this scenario, worsening others' emotions may prevent individuals from dealing with job problems (Beal et al., 2005) while improving others' emotions may encourage individuals to deal with

performance-related problems. Hence, it could be concluded that extrinsic emotion regulation plays a key role when it comes to job performance. It should be noted that there may be certain jobs, e.g., debt collectors, which may require the negative expression of emotion in order to have better performance. However, in most jobs, the positive expression of emotion may be related to better performance while the negative expression of emotion may result in a worse performance.

As to the intrinsic improving strategies, the results from Study 1 showed that there was no association between intrinsic improving strategies and job performance. In fact, although the majority of researchers suggested that improving one's own emotions impacts job performance (see Collins & Durand-Bush, 2010; De Stobbeleir et al., 2011; Ning & Downing, 2010), a number of studies also found that there is no association between emotion regulation, as part of emotional intelligence and job performance (Austin, 2004), and supervisory ratings of job performance (Sosik & Megerian, 1999) or academic performance (Petrides, Frederickson & Furnham, 2004). Hence, this finding could be consistent with these studies. It could be possible that people who are not so good at improving their own emotions may not benefit from their own work performance. Also, this non-significant association could be related to the lack of social feedback that employees receive when improving their own emotions. Regarding the findings from diary data in Studies 2 and 3, it seems that linking specific problem to a solution or activating high/low levels of construal promoted this association. That is, these interventions may increase how people regulate their own emotions and how such a regulation could affect their own performance. Besides, it could be possible that when people use these interventions strategies, they may receive more positive feedback from others which would affect their own emotion regulation.

Finally, Figure 51 shows that intrinsic worsening regulation strategies impact negatively on job performance. The results from Studies 2 and 3 are consistent with this

finding. The question here is: why do these strategies affect job performance (in the correlational study) while intrinsic improving strategies do not? Although the literature does not give so much information about the association between worsening one's own emotions and job performance, it could be suggested that personal resources could be consumed more by intrinsic worsening rather than intrinsic improving regulation strategies. Muraven and Baumeister (2000) argue that regulating negative emotions requires high level of self-control which leads to depletion of personal resources. The depletion of resources may mean that there is less resource available for the self-control entailed in performing a job. For example, it could be possible that when individuals think about their shortcomings as a way to worsen their own emotion, a personal resource, e.g., self-esteem (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti & Schaufeli, 2007), could be more affected. In this case, affecting such a personal resource may impact negatively on the employee's performance. In summary, it could be concluded that regulating other's emotion has a greater impact on job performance than regulating one's own emotions – an effect that could be related to social feedback. Also, the association between emotion regulation factors and job performance was increased after the interventions.

Emotion Regulation and Work Relationships

Hypotheses 2a to 2d proposed that there would be an association between emotion regulation factors and work relationships. It was found that when people tend to regulate other's emotions positively, their relationships with others are positively affected too. Also, when they tend to regulate others' emotions negatively, they engender negative relationships with others. These findings and the findings from the diary data are consistent with the literature. Scholars argue that individuals who express negative emotion tend to drive other people away (Argyle, 1990; Furr & Funder, 1998) and build a negative relationship with them (Vittengl & Holt, 1998).

Again, it may be the case that social feedback is key to the association between regulating others' emotions and work relationships. It is logical that employees who care about others receive more positive feedback and then build better relationship with them (Totterdell, Hershcovis, Niven, Reich & Stride, in press); while employees who try to worsen others' emotions are more likely to receive negative feedback and then have worse relationships with others. However, how this association operates in reality is still unclear. For example, because Sally regulates other's emotions positively, people may tend to give her positive feedback. But is it her interpersonal emotion regulation which positively impacts upon her relationships, or is it people's behaviour in the first place that guides Sally to regulate others' emotion and therefore her relationship ends up being enhanced?

Regarding intrinsic emotion regulation, no association was found between the intrinsic improving strategies and work relationships (based on the correlational study). Again, the results from the diary data (Studies 2 and 3) suggested that after the interventions, a significant association was found between the two variables (see Figure 52). The same reasons that applied to the previous association with job performance, may be applied here, too.

Finally, Figures 51 and 52 show that intrinsic worsening emotion regulation has a negative association with work relationships. This finding is consistent with the literature showing that poor interpersonal relationships are related to negative self-regulation (Lopes et al., 2005). As mentioned earlier, since worsening one's own emotions could affect personal resources, it could be possible that the impact of negative self-regulation on interpersonal relationships is mediated by personal resources. For example, imagine a new employee who tries to start up a relationship with a co-worker. This employee has a past negative experience with building relationships in general. When he/she tries to build this new friendship, he/she remembers how he/she failed in the past. In this sense, he/she may face difficulties in the

future because of regular use of this negative strategy (negative experience). In time, his/her self-esteem could be reduced and therefore he/she may not have a close friendship in the workplace at all. In this example, personal resources, e.g., self-esteem, play a key role in linking negative self-regulation and work relationships. Future research should examine this potential mediation effect. In general, the results suggest that regulating others' emotions has a greater impact on work relationships than regulating one's own emotions. The effect of the extrinsic emotion regulation could be related to social feedback while the effect of the intrinsic emotion regulation might be related to personal resources. Moreover, the association between emotion regulation factors and work relationships was increased after the interventions.

Emotion Regulation and Organisational Commitment

Hypotheses 3a to 3d proposed that there would be an association between emotion regulation factors and organisational commitment. Figure 51 shows that employees who improve/worsen others' emotions are more likely to increase/decrease their organisational affective commitment, respectively. This impact could be due to the nature of affective commitment. Having high affective commitment means that employees are more likely to help others in doing what they need to do or give them helpful advice in order to perform a task. Also, it is more likely that they may not become annoying or rude when dealing with others. These behaviours could be a sign of having a high affective commitment. In fact, affective commitment is primarily a function of how one relates to other employees in the organisation (Meyer et al., 1993). Thus, when an employee wishes to engage in, and actually performs, behaviours designed to promote colleagues' positive emotions then this makes for a better relationships and a good place to work and so promotes organisational affective commitment. Conversely, if the employee is down regulating colleagues' emotions, then this signals that s/he is not satisfied with the workplace relationships and so his/her commitment

is reduced. Future studies may examine whether the calibre of workplace relationships mediates the association between extrinsic strategies and affective commitment.

Emotion Regulation and Work Well-Being

Finally, hypotheses 4a to 4d proposed that there would be an association between emotion regulation factors and job well-being. While improving and worsening others' emotion were found to have a significant impact on job performance, work relationships, and organisational commitment, no significant association was found with job well-being and job satisfaction in Study 1. However, the finding from diary data (Studies 2 and 3) was not consistent with this conclusion. Both intrinsic/extrinsic improving regulation strategies were found to associate with job well-being. This finding is consistent with the literature in which emotion regulation has a positive association with job satisfaction (Côté & Morgan, 2002) and well-being (Haga, Kraft & Corby, 2009). Regarding worsening regulation strategies, Studies 1, 2, and 3 each showed that only the intrinsic worsening regulation strategies have a negative association with job well-being.

Why was there no significant association in Study 1 between the extrinsic strategies and job well-being? It is possible that the organisational display rules undermine this association. It is expected that when the employees improve/worsen others' emotions, they are more likely to receive positive/negative feedback from colleagues or managers, which in turn would affect their own well-being. However, as the organisational rules involve displaying only acceptable emotions and behaviours during work, the employees are more likely not to worsen others' emotions even if they want to. Thus, they may display "surface acting" that suits the situation (Brotheridge, 2002). In this case, this surface acting may be weakly related to their real feelings which may or may not affect their well-being. In this

scenario, the organisational display rules undermine the association between extrinsic emotion regulation and job well-being.

Regarding the intrinsic emotion regulation, only the worsening strategies were found to be related to job well-being. This result is consistent with the literature. Cote and Morgan (2002) argued that people consider dealing with negative emotions as a negative demand. When employees, for example, worsen their own emotion as a strategy to deal with a situation, they are more likely to consider this strategy as a negative demand. In this case, they are more likely to feel depressed or anxious as a result of dealing with this negative demand. Finally, it should be noted that there was no significant association between the intrinsic improving strategies and job well-being. Although this finding is not consistent with the literature, future research should address this point as no specific reason could be identified to explain this effect.

The Importance of Job Outcomes

The first correlational study ended by proposing a model that may help enhance emotion regulation. Hypotheses 6a to 6d proposed that when employees value a particular aspects of a job outcome, this valuing would affect how they regulate their emotion which in turn affects job outcomes. This proposal is based on the idea that when individuals are asked to identify their desired outcomes and link them to their responses, they are more capable of handling self-regulatory problems (Gollwitzer & Sheeran, 2006). Thus, the findings from the first study suggested that employees perform better when they used worsening strategies less on themselves and others and place more value on work relationships and well-being. Also, employees had better relationships with others when they used worsening strategies less often on themselves and others and valued their work relationships, well-being, and commitment. On the other hand, the results suggest that employees would be happier and more committed

when they improve their own and others' emotion and place more value on work well-being and commitment.

Three points could be concluded from these findings. First, although many of the impacts of the interaction models were not significant, the findings indicate that valuing such outcomes does affect the impact of emotion regulation. Second, it seems that job performance and work relationships are affected more by the interaction between valuing a particular job and worsening emotion regulation; while job well-being and organisational commitment are affected more by the interaction between valuing a particular job and improving emotion regulation. Although it is not clear why these particular findings were obtained, future research may pursue this issue further. Third, it seems that valuing work relationships has the broadest influence on how emotion regulation relates to job outcomes. It is possible that the sociable work environment that characterises charities means that employees add more value to work relationships. For example, people who work in charity organisations may be expected to show more friendly behaviour at work as part of their religious behaviour. Therefore, this social environment may result in higher association with emotion regulation.

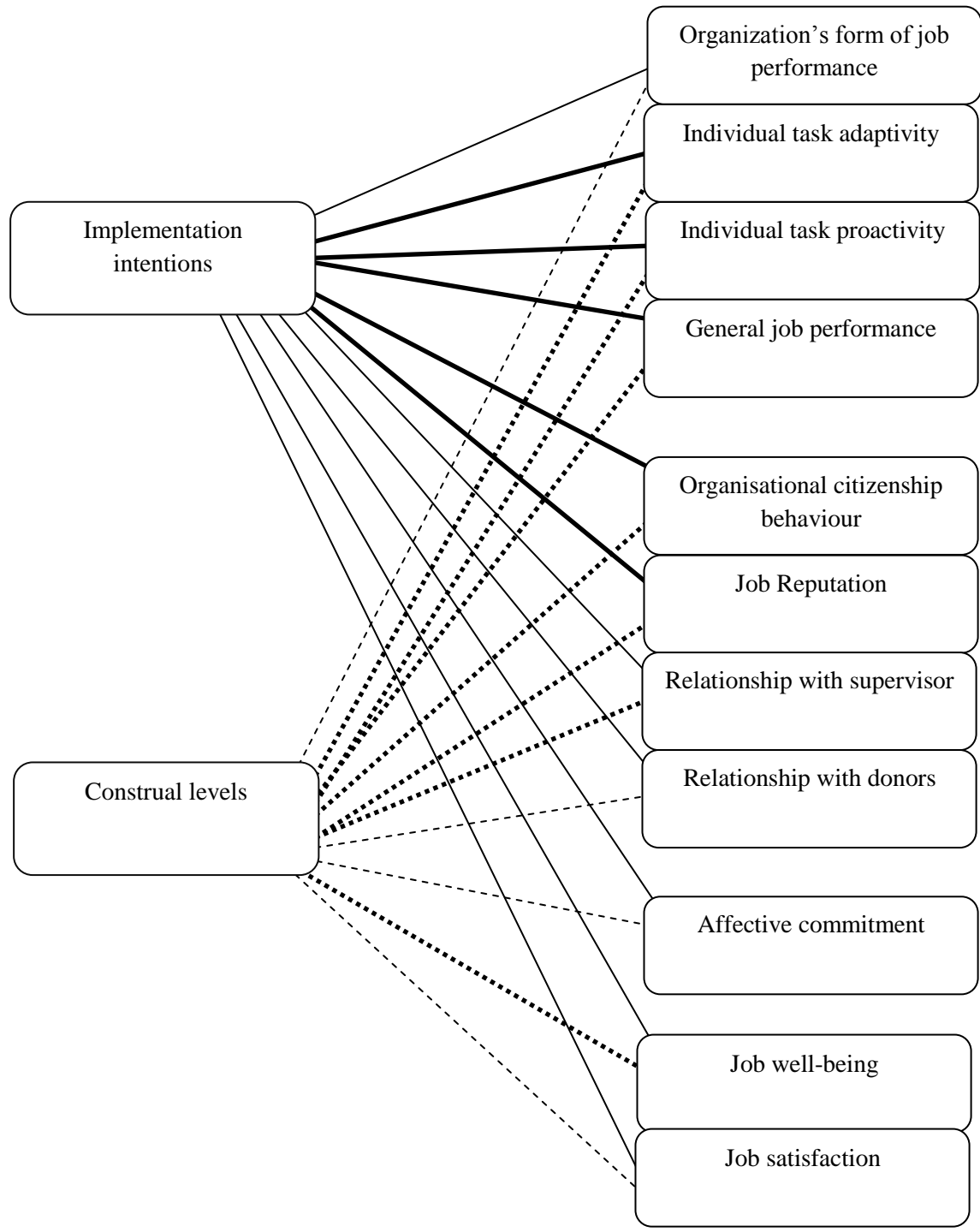
In summary, the four main previous findings suggest that improving/worsening others' emotion has more impact on the job outcomes (except job well-being) than improving/worsening ones' own emotion. It was suggested that the impact of emotion regulation on job performance and relationships could be related to social feedback. The results also suggested that the impact of emotion regulation on affective commitment could be related to the nature of affective commitment while the impact of job well-being may be related to the display rules. In addition, worsening one's own emotion was also found to be related to all main job outcomes except organisational commitment. The current thesis also suggests that personal resources may affect the association between intrinsic worsening emotion regulation strategies and job outcomes. In general, the current findings warrant

concluding that valuing particular job outcomes affects the relationship between emotion regulation and job outcomes. Thus, enhancing emotion regulation and job outcomes is possible when we focus on how to improve them through personal goals and intentions. The second and third studies were based on this potential in that they adopted two manipulations that were based on implementation intentions and construal levels. These two interventions rely on personal intentions and goals.

Enhancing Emotion Regulation through the Interventions

While the previous aim, which addressed the associations between emotion regulation factors and job outcomes, was mainly based on Study 1 data (the correlational study), the rest of the aims were addressed using the diary data and the questionnaire data (baseline, 1 month, and 8 months) from Studies 2 and 3. These aims were to assess whether emotion regulation could be enhanced through the use of implementation intentions and construal levels; whether this enhancement would affect job outcomes; and whether the impact of the interventions could be sustained a number of months after the interventions.

Implementation intentions are if-then plans that link responses that are effective in attaining desired outcomes or goals with situational cues for initiating those responses (Parks-Stamm et al., 2007). Implementation intentions helps initiate the action that is required to obtain a goal (Gollwitzer & Sheeran, 2006). On the other hand, construal levels were defined as “the perception of what will occur: the processes that give rise to the representation of the event itself” (Trope & Liberman, 2010, p. 445). Two levels of construal have been distinguished in order to deal with events, namely, a high level and a low level construal (Freitas et al., 2004; Trope & Liberman, 2003). High-level construal is more likely to be abstract, coherent, and super-ordinate mental representations while low-level construal attempts to be more specific by including contextual and subordinate features or the “irrelevant goals” of events (Trope & Liberman, 2003).



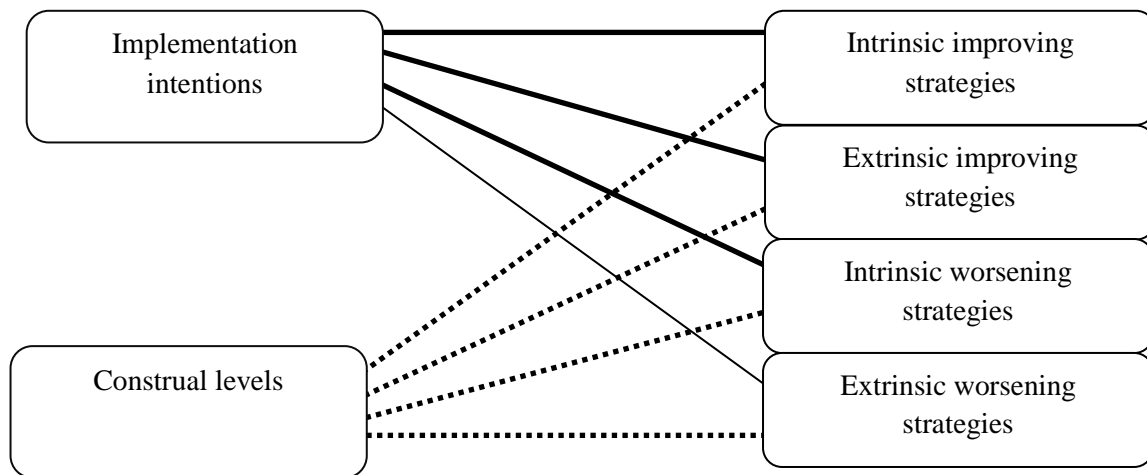


Figure 53: Findings for the impact of the interventions on emotion regulation and job outcomes. *Note:* Thick arrows = relationship was obtained by ANOVA and MLM analyses; thin arrows = relationship was obtained by one analysis.

Although the implementation intentions study and the construal study were applied in different organisations, a general comparison could be made as almost the same measures were used in both studies. It should be noted that the thesis does not aim to show which intervention is the best for enhancing emotion regulation and job outcomes. However, the thesis seeks to demonstrate that emotion regulation could be enhanced through these two interventions. In addition, the following discussion will be based mainly on the results from the diary data (lasted for a month), and the pre-post and follow-up questionnaire data (lasted for 8 months). These will be combined to have a broader view of the findings.

Figure 53 summarises the association between the interventions and emotion regulation and indicates that construal levels groups increased their use of the improving regulation strategies and decreased their use of the worsening regulation strategies compared to the baseline during the diary period. The ANOVA results are consistent with this finding and even suggested that the use of improving regulation strategies was increased over time while the use of the worsening regulation strategies was reduced over time compared to the baseline. This would suggest that construal levels have greater impact after the time has elapsed. The findings from the implementation intentions study are consistent with these

findings except for the fact that there was no significant effect of the intervention on using the extrinsic worsening strategies in the diary data while the ANOVA results supported the effect on these strategies after one month and even after 8 months. Thus, focusing on enhancing implementation intention and construal levels impacts positively on the use of the improving regulation strategies; while such enhancing impacts negatively on the use of worsening regulation strategies.

Why were the interventions successful in enhancing emotion regulation? Two observations could explain this effect. The first one is related to the success of applying emotion regulation strategies. In the second study, when the employees were asked to link the problems most faced at work to the best behavioural and emotional solutions, it was found that linking a solution to a specific problem not only affected that particular problem, but other problems were affected too. In other words, when the employees found that using specific emotion regulation strategies, such as behavioural and emotional solutions, were successful in solving a specific problem, they may be more likely to use them again to solve other problems. In this case, the employees' use of the improving strategies, as was found by the findings, would be increased while their use of the worsening strategies would be reduced. For example, when participants demonstrated that asking help from others would work as a good strategy to solve work stress, this link of a problem and a solution was not only found to affect positively on job performance, but also the relationships with others at work. It should be noted that the influence on other problems could also be related to the automatic process of the implementation intentions (Sheeran et al., 2005). Another explanation for this influence could be related to the complex relationship between the job outcomes. An implementation intention that benefits work stress could also influence performance because stress and performance are related. In addition, the impact of construal levels on emotion regulation could be indirectly affected by the behavioural and emotional

solutions that were chosen as a way to achieve the high or low construal levels. For example, the results from Study 3 suggested that about half of the low-level construal group asked for help from others as a way to enhance their job performance. This particular strategy is a well-known emotion regulation strategy (Parkinson & Totterdell, 1999). That is, the impact of the interventions seems to be related to the successful use of those solutions that were chosen by the employees (for the implementation intentions) and to those behavioural and emotional solutions that were chosen by the participants to achieve high or low construal levels.

Second, the follow-up study, which was conducted after eight months, suggests that implementation intentions and construal level interventions have greater impact after time has elapsed. In addition, the difference between high and low levels of construal was only apparent after the 8-month follow-up compared to the baseline. For example, the high construal group showed a higher reduction in their use of intrinsic/extrinsic worsening emotion regulation than the low construal group; while the low construal group improved their own and others' emotion more than the high construal group. Thus, the previous findings suggest that temporal distance may play a key role in determining how interventions enhance emotion regulation. It could be possible that over time, the interventions enable participants to learn how to improve their emotion. This suggestion is based on other research (Fujita et al., 2008; Trope & Liberman, 2000), which concluded that temporal distance has a significant effect on levels of construal. However, the impact of temporal distance on implementation intentions is still a debated issue (Sheeran & Silverman, 2003). Hence, the current thesis may add value to the literature by supporting the influence of temporal-impact. These two observations should be taken into account when designing how to enhance emotion regulation in the future using implementation intentions and construal levels interventions.

Enhancing Emotion Regulation and Improving Job Outcomes

Did the interventions succeed in enhancing the job outcomes? And was this effect mediated by emotion regulation? Before discussing the enhancement effect, it should be noted that the participants were asked to continue using the interventions until the follow-up questionnaire. After three months of the daily diary, the researcher asked some of them, by phone, and most of them assured me that they were still using the intervention. This was a double-check step to be sure that participants were following instructions to continue using their designated intervention.

Emotion Regulation and Job Performance

The results indicated that during the diary period, both implementation intentions and construal levels were found to significantly improve job performance. Although significant differences between the implementation intentions group and the control group were found during this period (baseline to 1-month follow-up) using the questionnaire measures, after eight months participants showed greater improvement on job performance factors compared to the diary period. The findings from the construal levels, which were compared to the baseline, were consistent with these findings. This improvement would suggest that time-distance was important; that is, it took time for strong effects of these interventions to emerge.

A significant difference was also found between the construal levels. The low-construal group, for example, showed a higher job performance compared to the high construal group. As was discussed in the previous chapter, low-level construals could be beneficial because when people learn how to do a task regularly, doing this task becomes easier as people are more familiar with this particular task. Evidence indeed indicates that when goals are familiar to individuals, low-level construals tend to facilitate those goals

(Förster et al., 2009). In addition, since performing tasks may require having knowledge about specific details, the low-level construals would be the best in helping to focus on such specific details as how, when, and where to perform the task.

In general, research supports the impact of implementation intentions (Ajzen & Czasch, 2009; Cohen et al., 2008; Miles & Proctor, 2008) and construal levels (Nussbaum et al., 2006; Trope & Liberman, 2003) on task performance. The findings from Study 2 indicated that the positive effects of forming implementation intentions on laboratory tasks extends to important ‘real-world’ tasks, namely, job performance. However, a key question asked in the present research is, whether this impact mediated by emotion regulation factors? The results indicated that improving one’s own and others’ emotions partly mediates the relationship between implementation intentions and job performance. Regarding the construal levels, the results suggested that not only intrinsic/extrinsic improving regulation strategies were found to have a partial mediation effect on the association between construal levels and job performance, but also intrinsic/extrinsic worsening strategies. This mediation effect could be related to the association found between high-level construal and intrinsic worsening emotion regulation, i.e., the high-level construal group showed the lowest use of worsening regulation strategies compared to the other group. In sum, the interventions successfully enhanced job performance and this enhancement was greater after more time had elapsed. In addition, this association was partly mediated by emotion regulation, especially intrinsic and extrinsic improving emotion regulation.

Emotion Regulation and Work Relationships

The results suggested that employees who were asked to use the implementation intentions strategy showed better relationships at work during the diary period. The literature also supports this finding by indicating that implementation intentions have an effective

impact on key social regulatory problems such as social anxiety (Webb et al., 2010). In addition, as with scholars who suggested that construal levels are related to social values (Rokeach, 1968; Watkins & Moulds, 2005), the current thesis indicated that construal levels impact positively on work relationships compared to the baseline. With greater time-distance, both interventions were also associated with a greater improvement in work relationships.

In addition, the results indicated that although the low-construal group showed better job performance, the high-construal group showed better work relationships. This high association between high-level construal and social relationships could be related to the association between high-level construal and self-control. Scholars suggest that activating high-level construal promotes self-control (Fujita et al., 2006). As self-control has also been linked to some social problems such as breakdown in relationships (Baumeister et al., 2007), it is expected that high-level construal would have more effects on job outcomes that include or are affected by social engagement.

It can be concluded that the results support the impact of the interventions on work relationships and that this impact increased over time. Did emotion regulation factors mediate the intervention-work relationship association? Again, intrinsic and extrinsic improving emotion regulations were found to mediate the association between implementation intentions and work relationship factors. However, no mediation effect of worsening strategies was found. The results of the construal level study suggested that both improving and worsening strategies mediated the association between intervention and work relationship factors. In this case, it seems that both interventions share the mediation effect of improving regulation strategies. As was mentioned earlier in this chapter, this mediation effect could be related to the social character of charity organisations such as the value of teamwork. In addition, the mediation effect of worsening one's own emotions could be based on the nature of the relationship between high construal level and negative emotions. Fujita and his

colleagues (2006) suggested that when individuals activate their high-level construals, they are more likely to deal more effectively with negative temptations. Thus, people who activate high-level construals may be more capable of handling negative emotions. That is, when the main goals are related to achieving relationship with others at work, employees who activate high-level construal tend to handle their use of the worsening emotion regulation, and therefore, gain better relationships. In sum, the findings support the impact of the interventions on work relationships, with both interventions showing that improving regulation strategies (and worsening regulation strategies in case of a construal-level study) are the main mediator of intervention effects on work relationships.

Emotion Regulation and Organisational Commitment

The current thesis proposed that implementation intentions and construal levels would affect organisational commitment. The results supported this proposal and suggested that the construal groups showed higher commitment after one month and even after 8 months compared to the baseline. This improvement could be related to activating the personal goals which may affect the employees' commitment. Also, the implementation intentions group showed higher commitment compared to the control group. This high impact of implementation intentions on organisational commitment could be because if-then plans play a key role in promoting personal commitment (Ajzen & Czausch, 2009). Hence, employees who were asked to use if-then plans may develop a higher personal commitment toward achieving these plans so as to solve their problems at work. In this case, they could be more capable of developing their organisational commitment over time.

Taking a general look at the effect of time-distance, the results indicated that all interventions developed a higher commitment in the long term. In fact, organisational commitment is expected to be influenced by time-distance. Scholars argue that people may

need a long time to achieve organisational commitment as it is a complicated process (Bateman & Strasser, 1984). Hence, it would seem that the effect of time distance affects almost every association between interventions and job outcomes. As organisational commitment needs a long time to be achieved, its measure was not represented in the daily diary. However, when adding worsening regulation strategies as covariates in the ANOVA analyses (the questionnaire data), no significant interaction between the implementation intentions x time and commitment was found. This would suggest that worsening strategies may partly explain the effect of implementation intention intervention on affective commitment. No significant effect was found when adding emotion regulation factors for the construal study. Future research may need to design a longitudinal study that includes a longer time period for assessing the mediation effect of emotion regulation.

Emotion Regulation and Job Well-being

Finally, the literature argues that implementation intentions are an effective strategy for handling anxiety (Parks-Stamm et al., 2010) and negative psychological stress (Scholz et al., 2009). The diary results did not support the view in the literature. The follow-up study, however, supported this effect and showed that implementation intentions have significant effects on anxiety, depression, comfort, enthusiasm, and emotional exhaustion after 8 months. This would suggest that job well-being was the one outcome that was most affected by time-distance compared to other outcomes. Although scholars have indicated that the impact of implementation intentions has similar effects in the short and long-term (Sheeran & Silverman, 2003), the current findings may add value to this debated issue by demonstrating the influence of time distance on implementation intentions.

As to the association between construal levels and job well-being, the results suggested that most of the job well-being factors (four of six factors) were significantly

affected compared to the baseline and the follow-up study confirmed that. This could be attributed to the impact of activating the construal levels. When employees, especially those who work in charity, discover or rediscover why they work in charity or how they could build relationships with donors, this thinking may enhance their motivation to work which is more likely to affect positively their feelings at work. This would impact positively on how the employees would feel at work.

With regard to the mediation effect, the diary results in the implementation intention study suggested that intrinsic improving regulation strategies were found to have a full mediation effect on three well-being factors (i.e., depression, anxiety, and job satisfaction) and a partial mediation effect on two factors (i.e., enthusiasm and emotional exhaustion). However, when adding worsening regulation strategies to the ANOVA analyses as covariates, the p value for some well-being factors became non-significant. This would suggest that worsening regulation strategies may also partly explain the effect of the implementation intentions on job well-being. In fact, it was expected that such a mediation effect would be observed for the association between the implementation intentions' and well-being factors. Regarding the construal study, four well-being factors (i.e., depression, enthusiasm, anxiety, and comfort) were found to be mediated by improving/worsening regulation strategies. The results from ANOVA analyses are consistent with this finding. Thus, it would seem that the impact of worsening strategies is more apparent in the construal study compared to the implementation intention study.

In summary, by examining the association between specific emotion regulation strategies and job outcomes, and examining how to enhance the use of emotion regulation strategies and thereby enhance job outcomes, a better understanding about the role of emotion regulation at work has been achieved.

Research Limitations

Although the current thesis has discovered some interesting findings, some research limitations should be acknowledged:

(i) The first study in the current thesis suffers from being a cross-sectional study.

Although some researchers prefer to use a cross-sectional study as it is cheaper and easier than other types of studies such as an experimental study especially in applied settings (Mann, 2003), others have indicated that it is difficult to separate cause from effect in the cross-sectional study as the measurements of the independent and dependent variables are collected at the same time. For example, when assessing the impact of using negative emotion regulation with others and job well-being, it is difficult to determine whether employees use negative emotion with others because they are “unhappy or depressed” or they are depressed because they use negative emotion with others. As a result, the second and third studies were based on experimental and longitudinal designs. In general, efforts were made to complement the self-reported design in the first study by obtaining their job information such as job performance not only from the employees themselves but also from their records within the organisation. However, this request was refused in the first study. On the other hand, this request was accepted in the second and third studies through having a 360 degree-design that included the evaluation by the employee him/herself, a co-worker, and the direct manager.

(ii) The current thesis suffers from using a questionnaire based on self-report scales. Self-reported questionnaire answers could be affected by the question’s structure. Schwarz indicated that “self-reports are a fallible source of data, and minor changes in question wording, question format, or question context can result in major changes in the obtained results” (1999, p. 93). However, self-reported questionnaires are frequently used in social sciences, including psychology (McDonald, 2008). For example, Vazire (2006) found that 98% of studies that were focused on personality traits and published in the Journal of

Research in Personality in 2003 were based on self-report scales. Many scholars believe that individuals may know about themselves more than others and this is why many of them prefer to use this self-report method (Paulhus & Vazire, 2007). Other scholars prefer to use the self-report method as it is inexpensive and a quick method to collect data (Kline, 1993). To avoid the impact on the question's structure in self-report scales, it was important that almost all measures adopted in the current thesis showed a fairly high level of reliability. Hence, the impact of the question's structure could be reduced when using reliable measures. The second limitation related to self-report questionnaire is the impact of social desirability bias as it may also shape the participants' answers. Paulhus (1991) suggested that individuals may prefer to answer according to what they like or what is preferable in their social environment more than their actual feelings or behaviours. One of the solutions that could reduce the social desirability bias is self-administration (Nederhof, 1985). Self-administration was achieved by assuring that employees who completed the questionnaire could seal it in an envelope and drop it in a box where nobody else could look at it. It was important that employees did not submit the questionnaire via their managers for then employees' answers could be affected by it and this may result in less biased responses. Future studies should consider using physiological indicators of well-being or behavioural measures of job performance.

(iii) For some participants, the length of the questionnaire was a problem especially if they had a lot of work to do. This problem was raised in the first study's response rate. From a total of 550 questionnaires, 230 questionnaires were returned for a 42% response rate. It was expected that participants would return the booklet within one week. They, however, reported that they needed more time to complete the booklet. Hence, the length of the questionnaire was considered in the second and third studies. Efforts were made to make the questionnaire and the daily diary short, consistent, and pleasant. For example, participants

who completed the daily diary received an invitation for two to dine at a famous restaurant in Kuwait. In addition, the unnecessary or minor measures were deleted from the questionnaire in the second and the third studies. In the third study, the intervention design “construal levels” considered this limitation by asking the participants to write down their answers for the intervention just once a week instead of writing down their answers daily. By implementing these changes, I attempted to deal with the issue of the questionnaire’s length.

(iv) As the booklet consisted of some questions that could be classified as sensitive in nature, three participants refused to participate in the research. They were afraid that their answers may be accessed by their managers. Although they had been assured that their data will be treated confidentially and used for research purposes only, and that only the researcher will have access to the individual data, meaning that the managers did not have access at all to individuals’ responses to the questionnaires, they were still not comfortable with it. Accordingly, a box was designed and put in the organisation and no one could open this box except the researcher. Afterwards, employees felt more comfortable to participate in the research.

(v) In addition, as to the data collected from charitable organisations, generalising the findings to other workplaces could be problematic because of the nature of the working environment within charitable organisations. Research, however, indicates that non-profit organisations are growing in number and becoming more competitive and therefore perhaps more comparable to other types of organisations (Giving Institute, 2002). In Kuwait, these organisations are also changing their scope from just being charitable organisations to becoming more professional and formal organisations. In particular, the interviews conducted for the second study concluded that the chance to generalise the thesis’ results to other work contexts is high according to Participant B who indicated that “in the past, working in charity is very simple so it was different from working in a private business. However, nowadays,

charity organisations have developed their work to be better and more comprehensive which make working within them equal to working in a private business". Thus, the opportunity to generalise the findings may be greater when considering the professional work environment in charity organisations. However, how generalisable are the present findings is an empirical issue that will need to be addressed in future research.

(vi) The second and third studies were mainly based on a daily diary design. Having a daily diary design for one month was very difficult for one researcher to undertake. For example, I had to communicate individually and daily with all participants to be sure that they complete the diary. Hence, a text message was sent twice each day to remind employees about the diary. In the future, two to three research assistants should be involved in such a research design. Also, reminders could also be pre-programmed.

(vii) Although women participated in the first study, no woman agreed to participate in the second and third studies. Despite that fact that they were asked in person to participate in the research, none of them participated. The reason for their unwillingness to participate in the research may be related to the work office. In the first study, the data were collected from the main office building in addition to other sub-office buildings. However, the data in the second and third studies were collected only from the main office building. In fact, the organisations in the second and third studies agreed to collect the data only from the main building. This may lead to the conclusion that almost all women in these organisations worked in the sub-office building. I have asked the organisation, after conducting the second and third studies, about this issue and they confirmed that most of the women work in the sub-office building.

(viii) Also, Studies 2 and 3 used relatively small samples (about 40 participants in each study). Undertaking research with a larger number of participants was not feasible in the present research. However, larger-scale studies would be desirable in the future.

(ix) Finally, although scholars have indicated that the control group is an essential way to avoid any bias that may occur according to the research design (Foulkes, 2008), the third study design did not include a control group. The organisation where the data was collected from would not allow more than 45 employees to participate. As the third study was aimed at measuring the impact of low and high construal levels on emotion regulation and job outcomes, the researcher was forced to design the third study with two experimental groups but without a control group. In the future, it would be useful to include a control group against which to measure the impact of the intervention.

The Contribution of the Research

The current thesis makes several contributions to the literature. First, occupational research has primarily focused on self-regulation. In addition, scholars have primarily focused on using emotional expression to alter others' emotions (Niven et al., 2009). However, there has been little investigation of other forms of interpersonal emotion regulation. Moreover, most scholars have focused on how people improve their own or others' emotions. However, people also tend to worsen their own or other's emotions (Niven, Totterdell, Stride, et al., 2011). Hence, the current thesis highlighted the importance of intrinsic/extrinsic and improving/worsening emotion regulation strategies. In fact, the results, especially in the second and third studies, suggested that the impact of regulating others' emotions, especially the improving ones, has more to do with job outcomes than does regulating one's own emotions. Again, this finding indicates the importance of assessing the strategies that people use to regulate others' emotion.

Second, no studies have addressed the association between emotion regulation and a range of job outcomes (i.e., job performance, work relationships, organisational commitment, and job well-being) at the same time so that the relationships are studied under the same conditions. For example, most of studies only assessed the association between emotion regulation and job performance or job well-being alone; however, as far as I know, no study has investigated the relationship between emotion regulation and the four main job outcomes at the same time and among the same sample. Thus, the current thesis helps in providing a better understanding about the role of emotion regulation in the workplace and may help organisations to design appropriate training programs. For example, employees who tend to regulate others' negative emotions are more likely to deal better with customers. Thus, organisations could train their employees, especially those who work in customer service, on how to regulate others' emotions.

Third, there have been few field experimental studies concerning emotion regulation and job outcomes, e.g., improving moods for trainee teachers (Totterdell & Parkinson, 1999). Thus, the current thesis contributes to the literature by conducting two experimental studies.

Fourth, most of the studies that linked emotion regulation to job performance were found to be based on experimental manipulated tasks (Goldberg & Grandey, 2007) or based on self-reported evaluation (Law et al., 2008). However, the current thesis is based on measuring "real" job performance by the employee him/herself, a co-worker, and a direct manager.

Fifth, no previous study appears to have assessed the impact of an implementation intentions intervention on emotion regulation in the workplace. In particular, the implementation intentions study had several important features: (a) a diary method was used which has allowed me to test within-person relationships, (b) an experimental manipulation

was assessed which helped resolve causal issues, (c) the implementation intentions intervention was used in a workplace setting to try to use knowledge of emotion regulation to enhance employees' performance, commitment, relationships, and well-being, (d) effects were examined to see if they were sustained for the long-term, and (e) the results have practical relevance for organisations, especially in relation to training. Thus, the current thesis may be used as a basis for further investigation of enhancing emotion regulation through implementation intentions.

Sixth, the same points described in the previous paragraph also characterise the construal level study. The results suggested that both high and low levels of construal have successfully enhanced emotion regulation. As with the previous contribution, this thesis adds a new dimension to the literature by suggesting that modifying construal levels can enhance emotion regulation.

Seventh, the results suggested that the effect of the interventions persisted over time, for at least eight months. This would suggest that future research should consider the time effect if they wish to enhance emotion regulation. More research should assess such long-term impacts in the future.

Finally, the current thesis adds to evidence of the validity of the *emotion regulation of others and self* (EROS) scale (Niven, Totterdell, Stride, et al., 2011). The findings suggested that EROS is a valid measure not only for the UK population, but also for the Kuwaiti population. In fact, the current thesis is the first to have used EROS in the Middle East. Hence, by supporting the validity of this measure, the current thesis may help enrich emotion regulation literature. In addition, the findings indicate that EROS is acceptable within the work context and more specifically within charity organisations. This would also increase the

validity of EROS by having it applied in a work context in conjunction with some of the job outcomes. Future research may assess the impact of EROS in other populations.

Directions for Future Research

Three main directions could be recommended for future research. The first direction is related to the use of emotion regulation strategies. Two observations could be further examined in relation to this point: (i) the results suggest that people tend to use the same strategies with others and with themselves. However, the cause-effect relationship is not yet clarified (see Niven et al., in press). In addition, is there an automatic association between them? Future research may investigate this association further as it will save researchers and organisations time and effort in training purposes. For example, future research may address the impact of social feedback on this association. In particular, positive feedback may increase how often or how well people improve others' emotion. Then, when people find that improving others' emotions is successful, they may try to use these strategies on themselves. Another possibility is that positive feedback from other people may make people feel good about themselves. In these scenarios, social feedback impacts how individuals express themselves which in turn, when it is successful, may affect self-regulation. That is, positive feedback may mediate the association between intrinsic and extrinsic emotion regulation. (ii) Improving others' emotions was found to be the factor that most affects job outcomes and mediates the association between the interventions (especially implementation intentions) and job outcomes. Future research may examine why this particular factor has the strongest association. Is it because of the highly sociable environment that characterised the charitable organisations involved? Or is it because the research assessed the relationships between a direct manager and co-workers who all work in the same department? Future research may expand the circle to include relationships with higher administration, indirect managers, and other co-workers who work in different sectors. In addition, future research might want to

address using emotion regulation factors in other organisational contexts that involve indirect interaction with clients such as call centres.

The second direction concerns to the association between emotion regulation and job outcomes. Three observations could be mentioned here: (i) it seems that receiving positive/negative feedback affects the association between extrinsic emotion regulation and certain job outcomes such as job performance and work relationships. Future research may extend this suggestion to assess the possible mediation effect of feedback on this association. (ii) Organisational display rules could also influence the association between emotion regulation and job well-being. Future research may assess the impact of this factor too. (iii) Finally, according to the correlational study (Study 1), intrinsic worsening regulation strategies were found to have significant associations with job performance and work relationships while no effect of intrinsic improving regulation strategies was found. I suggested that this was attributed to the impact of negative emotions on personal resources (Muraven & Baumeister, 2000). Thus, future research may assess the mediation effect of these resources.

The third direction is related to the interventions. (i) When describing why the interventions were successful in enhancing emotion regulation and job outcomes, I proposed that the impact of the interventions seems to be related to the successful use of those solutions that were chosen by the employees (for the implementation intentions) and of those behavioural and emotional solutions that were chosen by the participants to achieve high or low construal levels. This observation may help researchers and organisations in their effort to promote job outcomes by indicating what are the most important solutions. (ii) The impact of the interventions was found to increase over time. Future research should address this observation to determine the impact of time-distance on the interventions, emotion regulation, and job outcomes. (iii) Activating low-level construals was found to be related to

more use of improving regulation strategies, while activating high-level construals seems related to less use of worsening regulation strategies. Future research interested in the association between construal levels and emotion regulation may assess the reasons behind these associations. For example, future research may train the employees who work in marketing jobs on how to activate low-level construals. Training employees to use low-level construal may result in more use of improving emotion regulation strategies which may be essential in marketing jobs. However, if the employees who work in front-line jobs, e.g., customer service, are trained to use high-level construals, they may be more capable of using less negative emotion regulation. That is, future research should assess this association in different job types.

Conclusion

In summary, the current thesis has helped build a better understanding of the role of emotion regulation in the workplace through four aims. The first aim was to propose and test a model of the association between emotion regulation and job outcomes. This aim was mainly assessed by the correlational study (Study 1). It was found that extrinsic emotion regulation strategies are the factors most closely associated with almost all job outcomes except job well-being. Social feedback, organizational display rules, and personal resources were proposed to affect the association between emotion regulation and job outcomes. Study 1 ended with the conclusion that although the impact of the association between valuing a particular job and emotion regulation on job outcomes was weakly supported, emotion regulation and job outcomes could be enhanced through employees' intentions and goals. That is, this conclusion helped me link the first study to the next two experimental studies by showing that emotion regulation could be enhanced through employees' intentions and goals. Thus, the first study findings led to the development and testing of two interventions, namely, implementation intentions and construal levels.

The second and third aims were to investigate whether the implementation intention and construal levels interventions can promote effective use of emotion regulation strategies in order to enhance job outcomes. As was expected, the interventions were found to significantly enhance emotion regulation except for the association between the implementation intentions and extrinsic worsening emotion regulation (EWS) during the diary period. However, the follow-up study extended this impact to include EWS. In addition, implementation intentions planners and those who activate their high/low levels of construal were found to have higher job performance, job well-being, commitment, and better work relationships. Based on these results, I proposed that two factors could affect these associations. The first concerns the impact of time-distance, while the second is related to the successful applying of the if-then plans. Finally, from the mediation effects that were obtained by the diary data, it was concluded that intrinsic/extrinsic improving regulation strategies (Study 2) and all emotion regulation strategies (Study 3) mediated the association between the interventions and almost all of the job outcomes (except comfort, job satisfaction, and the relationship with donors in Study 2 and enthusiasm and job satisfaction in Study 3).

The last aim was to examine whether the effects of the interventions on emotion regulation and job outcomes are sustained for a number of months after the interventions. The follow-up survey in Studies 2 and 3 indicated a significant improvement in all emotion regulation factors and job outcomes, especially job well-being. Thus, the current thesis forms a basis for further investigation on the role of emotion regulation at work.

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Appendix 1

Example of the interviews

Interview 1 (17-07-2010)

Interviewer: Hello Mr. A. I am so glad to have this meeting with you. I hope that you will enjoy it. As I told you over the phone, we will discuss the problems faced by employees. Also, we will discuss the best solution for each problem in relation to emotional behaviour. Finally, I would like to discuss this question with you: “Do different types of emotion regulation behaviours result in different job outcomes?” If so, how?

Mr. A: It seems interesting. I am happy to answer any question.

Interviewer: Fine, so let’s begin. I am very interested in your experience with the charity organisations. Could you please give me a brief overview of your past experiences?

Mr. A: With pleasure. I have been working with charity organisations since the 1970s. At that time, there wasn’t any official charity organisation in Kuwait and I am one of the first to establish a charity in Kuwait.

Interviewer: Very interesting, so you have a very long experience with charity work in Kuwait and you’ve definitely faced many problems during your working career.

Mr. A: Yes. In 40 years, I have developed my skills in charity and I have experienced many problems with employees and donors and even with other charity organisations.

Interviewer: Aha. I am now interested in the most frequent problems that you or other colleagues encountered in the workplace. As I understood from you over the phone, you had problems with some managers and charity organisations, but I would like to focus on the problems that the employees encountered.

Mr. A: Since you would rather focus only on the problems related to employees, then this is where we are. One of the most significant factors in the workplace is how the employee looks at his or her job, especially in charity. Unfortunately, in the past, many employees looked at their jobs as a way of getting money. Also, as they looked only for money, their commitment toward their organisation was not strong. But recently, we are trying to encourage employees to look at their job as charity, as a way to heaven as well.

Interviewer: Aha. I would like to discuss your solution a bit more in the next question but I'd like now to discuss a bit more about the problems in the workplace. You have just mentioned that you still have some problems with employees' commitment as they consider their job only as a way of making money. In my opinion, what is wrong when you have this attitude toward your job? Almost everyone looks at their job in this way.

Mr. A: I agree with you in general, but employees, especially in the charity organisations, should not take on a job just for the money as there are many other factors that should be important when choosing a job.

Interviewer: Yes, I would like to discuss these factors but I'm afraid we may end up changing the purpose of this meeting. Could you please tell me another problem?

Mr. A: Sure. In my opinion, it is the most important problem facing employees and managers too. It is the job stress. In the past, I have been working as a manager in an organisation; you can not imagine how hard it is to handle the work at that time. I had many tasks to do and sectors to manage. Now, my position is shared by 5 managers. I used to do what 5 managers now do in this organisation. This situation also affected my secretary and the employees who worked with me. You may think that this problem is over and done with these days, but no. It still happens in many charitable organisations. This problem leads to another problem, namely, the unpleasant feeling in the workplace. Some employees feel that the workplace makes them feel bored especially those with administrative jobs.

Interviewer: Could you please illustrate why those in administration have an unpleasant experience in their work compared to others?

Mr. A: Some employees have field work; they collect charity from different places. Hence, even if they feel stressed, they may not feel bored. But for employees who work in the office, they don't feel like that at all. That is a problem that makes the workplace an unpleasant environment.

Interviewer: Do you have problems that are related to the job-performance?

Mr. A: I remember two more. Yes. We sometimes face a problem when the relationship between the employees and the manager is not good and the problem could be related to past relationships especially if he, who was once a co-worker, is now a manager. This bad

relationship could negatively affect the job performance. Also, we sometimes observe that fewer employees even care about their job performance even if they know about it.

Interviewer: Do you mean that they don't care about their reputation at work?

Mr. A: Yes, and we sometimes have employees who care about their reputation more than others but this results in them losing friends at work simply because they care.

Interviewer: When you mentioned relationship at work, could you describe a few problems related to it? Also, could you explain the last problem?

Mr. A: Sometimes, when an employee cares more about his reputation, he spends little time with other employees because he wants to be the best. Although he would have a high job performance, his relationship is not as good as expected which prevents him from teaching or helping other employees due to his excellent experience. We sometimes found that relationships among employees are not as good as expected especially in this type of work.

Interviewer: What do you mean by "not...as expected"?

Mr. A: I mean that in this work, we look at a relationship that ought to be considered as a complementary relationship but not a competitive one.

Interviewer: I see.

Mr. A: There is another problem. As you know how some people in Kuwait looked at Palestine, for example, so they helped Saddam when he invaded Kuwait in 1990. Sometimes, we have to be cautious about introducing charity if it is for Palestine. In fact, our employees should have had the required ability to manage their emotions in this case.

Interviewer: I think that is enough for this problem. Could you now explain to me please the best behavioural solution for each one of them?

Mr. A: If we want to discuss each one of them, it will take a long time. But in general, I think that looking at the positive side of any problem could be one of the best behavioural solutions for many things in the life. Also, when employees see their managers as an excellent example in their commitment to the organisation or their behaviour at work, they will mimic them in many things and seek advice from them. In addition, we are interested in doing social activities that could strengthen the relationships among employees and make the workplace a happier one.

Interviewer: Thanks a lot. I have here some problems and solutions that I have developed from my experience with charity. I would like to improve it by adding or deleting some items.

Mr. A: What can I say? You've reduced my experiences to no more than 2 pages. Good work. I think that some problems and solutions are more important than others like the stress at work and the relationships among employees. But you could put all of them together in order to have a more comprehensive picture. About the solution, you could find another solution that is related to the managers and the administration.

Interviewer: Yes I think so, but I want to focus on employees and the behavioural solution. I know that there are many other solutions, but would you suggest any other solution?

Mr. A: Then, I suggest that you add a solution that is related to charity work. For example, if you face stress at work, you make them remind you that this work will lead you to heaven and that GOD will be pleased with you. This solution may be one of the best especially for those who work in charity.

Interviewer: Very good solutions. Thanks. I would like to end the interview by asking you about emotion regulation. Emotion regulation could be divided into two main factors: internal emotion regulation and external emotion regulation. Both of them could be positive and negative. In your opinion, could each one of them relate to specific job outcomes like job performance, job commitment, relationship at work, job reputation, job satisfaction and well-being?

Mr. A: I think that the external positive emotion regulation could be related to good relationship at work with managers and employees and even with donors. I remember my secretary when he did something wrong 13 years ago. I talked to him gently and asked him not to do it again; he really was happy because I treated him as a man and he didn't do it again. I think it will also influence job reputation as the reputation could be part of the social relationship in the workplace. I think the external negative emotion regulation could reduce the job performance in general. But in some cases, it will not. And if the job performance decreases, I think the employee will have a low commitment to the organisation. I think the internal positive emotion regulation may or may not have any relationship with all the job outcomes. The reason is that according to the Eastern culture, we usually hide our own feelings as part of our culture and I think that self emotion regulation is a precursor for almost all the

others parts of emotion regulation. So, we may find that it influences all of the outcomes or it is hidden and is influenced by other factors.

Interviewer: Wow. You speak as a psychologist.

Mr. A: You can say that. I like psychology especially educational psychology.

Interviewer: I really enjoy this meeting with you. Thanks for your time. Do you have any another comments or ideas?

Mr. A: No thanks.

Appendix 2

Implementation intentions sheet

Below are a number of common problems that employees in charitable organisations encounter. Please go down the left hand column and pick at least **three** that you regularly encounter. Tick those three problems. Now go to the other column which contains solutions, and identify the solutions that would work best for your chosen problems. Underneath each problem that you have chosen, **write the best solution** in the space provided. Make sure you have written your chosen solution for at least three problems. Now go over the statement to make sure it is clear in your mind. There is no right or wrong answer; it is just what you think that matters.

Problems

Solutions

<p>IF I am assigned to carry out many tasks in a short time, then I </p>	<p>...Then I will remind myself the extent of my ability and how i could solve this problem.</p>
<p>IF I don't care about my commitment toward the organisation, Then I... </p>	<p>...Then I will consider the positive aspects of that problem.</p> <p>...Then I will seek an advice to solve the problem.</p>
<p>IF I feel that my work has become boring and I began to feel unpleasant, Then I</p>	<p>...Then I will engage in some activities or things that I like to solve this problem.</p> <p>...Then I will ignore my feelings and try to put things in perspective.</p>
<p>IF I discover that my job reputation is lower than my colleagues' reputation at work, Then I</p>	<p>...Then I will remind myself how many times I have been respected and appreciated within the work. .</p>
<p>IF I feel that the relationship with my supervisor is poor, Then I</p>	<p>...Then I will stir up some humor or interesting topics to resolve this problem.</p>
<p>IF I do not obtain a social support from my colleagues at work, Then I </p>	<p>...Then I will remind myself how I have successfully solved previous situations that have the same problem.</p>
<p>IF the client or donor is being rude, Then I </p>	<p>...Then I will look to the problem from outside perspective (as another person).</p>

	... Then I will tell myself that i am a good person.
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Below are a number of common problems that employees in charitable organisations encounter with **their co-workers, clients, and supervisors**. Please go down the left hand column and pick at least **three** that your colleagues regularly encounter. Tick those three problems. Now go to the other column which contains solutions, and identify the solutions that would work best for your colleagues problems. Underneath each problem that you have chosen, **write the best solution** in the space provided. Make sure you have written your chosen solution for at least three problems. Now go over the statement to make sure it is clear in your mind. There is no right or wrong answer; it is just what you think that matters.

Problems

Solutions

<p>IF one of my colleagues assign to carry out many tasks in a short time, Then I</p> <p>IF one of my colleagues doesn't care about his/her commitment toward the organisation, Then I... </p> <p>IF one of my colleagues feel that his/her work has become boring and he/she began to feel unpleasant, Then I</p> <p>IF one of my colleagues discover that his/her job reputation is lower than others' reputation at work, Then I</p> <p>IF one of my colleagues feel that the relationship with his/her supervisor is poor, Then I</p> <p>IF one of my colleagues do not find a social support from his/her colleagues at work, Then I </p> <p>IF the client or donor is being rude to one of my colleagues, Then I </p>	<p>...Then I will remind him/her the extent of his/her ability and how he/she could solve this problem.</p> <p>...Then I will let him/her consider the positive aspects of that problem.</p> <p>...Then I will give him/her an advice to solve the problem.</p> <p>...Then I will engage him/her in some activities or things that he/she likes to solve this problem.</p> <p>...Then I will encourage him/her to ignore his/her feelings and try to put things in perspective.</p> <p>...Then I will remind him/her how many times he/she has been respected and appreciated within the work.</p> <p>...Then I will stir up some humor or interesting topics to resolve this problem.</p> <p>...Then I will remind him/her how he/she has successfully solved previous situations that have the same problem.</p> <p>...Then I will encourage him/her to look to the problem from outside perspective (as another person).</p> <p>...Then I will tell him/her that he/she is a good person.</p>
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Appendix 3

High and low levels of construal interventions

Below, you will be asked about the most important job outcome that is valued to you today. There is no right or wrong answer; it is just what you think that matters.

Please answer the question by giving **at least two answers**. Then, please provide **one sub-answer for each main answer**.

Please provide answers that are related to the workplace such as your **relationship with your supervisor, clients, and co-worker**, your **job reputation**, your **well-being at work**, and your **job performance**.

Today, what is the most important job outcome for you?

.....

Why is it important?

(Answer 1)

.....
.....

According to your answer, why you choose this reason?

.....
.....

(Answer 2)

.....
.....

According to your answer, why you choose this reason?

.....
.....

Below, you will be asked about the most important job outcome that is valued to you today. There is no right or wrong answer; it is just what you think that matters.

Please answer the question by giving **at least two answers**. Then, please provide **one sub-answer for each main answer**.

Please provide answers that are related to the workplace such as your **relationship with your supervisor, clients, and co-worker**, your **job reputation**, your **well-being at work**, and your **job performance**.

Today, what is the most important job outcome for you?

.....

How you perform this job outcome?

(Answer 1)

.....
.....

According to your answer, how you perform or execute it?

.....
.....

(Answer 2)

.....
.....

According to your answer, how you perform or execute it?

.....
.....

Appendix 4

The questionnaire

- ***Participants required:***

1. Males and females aged 18 and above who work in this organisation (full-time or referral system's employee).
2. If you agree to participate, you will be asked to complete this booklet. That will take about 50 minutes.

Participation in this study is entirely voluntary. You are free to withdraw from this study at any time.

- ***Aim of the study:***

This study is being undertaken as part of the requirements of a PHD degree in Psychological Research at the University of Sheffield. The purpose of this questionnaire is to improve job outcomes such as job performance, job satisfaction, reputation, commitment and social relationships through the influence of emotional intelligence, emotional regulation strategies and motivation.

All sheets containing your ratings will be coded by number only, not by name, so that anonymity and confidentiality is assured. The results of this study may be published but they will refer to group data only. Individual results will not be described.

Any questions about this study can be directed to **Abdulrahman Alfalah**, email: boazez_2020@hotmail.com.

Thank you for your help in participating in this research

Abdulrahman Alfalah

Department of Psychology

The University of Sheffield

Section I

- There are occasions when people try to make themselves feel better (e.g., happier, calmer, less anxious, less angry) and occasions when they try to make themselves feel worse (e.g., less cheerful, less excited, more angry, more worried).
- To what extent have you used the following strategies to influence the way you feel over the past four weeks. It does not matter whether the strategies worked or not, just the extent to which you used them.

	Not at all	Just a little	Moderate amount	Quite a lot	A great deal
1. I looked for problems in my current situation to try to make myself feel worse	1	2	3	4	5
2. I thought about my positive characteristics to try to make myself feel better	1	2	3	4	5
3. I laughed to try to improve how I felt	1	2	3	4	5
4. I expressed cynicism to try to make myself feel worse	1	2	3	4	5
5. I thought about my shortcomings to try to make myself feel worse	1	2	3	4	5
6. I did something I enjoy to try to improve how I felt	1	2	3	4	5
7. I sought support from others to try to make myself feel better	1	2	3	4	5
8. I thought about negative experiences to try to make myself feel worse	1	2	3	4	5
9. I thought about something nice to try to make myself feel better	1	2	3	4	5
10. I thought of positive aspects of my situation to try to improve how I felt	1	2	3	4	5

- There are occasions when people try to make others feel better (e.g., happier, calmer, less anxious, less angry) and occasions when they try to make others feel worse (e.g. less cheerful, less excited, more angry, more worried).
- To what extent have you used the following strategies to influence the way someone else feels over the past four weeks. It does not matter whether the strategies worked or not, just the extent to which you used them.

	Not at all	Just a little	Moderate amount	Quite a lot	A great deal
1- I gave someone helpful advice to try to improve how they felt.	1	2	3	4	5
2- I told someone about their shortcomings to try to make them feel worse.	1	2	3	4	5
3- I did something nice with someone to try to make them feel better.	1	2	3	4	5
4- I acted annoyed towards someone to try to make them feel worse.	1	2	3	4	5
5- I explained to someone how they had hurt myself or others, to try to make the person feel worse.	1	2	3	4	5
6- I discussed someone's positive characteristics to try to improve how they felt.	1	2	3	4	5
7- I made someone laugh to try to make them feel better.	1	2	3	4	5

8-	I listened to someone's problems to try to improve how they felt.	1	2	3	4	5
9-	I spent time with someone to try to improve how they felt.	1	2	3	4	5

Section II

- In general, do you agree with the following statements?

	strongly disagree	disagree	neither disagree nor agree	agree	strongly agree
1. I take time to listen to the problems and worries of other employees.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I help other employees with difficult tasks even when they don't directly ask for assistance.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I have taken a personal interest in other employees.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I help other employees with heavy workloads even though it is not part of my job.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I frequently do extra things I know I won't be rewarded for, but which makes my efforts with other employees more productive.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I help other employees when they have been off work.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I pass on new information that might be useful to other employees.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I willingly help other employees, even at some cost to personal productivity.	1	2	3	4	5
9. When making decisions at work that affect employees, I try to take other employee's needs and feeling into account.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I try not to make things difficult for other employees by my careless actions.	1	2	3	4	5

- In the following items, you will ask about your relationship with the donor during the last six months.

	The relationships have been achieved			The relationships have been achieved more than expected		Model relationships have been achieved	
1. I established a personal and distinct relationship with donors.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I made easily new relationships with new donors.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I kept in touch regularly with donors by (phone, email, messages, or face to face).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I have established many successful relationships with donors when comparing me with other employees.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Even though I did not find an attention by the donor, I had done everything to create such a relationship.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I tried to reach the largest amount of donors, regardless of the extent to which donor financial contributions to my organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

- When thinking about your organisation, how much do you agree with the following statement?

	A great deal lower	Much lower	To some degree lower	Slightly lower	Neither lower nor higher	Slightly higher	To some degree higher	Much higher	A great deal higher
Relative to all other employees that you know in the organisation, what is your personal view of the reputation of yourself in terms of your overall effectiveness in the job role?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

- In the following items, you will be asked about your relationship with your supervisor. Researcher ensures that this information will be treated confidentiality, so please kindly by expressing your opinion and put a line under the right word.

1. How would you characterize your working relationship with your supervisor?	Extremely ineffective	worse than average	average	better than average	extremely effective
2. When comparing to your colleagues, what is the degree of your relationship with your supervisor?	Bad relation	Normal relation	Good relation	Excellent relation	Ideal relation
3. During the work, did you develop informal relationships with your supervisor?	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Usually	Always

- In the following items, you will be asked about your performance at work during the past four weeks.

	Very little	low	In the average	many	Great deal
1. Adapted well to changes in core tasks.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Initiated better ways of doing your core tasks.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Coped with changes to the way you have to do your tasks.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Come up with ideas to improve the way in which your core tasks are done.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Learned new skills to help you adapt to changes in your core task.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Made changes to the way your core tasks are done.	1	2	3	4	5

- In general, to what extent you evaluate your job performance?

	fair			good		excellent
My general performance at work is	1	2	3	4	5	6 7

- When thinking about your organisation, how much do you agree with the following statements.

	strongly disagree	disagree	slightly disagree	neither disagree nor agree	slightly agree	Agree	strongly agree
1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Right now, staying with my organisation is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organisation now.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. It would be very hard for me to leave my organisation right now, even if I wanted to.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I do not feel (part of the family) at my organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I would feel guilty if I left my organisation now.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organisation now.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. I do not feel (emotionally attached) to this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. This organisation deserves my loyalty.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. I would not leave my organisation right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. If I had not already put so much of myself into this organisation, I might consider working elsewhere.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. I owe a great deal to my organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organisation would be the scarcity of available alternatives	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

•How satisfied are you with:

	Extremely dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied	Moderately dissatisfied	Not sure	Moderately satisfied	Very satisfied	Extremely satisfied
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. The freedom to choose your own method of working.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Your fellow colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. The recognition you get for good work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Your immediate boss.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. The amount of responsibility you are given.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Your salary.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. The team working arrangements.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. The opportunity to use your ability.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Relationships between different levels in the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Your chance of promotion.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. The way your firm is managed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. The attention paid to suggestions you make.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Your hours of work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. The amount of variety in your job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Your job security.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. The physical working conditions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

- In the following items, you will be asked about your general performance at work. Please evaluate yourself by filling up the column “evaluate yourself”. For example, in item 2, you could evaluate yourself 7/10.

evaluation materials	N	Elements of Evaluation	grade	Evaluate yourself
General performance	1	Precision performance	15/15	
	2	Speed performance	10/10	
	3	time management	5/5	
	4	Make every effort	5/5	
	5	Development of endogenous capacities in the area of work	5/5	
	6	maintain the implementation of the rules and regulations	5/5	
	7	Maintain the secrets of work	5/5	
	8	Obedience and respect for the bosses	5/5	
	9	Maintain the official opening hours	5/5	
Personal characteristics	10	Creativity and innovation in the work	5/5	
	11	Development of professional skills	5/5	
	12	The ability to understand and implement the tasks	5/5	
	13	The initiative in offering constructive suggestions	5/5	
	14	personal appearance	5/5	
	15	relationship with colleagues	5/5	
	16	relationship with customers	5/5	
	17	Maintain the assets and property of the workplace.	5/5	

Section III

- In general, do you agree with the following statements?

	strongly disagree	disagree	slightly disagree	neither disagree nor agree	slightly agree	agree	strongly agree
1. I keep my emotions to myself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. When I am feeling positive emotions, I am careful not to express them	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I control my emotions by not expressing them	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. When I am feeling negative emotions, I make sure not to express them	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

- Please indicate how much you agree with each of the following items, in general:
(Please answer according to the current reality that you experience “not the logical or social accepted”)

	never	rarely	sometimes	often	always
1. I commit to maintain the work regulations as a responsibility established by religious virtue.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I am wishful to have good reputation at work as a religious virtue more than social virtue.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I try as much as i could not to absence from work without excuse as it is a religious virtue.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I increase doing the religious virtues as I believe that it will increase the pleasure and decrease the stress at work.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I do my best at work as a religious virtue more than anything else (salary, bonus).	1	2	3	4	5
6. I don't care to have good relationship at work with employees who are atheists.	1	2	3	4	5

- During the last month, how much of the time has your job made you feel:

	never	rarely	sometimes	often	always
1. Tense	1	2	3	4	5
2. Miserable	1	2	3	4	5
3. Depressed	1	2	3	4	5
4. Optimistic	1	2	3	4	5
5. Calm	1	2	3	4	5
6. Relaxed	1	2	3	4	5
7. Worried	1	2	3	4	5
8. Enthusiastic	1	2	3	4	5
9. Anxious	1	2	3	4	5
10. Comfortable	1	2	3	4	5
11. Gloomy	1	2	3	4	5
12. Motivated	1	2	3	4	5

- In the following question, you will be asked about how much job outcomes are important to you. Please select the most important outcome by giving it the highest grade (7) until the less important (1).

(7= most important to you → 1 =less important to you)

- For example:

Your Job performance	Work attendance	Your Commitment	Your Relationships at work	Your Reputation at work	Your Job satisfaction	Your well-being at work
1	4	2	5	7	6	

example

Your Job performance	Work attendance	Your Commitment	Your Relationships at work	Your Reputation at work	Your Job satisfaction	Your well-being at work

Personal Information sheet

Please fill in the personal data below by circling the appropriate number:

Job Number:
Age: years
Job tenure: years

	1	2	3	4	5	
Education level	Lower education	High school	diploma	bachelor	Higher education	
	1	2				
Gender	male	female				
	1	2	3	4		
Marital status	single	married	widowed	Divorced		
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Number of family member	1 person	2 persons	3 persons	4 persons	5 persons	6 and more
	1	2	3			
Citizenship status	Kuwaiti	Non- Kuwait	non specific nationality			
	1	2	3	4		
Job status	Full-time	Part-time	Direct exchange	Volunteer		
	1	2	3	4		
Job type	Fundraiser	administrative	finance	other		

Thanks for your time

Appendix 5

The daily diary

- **Today**, how you evaluate your:

	Fair		Good		Excellent	
1. Adaptation to changes in core tasks	1	2	3	4	5	
2. Initiation of doing your core tasks	1	2	3	4	5	
3. Relationship with your supervisor	1	2	3	4	5	
4. Relationship with co-workers	1	2	3	4	5	

	fair			Good		Excellent	
5. Today, My general performance at work is	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Fair			Good			Excellent	
6. Today, how you evaluate your relationship with donors	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

	A great deal lower				Neither lower nor higher			A great deal higher	
7. Today, Relative to all other employees that you know in the organisation, what is your personal view of the reputation of yourself in terms of your overall effectiveness in the job role?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

	Extremely dissatisfied			Not sure			Extremely satisfied	
8. Today, How satisfied are you with your workplace	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

- **Today**, how much do you agree with the following statement?

	Not at all		Just a little	Moderate amount	Quite a lot	A great deal
9. I tried to improve how I felt.	1	2		3	4	5
10. I tried to improve how others felt.	1	2		3	4	5
11. I tried to worsen how I felt.	1	2		3	4	5
12. I tried to worsen how others felt.	1	2		3	4	5
13. I changed the way I think about my situation	1	2		3	4	5
14. I kept my emotions to myself	1	2		3	4	5

- **Today**, how much has your job made you feel:

	never	rarely	sometimes	often	always
15. Gloomy	1	2	3	4	5
16. Enthusiastic	1	2	3	4	5
17. Anxious	1	2	3	4	5
18. Calm	1	2	3	4	5
19. emotionally drained from your work	1	2	3	4	5
20. Today, how often did you think deeply about WHY some aspect of your work or work-life was making you feel gloomy or anxious	1	2	3	4	5
21. Today, how often did you think deeply about HOW to deal with feeling gloomy or anxious about some aspect of your work or work-life	1	2	3	4	5