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# Emotions in the Workplace

Neal M. Ashkanasy and Alana D. Dorris

UQ Business School, The University of Queensland, Brisbane, Queensland 4072, Australia;  
email: n.ashkanasy@uq.edu.au, a.dorris@business.uq.edu.au

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## Abstract

Beginning in the 1990s and following decades of neglect, what came to be referred to as the Affective Revolution has radically transformed our understanding of the role played by emotion in organizational psychology and organizational behavior (OPOB). In this article, we review the field of emotion in the workplace from different perspectives, corresponding to five discrete levels of analysis: (a) within-person temporal effects, (b) between-person (personality and attitudes) factors, (c) interpersonal behaviors (perception and communication of emotion), (d) group level (leadership and teams), and (e) organizational level (culture and climate). Within these perspectives, we address the importance of affective events theory (AET) and its interaction with emotional intelligence, emotional labor, and emotional contagion, as well as the role of emotion in leadership and organizational culture and climate. We conclude by presenting an integrative model that shows how the five levels are linked, followed by discussion of measurement issues, ideas and areas for future research, and suggestions for practice.

## INTRODUCTION

In this review, we seek to address what has come to be known as the Affective Revolution in organizational behavior (Barsade et al. 2003, p. 3), whereby the study of emotions and affect in organizations has transformed from an effective no-go zone to one where understanding the role of emotion in organizations is now seen to be *de rigueur* for scholars working in the field. As the basis for our review, we begin with Frijda's (1986) definition—that emotion is the experience of a form of biological response to environmental stimulus, resulting in physical and psychological changes and subsequent readiness for action. As such, emotions serve as a signaling mechanism for organisms to adapt behavior to meet environmental conditions (Schwarz & Clore 1983). Thus positive emotions are prerequisites for well-being, whereas negative emotions send a signal to the individual that a challenging situation exists that needs to be resolved.

Despite emotion being studied by various epistemological frameworks including anthropology, social psychology, cognitive science, and philosophy, ambiguity still surrounds the structure of human affective experience. Moreover there is still limited research on the specific role played by emotions in organizations, and especially the critical nexus of emotion and cognition. Nonetheless, from the perspective of organizational psychology and organizational behavior, emotions can be seen to be linked to behavior in organizational settings in many ways. For instance, Frost (2003) pointed out that unhappy employees tend to be disconnected from their work. Moreover, organizational scholars are becoming aware that, if people do not understand the emotional side of organizational behavior, then the organization is unlikely to be aware of potential counterproductive actions such as unfair company policy or abusive supervisors. In this review, we therefore seek to provide a more connected overview of the nexus of emotions and organizational psychology and organizational behavior using the Ashkanasy (2003) five-level model of emotion in organizations (Figure 1). We begin with discussion of definitions of emotion and its measurement and then briefly review the history of the study of emotion in organizations before presenting and discussing



**Figure 1**

The five-level model of emotion in organizations (Ashkanasy 2003).

the five-level model. We conclude by showing how the five levels can be integrated and discuss its research and practical implications.

## DEFINITIONS OF EMOTION

As we noted above, it is necessary first to be clear on what the various terms in this field represent. In particular, researchers studying emotions in organizations need to be cognizant of the inconsistencies in the measurement of emotions and the distinctions among the terms: emotion, affect, mood, and feelings (Dasborough et al. 2008). Dasborough and her colleagues also encourage researchers to avoid generalizing from results of empirical measurements without explaining what was measured and how it was measured. A particular issue in this regard is that four constructs (emotions, affect, mood, and feelings) are often used interchangeably when they are strictly quite distinct from one another.

In particular, we argue that scholars should avoid using the term emotion as an umbrella term for all distinct affective phenomena. For example, Frijda (1986) differentiates mood from emotion in that the former is more pervasive than the latter and always sits in the background—with less intensity than emotion. Briner & Kiefer (2005) also emphasize that there is a difference between an emotion-laden construct and emotion. Although emotion-laden constructs such as justice, trust, or commitment may contain emotion or be related to emotion, they are not in themselves emotions. Similarly, constructs such as stress, strain, and job satisfaction are not emotions, but instead represent umbrella terms that authors employ to describe a range of negative or positive emotions.

For instance, Allen & Meyer (1990) define organizational commitment in terms of three components: affective, continuance, and normative. Thus, although organizational commitment is not an emotion per se, it is related to emotion. The affective component thus refers to employees' emotional attachment as well as identification with and involvement in the organization. Similarly, the term commitment is itself intrinsically related to emotion in that it is a psychological state that binds an employee to an organization. In other words, the affective component is often implied or identified explicitly. Job satisfaction is another construct often mistakenly assumed to be a form of emotion. In this regard, Weiss & Cropanzano (1996, p. 2) comment that it is necessary to treat "job satisfaction as a form or summary evaluation with both affective and belief antecedents."

A further major concern for researchers involves disentangling issues around defining and measuring emotion. In particular, there are inconsistencies surrounding various definitions of emotion. For example, Oatley & Jenkins (1992) note the diversity of definitions and overlapping terms in the field, where basic definitions have been long debated, going back to William James's (1994) parable of the bear: Do we run from the bear because we are afraid, or do we feel afraid because we run from the bear? This question was debated in exchanges between Lazarus (1991), who took the position that behavior and cognition precede emotion (we are afraid because we run), and Zajonc (1984), who maintained emotions represent visceral reactions to environmental stimuli and trigger cognitive and behavioral responses (we run because we are afraid). Modern consensus on this question, however, is that emotions and cognition emerge from an interaction of neural processes (Fischer et al. 1990) that have evolved to serve basic organic survival (LeDoux 1996).

Most modern definitions of emotion are predicated on this interactive view. For example, and consistent with Frijda's (1986) definition, Fischer et al. (1990) define emotion as a "discrete, innate, functional, biosocial action and expression system" (p. 84). More recent empirical studies have countered traditional views of emotion that see it as some form of "irrational" decision making, which needs to be ignored or purged from human thought processes (Li et al. 2014). In proposing their process model of hybrid decision making, Li and her colleagues sought specifically to differentiate the rational and irrational mechanisms of emotion in the decision-making process. They show

in particular that, although emotions can be irrational if derived from infused emotions or moods, expected emotions can reflect the functional rationality for decision making in times of uncertainty.

So far, we have considered broad conceptualizations of emotions and affect, but there is also a need to focus on and to deal with discrete emotions. In this regard, there has been a pervasive tendency for research scholars to categorize discrete emotions into positive and negative dimensions (Briner & Kiefer 2005). The problem here is that positive and negative emotions are in theory often treated in the same way, when the focus should be on what is driving each of the processes and the different outcomes resulting from that particular discrete emotion. For instance, anger and fear are both negative discrete emotions, but they play out in different ways. Whereas anger may drive an employee to act more impulsively, fear might drive the same employee to withdraw from her or his given work task. Certain emotions may also differ in that the employee may attribute blame externally or internally and this results in different behaviors and outcomes (Goody et al. 2009).

Researchers have offered particular insights on the effects of discrete emotions in association with leader-facilitated regulation strategies on subordinate perceptions and performance (Thiel et al. 2012). These findings suggest that leaders must choose the appropriate strategy for managing a subordinate's emotion. Pessimism for instance, is a discrete emotion that induces a heavy cognitive load and maybe would not benefit from a strategy such as cognitive reappraisal (i.e., that adds to the information-processing load the subordinate needs to manage). Thiel et al. also shed light on the conditions under which emotion management tactics may be effectively employed by leaders and suggest that leader-facilitated emotion regulation has desirable outcomes for subordinate performance but not for subordinate perceptions of the leader.

Other recent empirical work suggests that emotion-infused concepts such as "positive" or "negative" emotions should be replaced with the functionality of a particular emotion as it relates to a particular context or situation (e.g., see Lindebaum & Jordan 2012). Lindebaum & Jordan (2014) more recently noted the tendency for researchers to explore symmetrical relationships between positively and negatively valenced discrete emotions. They propose that researchers should instead explore asymmetries in workplace emotional outcomes.

Continuing this line, Mulligan & Scherer (2012) propose that  $x$  is an emotion only if seven discrete conditions are met. In this view, " $x$  constitutes an emotion *only if* (1)  $x$  is an affective *episode*; (2)  $x$  has the property of *intentionality* (i.e., of being directed); (3)  $x$  contains bodily *changes* (arousal, expression, etc.) that are felt; (4)  $x$  contains a *perceptual or intellectual episode*,  $y$ , which has the property of intentionality; (5) the intentionality of  $x$  is inherited from the intentionality of  $y$ ; (6)  $x$  is triggered by at least one appraisal; (7)  $x$  is guided by at least one appraisal" (p. 346; numbering added). Furthermore, although the different subsystems of emotion operate relatively independently of each other during nonemotional states, Mulligan & Scherer note that they are nonetheless always recruited to work in unison—as an integrated process during emotional episodes.

Fischer et al. (1990) go on to define emotion more specifically through three distinct processes: (a) superordinate, which covers the organism's initial appraisal of the environment as either favorable or unfavorable to goal achievement; (b) basic emotions, which include positive (love and joy) and negative (anger, sadness, and fear) emotions; and (c) subordinate prototypical scripts that represent a particular set of behaviors in response to particular environmental stimuli. Fischer and her colleagues identify a wide range of different scripts that individuals learn during their lifetime, which are in turn constrained by particular cultural mores (Elfenbein & Ambady 2003). Ashkanasy (2003, p. 12) notes in this regard that, "open expression of joy may be appropriate in celebratory circumstances, but may be circumscribed in other situations (e.g., learning of an inheritance following the death of a family member)."

Basch & Fisher (2000) investigated the existence of these emotions and their associated scripts in organizational settings. They reported that employees exhibit a full range of these emotions at

work, in addition to variants that appear to be more specific to the workplace. For positive emotions, Basch & Fisher found that pleasure, happiness, pride, enthusiasm, relief, optimism, affection, and power are most commonly reported; the most commonly reported negative workplace emotions are frustration, worry, disappointment, annoyance, anger, unhappiness, embarrassment, sadness, disgust, hurt, fear, and bitterness.

Frijda (1986) notes in particular that emotions can be viewed as a set of responses to specific environmental contingencies that derive from our evolutionary roots. In this regard, basic emotions such as fear and disgust can be seen to serve an essential survival function: motivating people to avoid things in the environment that may be detrimental to their well-being. Consistent with Fischer et al. (1990), Damasio (1994) draws attention to a basic differentiation between what he refers to as primary emotions, which emerge from the human primal drive for survival and are essentially triggered in the subconscious or limbic brain (especially the *amygdala*), as well as secondary emotions, which derive from subsequent cortical processing.

Emotions also have clear physical manifestations. In this respect, emotion researchers (Ekman 1972, Fischer et al. 1990, Izard 1993) have long observed that emotion is reflected in motor behaviors such as facial expressions, posture, vocalizations, head and eye movements, as well as in muscle action potentials that derive from neural functioning (but are nonetheless distinct). Similarly, we know from this research that physiological responses such as heartbeat, sweat glands, blood pressure, and respiration—that derive from the autonomic and endocrine systems of organisms—are a direct result of emotion. All of these responses in turn represent evolutionary responses to environmental stimuli, and especially threat stimuli. Moreover, and as LeDoux (1996) stresses, these responses, which also include increased blood flow to the skeletal muscles and suppressed reactivity to pain, are vital to the organism's survival.

Consistent with these observations (as well as the definitions canvassed above), Ashkanasy (2003, p. 14) defines emotion as “a set of endogenous and exogenous inputs to particular neural systems, leading to internal and external manifestations.” These internal manifestations include subjective feelings experienced by the individual that are interpreted cognitively; the external manifestations include physiological factors such as respiration, facial expression, and posture.

Finally, researchers need to differentiate emotions and moods from the broader notion of affect. Watson & Tellegen (1985) define affect in terms of circumplex based on orthogonal dimensions of positive and negative affect. On the basis of these dimensions, Watson & Tellegen showed that discrete emotional states can be plotted radially around the circumplex. For example, high positive and negative affect corresponds to a state of arousal, high positive and low negative affect represents happiness, high negative affect and low positive affect represents unpleasantness; low positive and negative affect corresponds to a quiet state. Russell & Carroll (1999) subsequently argued that a more appropriate representation of the circumplex is in terms of dimensions of arousal (high versus low) and valance (positive versus negative). Carver (2001) later showed, however, that in fact the two models map onto each other, with a simple 45-degree axis rotation.

## HISTORICAL BEGINNINGS

Although early scholars of industrial and organizational (IO) psychology and organizational behavior (OB) seemed to recognize the importance of studying emotional dimensions (Weiss & Brief 2001), post–World War II research tended to concentrate on behavioral and cognitive aspects of work, where emotions and affect were subsumed under the broader heading of job satisfaction (Barsade et al. 2003). In fact, Durkheim (1912) argued for the application of scientific methods to society, referred to as society's collective consciousness (or common values). Weiss & Brief (2001) point out that researchers in the 1920s tended to look at society more or less as we

look at natural sciences, and they laid the groundwork for the research in the 1930s, when IO and OB scholars frequently acknowledged affective dispositional variables, especially through a focus on job satisfaction and work-life balance. Affect at work consequentially became interchangeable with so-called job satisfaction (Weiss & Brief 2001). Following World War II, moreover, and presented with a need for postwar efficiency and practicality, person-work environment fit began to be recognized. The 1950s through 1970s, however, were not as progressive for the topic as were the 1920s and 1930s.

This situation began to change, however, following publication of sociologist Hochschild's (1983) study of what she termed emotional labor, which is based on the idea that employees are often forced to display emotions at odds with what they truly feel. Hochschild argued that employees in many industries (e.g., flight attendants, debt collectors) are required to express the "right" emotions for the job. As a result, these employees often suffer burnout and consequential loss of productivity. The concept of emotional labor sparked increased interest in emotions and soon found its way into mainstream OB literature (Rafaeli & Sutton 1989). Over the past two decades, therefore, literature in the area has tended to focus on emotion regulation strategies used by employees during service encounters (i.e., "display rules"; see Ashforth & Humphrey 1993). The two key strategies identified in the emotional labor literature include surface acting (engaging in a superficial display of emotion without genuinely feeling that emotion) versus deep acting (where actors seek to modify their felt emotions so as to align with expected displays of emotion; see Grandey 2000, Hochschild 1983).

Aside from emotional labor, past research on emotion in work settings tended to focus on generalized stable affective states and the role of emotions in organizational change and group conflict. This changed, however, when Ashforth & Humphrey (1995) challenged this narrow focus by looking at how rationality and emotion are enmeshed in organizational activity. Ashforth & Humphrey argued in particular for the importance of everyday emotion and its applications to motivation, leadership, and group dynamics. For example, they expressed the hope that future research would focus more on experience and expression of emotion in mundane daily episodes of organizational life such as meetings and task performance, especially through a focus on the dynamic relationship between emotionality and rationality. Ashforth & Humphrey argued in particular that scholars should see emotionality as functional rather than solely the "dysfunctional antithesis of reality" (p. 120).

Weiss & Cropanzano's (1996) affective events theory (AET) provided a further useful framework for studying emotions in the workplace as a dynamic phenomenon. Within AET, these authors argue, the behavior and performance of employees at work are to a large extent a function of how they feel in reaction to their environment at any given moment. Weiss & Cropanzano emphasize the importance of recognizing emotion in the workplace, in terms of the impact of objects and events on employees' emotions, and the impact of employees' emotions on workplace attitudes and behaviors (Ashton-James & Ashkanasy 2005). According to this view, moods and emotions are unique affective states that serve either as responses to affective events, situations, objects, or events that may be perceived to be a threat or an opportunity in relation to attainment of personal goals. In demonstration of AET, Basch & Fisher (2000) found that workplace emotions tend to be tied to specific activating events. In particular, organizational members appear to react to affective events using a set of learned behavioral scripts (also see Fischer et al. 1990), which Izard (1993) notes are made up of specific sets of behavioral, cognitive, and emotional reactions to environmental stimuli.

As mentioned above, Barsade et al. (2003, p. 3) announced that an "affective revolution in organizational behavior" had taken place, akin to the "cognitive revolution" of a decade earlier (Major & Tower 1994). The ongoing level of interest in studying emotions in organizational

settings is today reflected in the existence of the Listserv EMONET, an international scholarly network that facilitates discussion related to the development of emotion, and the biannual “International Conference on Emotions and Worklife” (see <http://www.emotionsnet.org>). Associated with these activities is an annual book series, *Research on Emotion in Organizations* (see <http://emeraldinsight.com/series/reom>), which includes peer-reviewed chapters from the biannual conference as well as invited chapters by leading scholars in the field. The chapters include theory-review, qualitative research, and quantitative research. More recently, Ashkanasy & Humphrey (2011b) authored a further comprehensive review of emotions in organizational settings. In this review we extend, update, and expand upon Ashkanasy & Humphrey’s review, by including additional literature and more detailed discussion of methodological issues.

## THE MULTILEVEL MODEL OF EMOTION IN ORGANIZATIONS

Similar to Ashkanasy & Humphrey (2011b), we base our review on the five-level model of emotions in organizations developed by Ashkanasy (2003). The model crosses five levels of analysis (Figure 1) and, as such, provides an appropriate framework to structure this review. Located at the base of the model is Level 1, which covers temporal variations in emotions and behavior and is referred to as within-person variability. Level 2 refers to between-person variability, such as personality and emotional intelligence. Level 3 deals with the role of emotions in interpersonal relationships—including perception and communication of emotion—and emotional labor. At Level 4, analysis shifts to group phenomena including team leadership. Finally, at Level 5 the focus is on the organization as a whole, such as emotional culture and climate. While we base this review on Ashkanasy & Humphrey (2011b), we seek to extend discussion of Ashkanasy’s (2003) model in particular by reference to some of the more recent empirical studies that point to novel trends in the emotion literature.

### Level 1: Within-Person

Ashkanasy & Humphrey (2011b, p. 215) point out that “Level 1 is best understood in terms of affective events theory” and distinguish between positive and negative mood effects (Ashton-James & Ashkanasy 2005). In this regard, Isen (1987) stressed the role of positive affect as a catalyst of creativity and cognitive flexibility. In other words, Level 1 incorporates within-person neurophysiological processes that consist in turn of the physiological manifestations of emotion that make up cognitive functioning. Furthermore, affective reactions at this level are in large part beyond conscious control. A further noteworthy aspect of within-person variation is that, under this perspective, empirical procedures need to take account of real-time variations in affect and behavior (Fisher 2008). Researchers, for example, can use daily diary data (e.g., see Weiss et al. 1999) or experiential sampling methods (ESM; see Larson & Csikszentmihalyi 1983), where measurements are taken in real time several times over a day.

An informative application of ESM methodology can be found in some recent studies of affect and creativity. Until recently, researchers had reported that positively valenced (not negatively valenced) affect facilitates individual creativity. These findings were based on Isen’s (1987) research showing that positive feelings prime people to access more complex materials stored in memory, encouraging more cognitive flexibility, which facilitates creativity. In support of this idea, Amabile et al. (2005) conducted an ESM-based field study and found that (mild) positive affect is related to improved product design and innovation.

De Dreu et al. (2008) proposed moreover that creativity can be achieved through the following dual pathways: (a) enhanced cognitive flexibility engendered by positive affect and (b) increased persistence promoted by negative affect (Baas et al. 2008, To et al. 2012). As Jones & Kelly

(2009) further explain, negative affect may encourage members of a group to look for a better solution rather than simply settle for an inferior result. Furthermore, empirical research evidence has supported the theory that a blend of both positive and negative affect can benefit individual creativity, which requires divergent thinking and evaluative and persistent processing (Bledow et al. 2011). In support of this idea, To et al. (2012) in an ESM study found that positive or negative mood can both engender creativity, but which one (positive versus negative) has this effect depends upon an interaction of situation and personality.

These more recent findings regarding the impact of negative affect on creativity are consistent with the “sadder-but-wiser versus happier-and-smarter” hypothesis put forward by Staw & Barsade (1993, p. 304). Using managerial simulations, Staw & Barsade compared two psychological theories concerning affect and performance to test whether people positive in disposition perform better or worse on decisional and interpersonal tasks. Results of these tests support the happier-but-smarter (happier people are productive, but do not necessarily make the best decisions) hypothesis rather than the sadder-but-wiser (managerial decision making is improved by negative affect) hypothesis. Staw & Barsade found in particular that happy people may be the most productive (“the happier-but-smarter” hypothesis), although it is possible that this relationship may be based on more personal disposition.

Forgas & George (2001) point out further that employees in a negative mood are likely to be less susceptible to bias and less likely to be swayed by persuasion. In line with these hypotheses, recent empirical work by To et al. (2015) showed that negative moods can provide motivational and cognitive resources helpful for solving problems. Specifically, these authors hypothesized and found that activating negative mood can have a positive relationship with creative process engagement in specific circumstances.

A further issue in the affect-cognition nexus is based in Forgas’s (1995) concept of affect infusion. On the basis of this notion, Forgas & George (2001) argue that employees engaged in tasks that involve substantive cognitive processing are likely to be subject to neural heuristics whereby affective states “infuse” their decision making. In demonstration of this effect, Mittal & Ross (1998) found that risk taking under conditions of uncertainty is higher for decision makers in a positive mood than when they are in a negative mood. Ashton-James & Ashkanasy (2005) argue that this is because managers in a positive mood tend to be more optimistic in their situation appraisals than when they are in a negative mood, and therefore are more prone to take risks. Note, however, that risk taking, especially in today’s dynamic business environments, is not necessarily a bad thing. For example, risks often need to be taken when the organization needs to move quickly to respond to a changed regulatory or market environment. This effect was subsequently demonstrated in field research by Amabile et al. (2005). Moreover, organizations with positive affective cultures may be more likely to take risks according to Barsade et al. (2003).

Researchers have also employed diary methods and ESM to unravel some of the enduring mysteries of job satisfaction. For example, Weiss et al. (1999) used a daily diary method to demonstrate that job satisfaction comprises both affective and cognitive components. Looking at job satisfaction through a tripartite model consisting of affect, beliefs, and behaviors, Weiss and his coauthors argued that job satisfaction can be understood through different types of causes of the attitude; they also point out that, while affect and attitude have often been seen as basically equivalent constructs, they are also distinct. Similarly Weiss & Cropanzano (1996) argue that both emotions and moods deserve independent attention in order to understand the different effects on overall attitude (Weiss et al. 1999). Weiss and his colleagues collected data for three weeks and showed that variation in mood is cyclical over the work. In so doing, they emphasized the importance and usefulness of observing discrete mood states over time, rather than simply studying subsequent recollections of mood states.



In a subsequent study based in AET, Fisher (2002) looked at real-time momentary affective experiences while working on the job (rather than on positive or negative attitudes about the job). Results demonstrated that affect is related to affective commitment, helping behavior, and role conflict over and above the effects of job satisfaction. In a more recent ESM study, Fisher et al. (2013) found that momentary emotions depend on task appraisal and confidence. On the basis of appraisal theories of emotion (Scherer et al. 2001) and AET (Weiss & Cropanzano 1996), Fisher and her associates suggest that momentary actions are primarily influenced by a person's appraisal of aspects of events. Appraisal theory for instance revolves around the notion that interpretations of events lead to emotions and affective responses, and not the events themselves (Scherer et al. 2001). Results also showed that task confidence emerges from control value theory, suggesting that when people are confident in their work task, they will feel more positive emotions; and when they are less confident, they feel stronger negative emotions.

Finally, this line of research also challenges the widely accepted misconception among scholars of OB that job satisfaction is only weakly related to job performance. For example, Judge et al. (2001) found in a meta-analysis of the job satisfaction–performance relationship that the correlation was only 0.30 (i.e., less than 10% shared variance). In this regard, Fisher & Noble (2004), in an extension of Fisher's (2002) earlier ESM study using programmable watches, found that affect and job satisfaction and performance, although only weakly related between persons, are in fact strongly related at the within-person level of analysis (correlations in the 0.70 range, or 50% shared variance).

Moreover, although job satisfaction is still seen as an umbrella concept that consists of affect, beliefs, and attitudes, the results of Fisher's (2000) ESM study demonstrates that job satisfaction is more than just the sum of its parts. In fact, each of the constructs must be distinguished and examined separately to understand job satisfaction (also see Weiss et al. 1999).

In summary, it is clear that AET and ESM have essentially revolutionized our understanding of the role emotions play in the workplace, and in fact of organizational psychology and organizational behavior in general. AET has been consistently supported across numerous diary and ESM studies as well as in studies of call center operators (e.g., see Wegge et al. 2006) that did not use ESM. Lastly, we note that it is the buildup of frequent events, rather than infrequent intense events, that most likely have the most influential impact in terms of attitudes and behaviors (Fisher 2002).

## Level 2: Between-Persons

The second level in the Ashkanasy (2003) five-level model comprises between-persons analysis and refers specifically to personal individual differences. In the context of emotion in work settings, the dominant variable studied has been emotional intelligence, defined by Mayer & Salovey (1997) as comprising four basic abilities or “branches”: (a) recognition of emotions, both in self and others; (b) use of this information in cognitive decision making; (c) understanding the effects of emotions, and (d) using and managing emotions in behavioral decision making. The construct was subsequently popularized by *NY Times* journalist Daniel Goleman (1995), resulting in exaggerated claims that led to stringent criticism of the construct. These issues were subsequently refuted by Ashkanasy & Daus (2005), who pointed out that emotional intelligence is simply a valid individual difference similar to physical prowess or cognitive intelligence.

In an effort to clarify the controversy, Ashkanasy & Daus (2005) identified three approaches to emotional intelligence, which they referred to as three “streams.” Stream 1 is based on the Mayer-Salovey four-branch model and is measured using an IQ-style ability measure called the MSCEIT (Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test) (Mayer et al. 2002). Stream 2 research refers to approaches that use the Mayer-Salovey (1997) definition of emotional intelligence but measure

the construct using self- or peer-report measures. Stream 3 models of emotional intelligence do not use the Mayer-Salovey definition and are usually measured using self-reports. These scales have been criticized, however, because of their overlap with well-being and personality measures.

Although Ashkanasy & Daus (2005) discourage the use of Stream 3 models on the basis that they are usually overly correlated with personality, O'Boyle et al. (2011) nonetheless found in a meta-analysis that all three streams of emotional intelligence demonstrate incremental validity over and above cognitive ability and personality. More recently, Schlaerth et al. (2013) reported meta-analytic results supporting a positive relationship between all streams of emotional intelligence and skill in conflict resolution.

In another more recent study, Renzvani et al. (2016) sought to understand the underlying mechanisms connecting project managers' emotional intelligence and project success through a model that draws upon relevant emotions theory, including AET. The study is the first of its kind to apply AET to study the role of emotional intelligence in project success; the authors reported finding a positive relationship between emotional intelligence, job satisfaction, and trust. These results provide further insight into the relationship between emotionally intelligent project managers' skills and their work attitudes.

In summary of the role of emotional intelligence at Level 2 of the Ashkanasy (2003) model, and despite the controversy, the emerging consensus is that emotional intelligence is an important and valid personal characteristic that is positively associated with work performance. Although this line of research is still far from conclusive, the evidence to date suggests strongly that employees with high emotional intelligence, in contrast to their counterparts with lower levels of emotional intelligence, most likely add to a positive organizational climate (Ashkanasy & Ashton-James 2005). More recently, moreover, alternative ability (i.e., non-self-report) measures of emotional intelligence have begun to appear (e.g., Czarna et al. 2016, MacCann et al. 2014).

### Level 3: Interpersonal Emotions

This level focuses on how emotions are perceived and communicated in dyadic interactions between organizational members. In their synthesis of the history of affect at work, Weiss & Brief (2001) note that this level has in fact traditionally attracted attention. Weiss & Brief also mention scholars in the history of affect at work including McDougall (1923), who looked at the overpowering forces of the group, and in particular how emotions can help with crucial social functions for groups such as group cohesion, group identity, power role negotiation, coordinating collective efforts, and interpersonal bonds. By the 1970s, Ekman (1972) had established that the expression of basic emotions is a basic human property, independent of race or culture.

What is culture specific, however, is the set of rules people employ regarding perception and display of emotions. In this instance, Elfenbein & Ambady (2003) argue that in fact strong intercultural differences do exist. Subsequently, Elfenbein et al. (2007, p. 316) coined the term "emotional dialect" and used this idea in developing the "integrated interpersonal process framework for emotion in organizations." Through this framework, Elfenbein aimed to connect fragmented domains in the emotion literature and to integrate psychologists' conceptions of the emotional process. In the past, the stages of emotional expression have been studied in isolation from one another, but instead Elfenbein focuses on how the emotion processed is orderly and in sequence and how the affective process starts with an individual being exposed to a stimulus. The individual then finds meaning in that stimulus and thus experiences physiological changes and a feeling that then results in attitudes, behaviors, and cognitions. In addition, Frijda (1986) argues the emotions then trigger a secondary control response to manage the emotions experienced. In other words, there

are visible behaviors and cues as well as internal ones; some are automatic, such as fright startle, and others voluntary, such as emotional regulation.

As Ashkanasy (2003) stresses, however, most studies of emotional communication in the context of organizational behavior refer to emotional labor. As we noted earlier, this term was coined by Hochschild (1983), who observed that service employees are required as part of their terms of employment to display appropriate (positive or negative) emotions to customers or clients. For example, service providers in the retail, food, travel, and entertainment industries are expected to display positive emotional expressions or provide “service with a smile.” Other employees in enforcement industries (e.g., law enforcement, debt collection) are expected to display negative emotions. In addition to emotional labor, Ashforth & Humphrey (1993) also recognized that genuine emotions might also be appropriately displayed in particular circumstances.

There is nonetheless a considerable body of evidence to show that performing emotional labor can have detrimental health effects, especially when felt and expressed emotions are dissonant (Van Dijk & Kirk-Brown 2006). Moreover, the harmful effects of surface acting appear to be much stronger than for deep acting (Kammeyer-Mueller et al. 2013), even carrying over to home life (Wagner et al. 2014). Emotional labor may decrease an employee’s ability to control their behavior if it is depleting their self-regulatory resources (Ashkanasy & Daus 2005). Judge et al. (2009) found in a meta-analytic study that, whereas surface acting is related to negative mood, emotional exhaustion, and decreased job satisfaction, deep acting does not seem to be related to job satisfaction. More recently, Grandey et al. (2012) reported that the harmful effects of emotional labor can be ameliorated in certain circumstances, and especially in what they term a “climate of authenticity” (p. 1), where organizational members are more accepting of displays of different emotions.

Emotional labor is especially relevant in service situations, where employees are required to keep to organizationally prescribed “display rules” (see Diefendorff & Gosserand 2003). On the other side of the service encounter, however, it appears that genuine emotion can also be more effective than either surface or deep acting. For example, Grandey (2003) found that, compared to surface acting, a service provider’s deep acting results in improved customer satisfaction. Judge et al. (2009) also found in a multilevel experience-sampling study that deep acting is related to positive and negative affect but, although correlated with fewer bad moods, it is also associated with fewer positive moods.

Rather than emotional labor, however, some organizational researchers have recently begun to turn their attention to the broader construct of emotional regulation, defined by Gross (1998, p. 275) as “the process by which individuals influence which emotions they have, when they have them and how they experience and express these emotions.” Developed out of the social psychology literature, the emotion regulation process is more nuanced than emotional labor and involves a conscious, effortful, and controlled regulation of emotion as well as unconscious, effortless and automatic regulation (Gross & Thompson 2007). Some types of emotion regulation are focused on dealing with antecedents (e.g., situation selection and modification, attentional deployment, cognitive change), whereas others entail modulation of responses aimed at increasing, maintaining, or decreasing emotion, depending on an individual’s goals

Scholars have used Gross’s (1998) ideas to examine employees’ use of a range of different emotion regulation strategies to deal with particular emotions such as discrete emotions (anger, fear, or happiness), which often stem from particular affective events. Such strategies include cognitive reappraisal, authentic expression, and expressive suppression. More recently, Gross (2014) explained in detail how emotional labor can be looked at as a particular case of emotional regulation.

To summarize, our review suggests that this has long been a central focus for scholars of organizational psychology and organizational behavior. Although the locus since Hochschild (1983)

has been on emotional labor and its causes and effects, more recent research is turning to a more nuanced examination of emotion regulation. Nonetheless, research into emotional labor and its effects on individuals is ongoing. Moreover, although emotional labor continues to be an important component of organizational effectiveness, especially in service encounters, it requires careful management if its effects are not to be negative.

#### **Level 4: Teams and Leadership**

Level 4 of the Ashkanasy (2003) model relates to groups and teams. In this regard, leadership is posited as a social process that has a major effect on the moods and feelings of team members. In this regard, de Dreu et al. (2001) analyzed the emotion process in leadership situations and concluded that not only are emotions affected by the social context, but that emotions also influence the respective social context as a part of a reciprocal process.

Ashkanasy & Humphrey (2011a) argue further that mood management may well be the most critical element of team leadership. If this is so, then it would also follow that a leader's emotional intelligence may be the key. In this regard, George (2000) reasoned that emotionally intelligent leaders engender enthusiasm among team members. This idea has been supported in empirical research by Pescolido (2002), who found that effective leaders tended to perform better than their less effective colleagues when it came to dealing with workplace events that involve strong emotions, and that this contributes to development of stronger team harmony and cohesion.

Although controversial (e.g., see Antonakis et al. 2009), scholarly evidence is tending increasingly to support the notion that emotional intelligence is related to leadership effectiveness. Thus, in a recent review of ten years of research into the relationship of emotional intelligence and leader effectiveness, Walter et al. (2011) found overwhelming support across all three streams of emotional intelligence research identified in Ashkanasy & Daus (2005).

In groups and teams, the principal mechanism for spreading a particular emotional state appears to be through emotional contagion (Hatfield et al. 1992), whereby members of a group come to be "infected" by others' emotional states (insofar as they begin to mimic other members' facial expressions, body language, and vocal tone). Given the modeling role of leaders, it follows therefore that contagion should be a major mechanism for leaders to transfer emotional states to team members. Empirical support for the role of emotional contagion in groups comes from studies by Barsade (2002) and Kelly & Barsade (2001), and Sy et al. (2005) found evidence for leader-to-member contagion. More recently, Tee et al. (2013) found that the effect can go the other way: from follower to leader. As a result of these processes, there is the risk that an "emotional spiral" (Hareli & Rafaeli 2008) can ensue, leading ultimately to a complex interaction of reciprocal and recursive spreading of emotional states across the organization (Dasborough et al. 2009).

A corollary of this is that, to be effective, leaders need to manage emotional contagion, lest it spirals out of control. In this regard, Ashkanasy & Humphrey (2011a, p. 363) argue that leaders need to practice "leading with emotional labor" as a means of regulating their own emotional feelings. Thus, effective leaders engage in genuine emotional expression or (at least) deep acting to model the emotions suited to a particular situation; this emotion is then likely to be picked up by group members (via contagion), leading to the whole team adopting the (appropriate) emotion (Dasborough et al. 2009, Tee et al. 2013).

In addition to the direct role emotion plays in shaping relationships between leaders and group members, there is also evidence that emotions also play a role in broader models of leadership. Indeed, there is even data to suggest that a key skill of transformational leaders lies in an ability to help followers deal with negative emotional events. For example, in a study of R&D teams, Pirola-Merlo et al. (2002) found that leaders boost performance by helping their followers deal

with everyday frustrations and negative moods. McColl-Kennedy & Anderson (2002) found similarly that transformational leaders engendered positive emotion leading to optimism, improved performance, and goal attainment. In another study, Harvey et al. (2007) found that positive affect helped employees deal with strain resulting from abusive supervision.

Finally, there is also a potential “dark side” to emotional intelligence in the context of leadership. This is referred to by Antonakis (see Antonakis et al. 2009, p. 250) as “the curse of emotion.” More recently, Kilduff et al. (2010) suggested that emotional intelligence has the potential to be used strategically to manipulate others. Recent empirical work suggests that further research is necessary to study how leaders can balance cohesion and individuality in a team, perhaps producing an optimal setting for team members to take greatest advantage of their affective resources for team creativity (To et al. 2015). The multilevel framework they propose also sheds light on another debated question in leadership literature: If there are trade-offs between leading a group and leading individuals, should leaders focus on developing individual followers or the whole team?

To summarize, Level 4 in the five-level model represents a critical “meso-level” of organizational functioning (Ashkanasy & Humphrey 2011a). As such, it is the level that represents the crossover from individual (Levels 1 and 2) and interpersonal (Level 3) processes to consideration of an organization’s culture, climate, and ultimately the organization’s effectiveness (at Level 5). Organizational members naturally tend to work as groups (and teams), and these in turn are subject to issues of direction and leadership. The consequence is that processes of emotional expression and contagion (i.e., “leading with emotional labor”; see Ashkanasy & Humphrey 2011a, p. 363) at this level ultimately affect organizations as a whole as well as the employees that comprise them.

### **Level 5: The Organizational Level**

At Level 5 of his model, Ashkanasy (2003) addresses the role of emotions at the organizational level, and argues the need for organizational managers to work toward a “healthy emotional climate” (Ashkanasy et al. 2002). In this regard, Ashkanasy & Härtel (2014) posit that a healthy climate is characterized by positive emotions, created and then sustained across the whole organization. Individual-level moods, emotions, emotional sharing, and group affect can be modified by the affective context in which the group is situated. As we discuss through examples below, the affective context is determined by group norms, the organizational culture and climate, the affective climate, emotional norms, and emotional history.

This brings us to the notion of an organizational emotional climate, defined by de Rivera (1992) as “an objective group phenomenon that can be palpably sensed—as when one enters a party or a city and feels an attitude of gaiety or depression, openness or fear” (p. 197). Emotional climate thus represents a particular form of organizational climate (Schneider et al. 2010), which deals specifically with the collective mood of organizational members and their attitudes toward their peers and leaders, as well as the organization as a whole. In this regard, climate, although related to organizational culture, is differentiated from culture in that it is a function of organizational policies and procedures, rather than the organization’s members’ beliefs, values, and assumptions (Schein 2004).

There is, however, some debate as to whether emotional climate is a team (i.e., Level 4) phenomenon, rather than something that exists across the organization (i.e., at Level 5). For example, Ashkanasy & Nicholson (2003) examined a “climate of fear” in two Australian restaurant chains and found that it varied by subunit within the two organizations. This was in contrast to measures of organizational culture, which they found to vary across (but not within) organizations. In fact there are many types of emotional climates, including but not limited to a climate of security, where employees trust each other, or a climate of instability, or confidence (Yurtsever & de Rivera

2010). In this regard, a climate of insecurity for instance, negatively affects all employees' affective job attitudes.

In fact, there is evidence that "Level 5 is qualitatively different from the other levels of the model" (Ashkanasy & Ashton-James 2005, p. 221), insofar as this level subsumes the five lower levels. In this instance, Level 5 emotions are generated as a result of the accumulation of affective events at Level 1 and employees' emotional intelligence abilities at Level 2, which in turn impacts their interactions with coworkers, subordinates, supervisors, and clients at Level 3, also affecting group emotion and leadership at Level 4. Consistent with this idea, Dasborough et al. (2009) argue that "a leader's behavior towards subordinates (Level 4) is reflected in team-member relationships (Level 3) that in turn reflect the leader's performance via emotional contagion processes, leading to an organizational management response to the leader (Level 5)" (Ashkanasy & Humphrey 2011b, p. 219). Pirola-Merlo et al. (2002) found that transformational leadership, or the use of strong emotions to arouse feelings in followers, suppresses negative mood effects caused by obstacles that lie in the way to attaining workplace goals. Additionally Pescolido (2002) points out that a leader's emotional displays mediate how followers interpret organizational events and organizational change. More recently, Kim et al. (2016), in a study of employee creativity in Korea involving 306 employees from 50 teams, found that a positive affective climate is associated with group creativity.

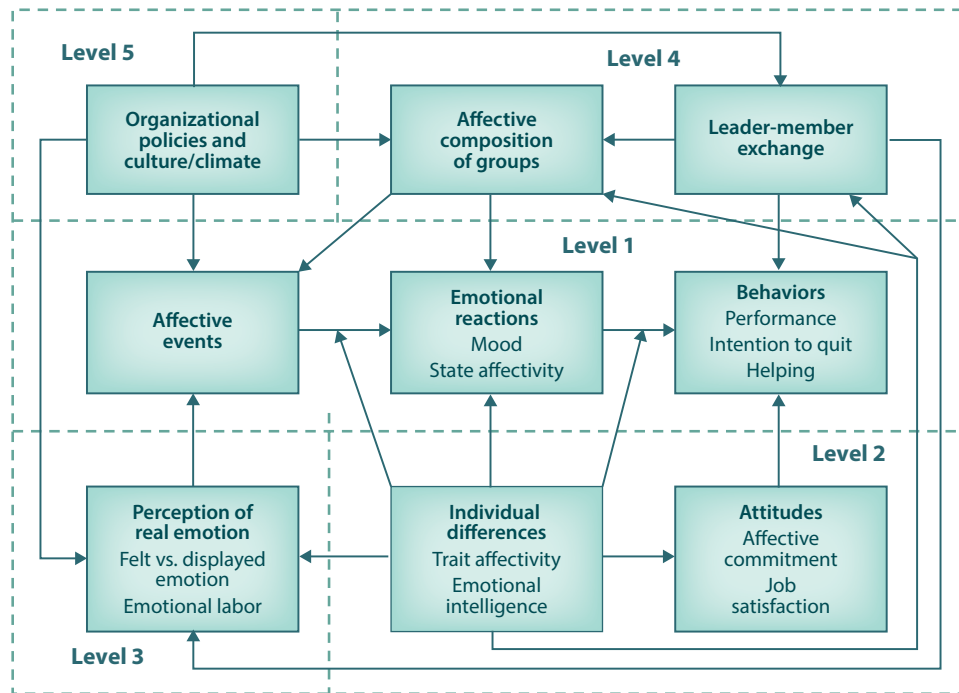
Finally, organizational culture and climate are often reflected in organizational policies. In this regard, Jiang & Probst (2016) found in a field study of 171 employees in 40 workgroups that "affective job insecurity climate" directly impacts safety outcomes. From the perspective of emotional labor, this also refers to an organization's policies regarding emotional displays required by employees (i.e., emotional labor; see Fineman 2000, Hochschild 1983, Rafaeli & Sutton 1989).

To summarize, we see that the concepts of emotional climate and culture directly reflect processes taking place at the lower levels of the model (**Figure 2**). In effect, emotional variables are affected by processes taking place at each of the lower levels in a process that involves reciprocity and recursion (Dasborough et al. 2008). In this case, and as Fineman (2000) observed, organizations are in fact saturated with emotion. If this is so, then understanding organizational behavior and its effects on organizations must, of necessity, involve understanding of the underlying emotional processes. Recent studies suggest that despite differences in national, local, organizational, team, or individual values, all organizations aim for successful organizational performance directly linked to organizational culture and climate and that we have moved over the past few decades from addressing the meaning and values that employees of organizations have in relation to their experience to looking at the interwoven relationship of organizational culture and climate to other areas of organizational behavior through multiple perspectives (Ashkanasy & Dorris 2014).

## DISCUSSION

Although the role of emotion in organizations was neglected for many years, this state of affairs has changed over the past two decades, to the point where the study of emotions has become a priority in OPOB research. Major published reviews of the field by its leading authors (e.g., Ashforth & Humphrey 1995, Ashkanasy et al. 2002, Elfenbein 2007) suggest that this is an area with "a bright future" (Ashkanasy & Ashton-James 2005, p. 221).

In this review, we employed Ashkanasy's (2003) five-level model, which includes the following levels: (a) within-person temporal effects, (b) between-person factors, (c) interpersonal behaviors, (d) group and team leadership, and (e) the organization-wide view. As **Figure 2** shows, the five levels are strongly interrelated, both across and between levels of analysis. Indeed, emotions and their antecedents and effects in workplace settings cannot really be understood as anything but



**Figure 2**

A cross-level view of emotions at five levels of analysis (Ashkanasy 2003).

a multilevel phenomenon of reciprocal and recursive relationships. At the core of this version of the model is AET (Level 1). These relationships are in turn directed, affected, and moderated by individual differences (Level 2). Affective events themselves derive largely from interpersonal perceptions (Level 3) and perceptions that stem from individual differences (Level 2) and organizational context (Level 5). Finally, affective events (at Level 1) are also directly impacted by processes occurring in teams (Level 4) that in turn are affected by individual differences (Level 2) and organizational context (Level 5).

Next we address measurement of emotion and practical issues and conclude with some suggestions for future research directions.

## Measuring Emotion

So far, we have outlined the field of emotion research from definitional, historical, and conceptual perspectives. All of this, however, is contingent on appropriate measurement of emotion. In particular, there is a need for clarification regarding measurement of the many facets of emotion we identified earlier in this review, including but not limited to the specificity (generic positive and negative versus discrete), dimension (arousal versus unpleasantness), and expression, for instance. The first steps required to facilitate measurement of emotions must be to identify the dimensions of interest (e.g., valence, arousal), to state if the emotions measured are discrete or more generic, and to identify the rationale behind this.

Moreover, because emotions are not stable over time (Robinson & Clore 2002), it is generally recommended that researchers use ESM (see Larson & Csikszentmihalyi 1983) or diary methods

to record emotional states in real time (i.e., as soon as possible, after, or during the time experienced). Also, if emotions are only accessible via self-report, it is important to limit the number of emotions measured to avoid common method variance (Podsakoff et al. 2012). It is also important to avoid single-item measures wherever possible because they are likely to be affected by random measurement error (Cunney & Perri 1991). Finally, it is also crucial that researchers choose their measurement instrument based on the participant and account for individual differences such as whether English is the respondent's native language.

More recently, researchers have sought to measure emotions using nonself-report methods. In this regard, empirical studies in the past five years have sought to advance the literature on electroencephalography (EEG), quantitative electroencephalography (qEEG), or functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) methods associated with emotions. For example, Brenner et al. (2014) used EEG methods to study the role of theta brain waves in emotion memory tasks. This particular study differed from past studies by requiring its participants to encode and to maintain emotional expression rather than a specific face of an individual person. The authors found that theta activity is associated with short-term memory and decreases significantly when participants' attention is directed toward salient emotional stimuli, such as the negative emotion of another person.

An example of an fMRI study can be found in Hallam et al. (2014), who conducted a study focusing on the scarcely researched neurological basis of regulating interpersonal emotions. These authors compared fMRI images collected when participants engaged in self- or interpersonal regulation (i.e., helping others to regulate their emotions). Results were that interpersonal regulation activates areas of the brain associated with social cognition, including the left anterior temporal lobe and medial prefrontal cortex. These findings further suggest that successful regulation of another's emotions involves simulating emotional regulation in self. The authors suggest that this may be why interpersonal emotion regulation tends to be such an effortful process (Muraven & Baumeister 2000).

The studies we outlined in the foregoing all tended to be based on behavioral theories that consider emotion as a set of conditioned responses triggered by a neutral stimulus and associated with an internal stimulus, which evokes responses in the individual that are perceptible to others. Most recently, multimodal methods have come to be studied. These integrate information from more than one of three behavioral manifestations including gesturers, vocal manifestations, and bodily manifestations (Jacob-Dazarola et al. 2016). Recent studies also suggest that there are current systems that take advantage of body movements, for example the VICON motion systems (see <http://www.vicon.com/>), a software that captures body movements using cameras. Recent empirical work points to body expressions and postures for delivering important information in emotions (de Gelder et al. 2015).

In conclusion, we suggest that perhaps the safest way to measure emotion with reliability and validity is through multiple measurement instruments and to encapsulate the many facets of emotional experience—cognitive, physiological, and subjective (Dasborough et al. 2008).

## Practical Implications

From a practical perspective, we argue that there is much to take away from this review, especially that some emotional responses need careful and appropriate management. For example, managers can help their employees increase emotional resilience or self-efficacy—which has been shown definitively to improve performance (Scherer et al. 2001). This can be done by also increasing affirmational resources (the effects of self-efficacy factors). Ways to increase affirmational resources include the organization bringing in an outside expert, using personal example models,



and otherwise taking ownership of strengths and daily achievements at work (Evison 2003). Managing emotional responses will benefit the employee herself and her organization. Additionally, to manage organizational stress and negative affect, which are detrimental to the social well-being of employees, productivity, and organizational performance, organizations may benefit by intervening through primary, secondary, and tertiary intervention.

As Ashkanasy & Daus (2002) note, primary prevention can be accomplished by attempting to eliminate the source of negative affect in the work environment in order to reduce the negative impact on the individual. Primary prevention may be enacted by redesigning the task or work environment, creating more flexible work schedules, or building cohesive teams, among others. Even the US government's National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health in the National Strategy for the Prevention of Work Related Psychological Disorders came up with some recommendations for reducing job stress, including avoiding work overload, making work schedules compatible and flexible with employees, avoiding ambiguity in opportunities for promotion, providing opportunities for social interaction and emotional support, and creating job tasks that have meaning and an opportunity to use skills (Sauter et al. 1990).

Secondary prevention, however, deals with the quick detection of experienced stress and increasing awareness and improving the stress-management skills of the individual through education. Basically, secondary prevention is damage limitation, and thus does not involve taking action to deal with the cause of the problem. Tertiary prevention focuses on treating those who have suffered from poor mental or physical health due to stress and is seen in employee assistance programs (EAPs) or counseling services that help employees cope with workplace stressors and work-life spillover.

Finally, another way for organizations to reduce stress and destructive emotions at work is through economic incentives such as tax incentives for validated health and safety incurred by organizations (Bailey et al. 1994) to link risk-assessment and stress-prevention strategies to insurance premiums. For example, employers would be punished with an increased premium if many employees had accidents.

## Future Research

Arising from the foregoing review, we identify five key directions for future research. The first issue is that, consistent with the recommendations made by Gooty et al. (2009), scholars need to be more consistent in their definitions of basic terms, especially when it comes to differentiating affect, emotion, mood, and feelings. The terms still continue to be used interchangeably in the literature, leading to ambiguity and uncertainty as to the nature of definitions and relationships. Authors need in particular to define all terms meticulously, making it clear exactly what aspect is being studied. Moreover, scholars have generally tended to restrict their studies to positive and negative affect; rather than merely addressing the effects of discrete emotions, there needs to be more attention paid to discrete emotions. This applies not only to positive versus negative affect, but also to within each valence. For example, anger, fear, and sadness are all examples of negative affect but are associated with different action tendencies (Frijda 1986).

Second, although studies of within-person effects using diary or ESM methods are becoming more prevalent, there continues to be a pressing need for more Level 1 research rather than studies that group variables over time (Gooty et al. 2009). Furthermore, Li et al. (2010) point out that Level 1 research will reveal how day-to-day affective experiences determine employee attitudes toward their prospective organization and reflect the person-organization relationship. Past research has tended to focus primarily on the psychological perspectives from employees and ignore the organizational side. Li and her colleagues' conceptual model illustrates that

employee feelings toward organizational events influence person-organization commitment and also emphasize that improvement in organizational function can better the employee psychological perspective.

Our third recommendation for future research is based on the idea that researchers studying emotion in organizations also need to pay more attention to the role played by the context, especially in cross-cultural research. For instance, Li et al. (2010) employed a large sample from mainland China for a study on overall organizational commitment related to certain emotions in an organizational setting. They reported findings consistent with past theory from Western samples, showing that the multilevel model of AET is widely applicable. In a more recent study, Li et al. 2016 found that responses to emotional hurt varied across US and Chinese samples; Vogel et al. (2015) found cross-cultural differences in subordinate perceptions of abusive supervision.

On the basis of these findings, and in view of the pervasiveness of multinational enterprises, researchers should give priority to studying topics across all levels of emotion in organizations in multicultural contexts. As the workforce continues to grow and technology continues to advance, we also must look at how teams distributed worldwide, and telecommuting employees, influence the team dynamic. Additionally, Li et al. (2010) point out that collectivistic- versus individualistic-natured team members can considerably influence the affective dynamics of a team (also see Wagner & Iles 2008).

Fourth, and consistent with Ashkanasy's (2009) call for research in organizational behavior in general, there is an increased need to make more use of multilevel analysis. Although many of the links shown in **Figure 2** remain speculative and underdeveloped, they suggest multiple avenues for future research into the nature of cross-level relationships.

Finally, our fifth recommendation for the future is that researchers need to take into consideration the neurobiological nature of behavior and emotions. The perception of affective events at work activates the amygdala and basal ganglia. When we perceive incoming threatening stimuli, the amygdala goes to work by preparing us for response (Ashkanasy & Ashton-James 2005). The *basal ganglia* process positive stimuli to encode patterns of behavior that get repeated and rewarded over time (Lieberman 2000). More research is necessary to look at the stimulus-response relationship and its role in perceiving affective stimuli. In this regard, Ashkanasy & Ashton-James (2005) emphasize that we cannot underestimate how crucial these basic functions are in the foundation of emotion research unless we take a multilevel and dynamic approach toward understanding the nature and effects of affect and emotion in workplace settings.

## CONCLUSION

The study of emotion in organizations, once recognized as a worthy topic for research, languished in the years following World War II but reawakened in the 1990s following publication of Hochschild's (1983) *The Managed Heart*, leading ultimately to what came to be known as the Affective Revolution (Barsade et al. 2003). Today, the role of emotions in organizational psychology and organizational behavior, although still controversial in many respects, is unquestionably a part of the mainstream. Moreover, we have emphasized here, in line with Ashkanasy (2003), that emotions may be best understood as a set of interlocking phenomena that exist across five levels of organizational analysis, including cross-level effects, that impact on the overall effectiveness of organizations as well as the well-being of the employees who comprise them. In particular, there is a need for further advances in emotion measurement. This is because current designs still do not capture the dynamic nature of discrete emotions, especially when they are regarded as phenomena that exist across multiple levels of analysis.

## FUTURE ISSUES

1. How will a focus on differentiating affect, emotion, mood, and feelings (Gooty et al. 2009) affect the field?
2. What more can we learn about emotion in organizations through conducting more diary or ESM research focusing at the within-person level of research (Level 1)?
3. What is the role of context on emotion in organizations and, in particular, are there likely to be cross-national differences?
4. How will our knowledge of emotion in organizations benefit from multilevel research that crosses the five levels of the Ashkanasy (2003) model?
5. How can research based in physiological measures of emotion, including qEEG and fMRI studies, advance the field?

## DISCLOSURE STATEMENT

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## Errata

An online log of corrections to *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior* articles may be found at <http://www.annualreviews.org/errata/orgpsych>