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THE HEART OF SOCIAL NETWORKS:
THE RIPPLE EFFECT OF EMOTIONAL ABILITIES IN RELATIONAL
WELL-BEING

DISSERTATION

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the
College of Business and Economics
at the University of Kentucky

By

Virginie Lopez-Kidwell

Lexington, Kentucky

Director: Dr. Daniel Brass, Professor of Management

Lexington, Kentucky

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ABSTRACT OF DISSERTATION

THE HEART OF SOCIAL NETWORKS: THE RIPPLE EFFECT OF EMOTIONAL ABILITIES IN RELATIONAL WELL-BEING

To better understand the effect of emotions on formal and informal interactions in the workplace, I focus on emotional dynamics, the exchange and experience of emotions occurring within repeated interpersonal interactions. Emotional Ability (EA; how individuals perceive, use, understand, and manage their own or others' emotions) is a key component in emotional dynamics. Specifically, I focus on the role of EA on individuals' choices of coworkers for gaining emotional support (the receipt of empathy, caring, trust, and concern), and in turn, their occupational well-being and task performance. In addition, I investigate the "ripple effects" of EA, how the EA of focal actors may benefit others in the network. The value of Emotional Ability is thus in reaching beyond the individual's(ego's) benefit to extend to others (alters) who are tied to ego, in turn benefiting the entire social network (group of actors) and ultimately contributing to the organization's emotional health. I further investigate possible moderators of the EA-benefits relationship: relationship perceived emotional competence (as assessed by others), emotional self-efficacy (individuals' beliefs in their own EA) and empathic concern (propensity to experience feelings of warmth, compassion and concern for others). This study is part of a larger research agenda to develop an affective relational theory (ART) to examine how emotional dynamics affect relational dynamics in organizations.

KEYWORDS: well-being, emotional abilities, emotional support, empathic concern, social networks.

Virginie Lopez-Kidwell

Student's Signature

04-08-2013

Date

THE HEART OF SOCIAL NETWORKS:
THE RIPPLE EFFECT OF EMOTIONAL ABILITIES IN RELATIONAL
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For Lucile, René and Rochan.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Acknowledgments.....	iii
List of Tables.....	vi
List of Figures.....	vii
Chapter One: Introduction	
Research Background.....	1
Chapter Two: Conceptual Development	
The Role of Emotions in Relational Dynamics.....	4
Instrumental and Affective Consideration in Workplace Social Interactions.....	6
Research Questions	9
Emotional Abilities	11
The Ripple Effect of Emotional Ability in Social Networks	15
Chapter Three: Methodology	
Research Settings	26
Design and Procedures	27
Measures.....	27
Analysis.....	31
Chapter Four: Results	
Proposed Model & Analysis	33
Post-Hoc Model & Analysis	39
Chapter Five: Discussion and Conclusions	
Post Hoc Theory & Findings.....	49
Contributions and Implications	55
Limitations	57
Future Research.....	58
Appendices	
Appendix 1: Sample Items for Scales	62
References	65
Vita.....	74

LIST OF TABLES

Table 4.1, Descriptive Statistics and Correlations	33
Table 4.2, Result for hypotheses 1a, 2a, 3, 4	36
Table 4.3, Result for hypotheses 1b, 2b.....	37
Table 4.4, Result for hypothesis 1c.....	38
Table 4.5, Result for hypothesis 5	39
Table 4.6, Correlation table for Liking, Energy, Pleasantness, Emotional Support and Affective Well-Being matrices	41
Table 4.7, Post-Hoc Descriptive Statistics and Correlations	42
Table 4.8, Post-hoc relation 1.a, 2, 3	45
Table 4.9, Post-hoc relation 1.b	46
Table 4.10, Post-hoc relation 1.c	46
Table 4.11, Post-hoc simple slope analysis for the 3-ways interaction between Empathic concern, Emotional self-efficacy, and EA	47
Table 4.12, Post-hoc relation 4-5.....	47

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1, Research Agenda-Affective Relational Theory (ART) General Framework.....	6
Figure 2.2, Instrumental/Affective Consideration Tradeoff	8
Figure 2.3, Emotional Ability: Thinking about How We Feel	11
Figure 2.4, Emotional Ability & Social Networks	14
Figure 2.5, The Four Components Model of Emotional Ability	15
Figure 2.6, The Ripple Effect of the Benefit of Emotional Ability	16
Figure 2.7, Proposed Model.....	17
Figure 4.1, Post-Hoc Model.....	41
Figure 4.2, 3-way Interaction Graphs between Emotional Ability, Emotional Self-Efficacy & Empathic Concern	48
Figure 5.1, Work under Development: Ego's benefit from higher emotional abilities	60
Figure 5.2, Work under Development: Team-level benefits from actors with higher EA	61

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

“People may not remember exactly what you did, or what you said, but they will always remember how you made them feel.” - Maya Angelou

Research Background

Emotions play a ubiquitous and pervasive role in organizational behaviors. Employees cannot check their emotions at the office door, nor can they leave their emotions behind at the end of their work day (Elfenbein, 2008; Fineman, 2000, 2003; Frijda, 2000; Seo, Feldman Barrett & Jin, 2008). Our emotions make us human; they are key to our very survival and are more primitive than our reasoning abilities (Ekman & Davidson, 1994; Plutchik, 1994). Research shows that suppressing emotions or disregarding emotional information fails to enhance task performance, social interactions, or well-being (Buss, 2001; Clore, 2006; Clore, Schwarz, & Conway, 1994; Clore & Storbeck, J, 2006; Keltner & Haidt, 1999; Ketelaar, 2004, 2005; Ketelaar & Clore, 1997). Over the past two decades, scholars have come to recognize that emotion is not simply the opposite of reason. Rather, emotion is necessary to cooperation and social striving (see Barbelet, 2001). Emotion, like cognition, is never good or bad in principle. What we social beings do with our emotions, how we process crucial emotional information, and how we reason about feelings is an important element in the cooperation between emotion and cognition to inform our decisions and behaviors alike. “Emotions often display evidence of being designed to aid, rather than hinder, social decision-making” (Haselton & Ketelaar, 2005: 2). For example, imagine a team meeting in which an employee knows that a supervisor is speaking erroneously regarding a product feature. The employee might choose to correct the supervisor in front of the group. However, even if the employee is right, speaking out may create unintended consequences such as embarrassing and angering the supervisor. The employee could simply

wait until after the meeting to privately inform the supervisor, allowing the supervisor, for example, to correct the information via an email to the team and to choose whether to credit the employee. Damasio (1994) argued against Descartes' "I think, therefore I am" by proposing "I feel therefore I am" as an assumption to understand how people function in complex social environments. Emotions can change what we focus our attention on, what we recall, how we solve problems and frame our decisions, as well as being a source of motivation and drive (Isen, 1999; Lucey, 2005; Montague and Berns, 2002; Nabi, 2003; Rolls, 1999; Schwarz and Clore, 2003). In sum, affect is a basic construct of our social processes (Gohm, 2003; Goleman, 1995) and has been linked to the extent of systematic processing in many decision making settings (Elster, 1998; Lowenstein et. al, 2001; Plous, 1993). Thus investigating the role that emotions play in our socio-relational dynamics may help us gain important insights.

Since the mid-1990s, organizational behavior studies have shifted toward systematically studying emotions to gain insights into behaviors (Elfenbein, 2008; Fineman, 2000, 2003; Härtel Zerbe & Ashkanasy, 2005; Lord & Kanfer, 2002). "Much progress has been made in that managers are at least becoming aware of their emotions, talking about them, expressing them, and dealing with them, and that is helping to build emotionally healthy organizations" (Ashkanasy, 2004: 17). Within this paradigm shift, increasingly researchers are theoretically and empirically examining social contexts in the study of emotion (Fisher & Manstead, 2008; Parkinson, Fischer, & Manstead, 2005; Saarni, C. 2000). Taking the workplace as a specific social setting, employees use their emerging emotions in dealing with coworkers, customers, suppliers, and other stakeholders with whom they must socially interact to accomplish tasks. Fineman (2000) characterizes organizations as "emotional arenas, where feelings shape events and events shape feelings" (Fineman, 2003: 1). Affective event theory (Weiss & Cropanzano,

1996) argues that affective events are the proximal causes of affective states and distal causes for behavior and attitudes in the workplace. Events such as interpersonal interactions have been shown to impact well-being (Basch & Fisher, 2000; Bono et al., 2007).

Therefore, within that tradition, I wish to better understand the role of emotions in workplace interpersonal interactions by focusing on the dynamics of emotions within repeated social interactions rather than on singular experiences of emotion treated as events. Emotional dynamics focus on emotional exchanges and experiences occurring through repeated interpersonal interactions. Relational dynamics focus on necessary social ties that must be sustained over time due to the need of cooperation for task completion. An essential characteristic of network theory is in the relational activity between actors, embedded within complex networks of relationships, which bring a set of constraints and opportunities (Brass et al., 2004). These dynamic patterns formed over time, the web of social networks ties we are embedded in (Kilduff & Brass, 2010), will directly or indirectly influence the flow of resources, information, and coordination of actions (Borgatti et al., 2010). Emotional dynamics are key to understanding individuals' affective value (well-being) in the workplace and its trade-off with instrumental value (task performance), especially when both are incongruent in social endeavors (Casciaro & Lobo, 2005, 2008, 2012). For example, an employee who needs task advice may prefer asking a coworker for whom the employee feels positive affect rather asking than the most competent person. My broad research agenda is thus to develop an affective relational theory (ART) to examine how emotional and relational dynamics interrelate in an organizational context. ART is thus at the intersection of affect theory and relational theory, and I hope to further integrate both perspectives to gain further insights into organizational behaviors.

CHAPTER TWO: CONCEPTUAL DEVELOPMENT

The Role of Emotions in Relational Dynamics

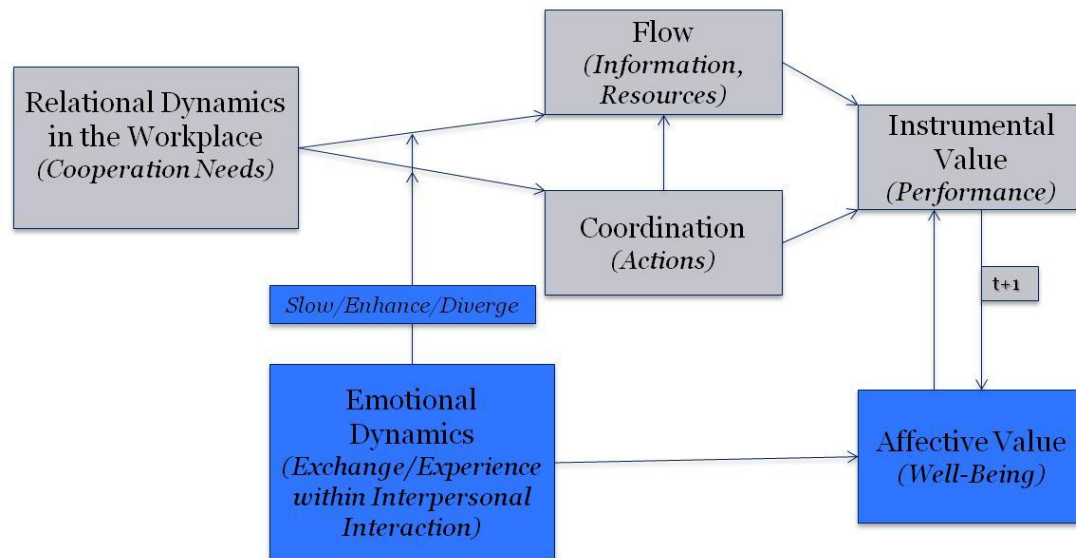
It is important to understand emotions as they relate to relational dynamics in the workplace because emotions influence the structure of informal workplace networks (Casciaro, Carley, & Krackhardt, 1999; Casciaro & Lobo, 2005, 2008, 2012; Umphress et al., 2003; Labianca, & Brass, 2006; Totterdell et al., 2004). Although organizational charts predetermine formal networks (i.e.; who must work with and report to whom), most informal networks (i.e.; friends, trusted confidants for sharing personal information) undeniably depend on how individuals feel about one another. In any work-related task requiring cooperation, coworkers must interact interpersonally, and those interpersonal interactions will influence whether tasks are completed successfully by determining, for example, the extent, rapidity, and creativity as well as the outcome of future interpersonal interactions and thus future task accomplishments (Brass & Halgin, 2012; Borgatti et al., 2009). Necessary flows and/or coordination of actions must occur between those engaging in formal or informal interpersonal interactions relevant to the task. Repeated interaction over time creates workplace social ties and stable relationships. Some instrumental-focused networks are, for example, information exchange, knowledge transfer, and advice exchange occurring through communication. Affective-focused networks include friendships, affect, trust, gossip, and emotional support. Affective or expressive elements are likely to be part of any social interactions, even if the motivations for interactions are primarily instrumental. Because I wish to examine the role of emotion in workplace social interactions, I refer to instrumental and affective networks as two distinct entities, as most social network research has shown (Casciaro & Lobo, 2008; Umphress et al., 2003; Labianca, & Brass, 2006). From organizational viewpoints, employees should maximize the instrumentality of their

social relationships to accomplish their work (see Burt, 1992, 2005). However, individuals are the social creatures, and repeated interactions with coworkers, supervisors, and bosses will engender experience and exchange of emotions underlying the development of informal affective networks. “Emotion can be a resource through which organizational relationships are created, interpreted and altered” (Fineman, 2000: 65). Thus, as information, knowledge, and other relevant organizational resources flow between employees, emotions may provide either friction or lubrication that reduces or enhances the functionality of those organizational flows. “Without emotions, human interaction and social organization would not be possible. Human emotions become the key to the active construction of social relationship” (Turner & Stets, 2005: 229).

Emotional dynamics focus on affective exchange/experience within interpersonal interactions (Hareli & Hess, 2012). Although relational dynamics focus on social ties we must form and sustain over time for cooperative task completion, research argues that as much as 97% of our communication is nonverbal (Andersen, 2007; Ekman, 2003). Most frequently, individuals express their feelings nonverbally, especially in the workplace where emotional displays tend to be unacceptable (Eide, 2005). But body language, facial expressions, gestures, tone of voice, and subtle innuendos still reveal and communicate emotions (Ekman, 2003) that are crucial information in most successful social interactions. Thus individuals suffering from autism or schizophrenia are severely challenged in their abilities to function socially because they lack the ability to detect feelings (Kaplan & Sadock, 1998; Hamilton, 2000). The ability to process emotional information evolves through workplace social interactions and is a key component for examining emotional dynamics as they emerge. Below in Figure 2.1, I present a general framework for my overall research agenda, where the blue portion of the model represents the intersection of affect theory with relational theory. This model is not intended to

be tested but rather to provide a conceptual visual for describing ART (please note this model is at a conceptual framework only, not meant for empirical testing as presented here).

Figure 2.1: Research Agenda-Affective Relational Theory (ART) General Framework



I hope to further the understanding of emotional dynamics as they affect relational dynamics. Next, I address the instrumental and affective tradeoff that employees face in social interaction to highlight the importance of affect in workplace relationships.

Instrumental and Affective Consideration in Workplace Social Interactions

Employees, supervisors, and organizations face basic challenges and trade-offs. On one hand, tasks must be completed and goals must be reached. Many instrumental considerations are at stake, ultimately affecting task performance and/or goal achievement. Interpersonal interactions either for coordinating actions or accessing information/resources become a necessity because of the need for cooperation. Yet, even in the workplace, individuals want to maximize their feelings of well-being, so they seek desirable emotions while avoiding undesirable emotions tied to affective considerations (Ortony, Clore & Collins, 1988). Mishra and Bharnagar define occupational well-being as “employees’ positive evaluation of their lives,

which includes positive emotions, engagement, satisfaction, and meaning” (2010: 404). I chose to focus on the emotional well-being portion (Warr, 1990) and to further discern how well-being relates to coworkers’ interpersonal interactions.

Four possible combinations illustrate this duality between instrumental and affective considerations (see table below): instrumental value and affective value can be either high or low (this table and terminology follow Casciaro & Lobo’s work, 2005, 2008, 2012). In the optimal situation, both values are high: social interactions are favored and flourish, when employees interact with *competent, loveable* coworkers. The situation deteriorates when both instrumental and affective values are low, when employees interact with *incompetent jerks*. Individuals avoid such interactions, so they are usually non-sustainable over time as one or both parties strive to end their relationship. Instrumental and affective considerations show no trade-off in both the high-high (H-H) or low-low (L-L) situations: individuals wish to sustain (H-H) or exit (L-L) situations. However, when instrumental and affective values are incongruent (Casciaro & Lobo, 2005, 2008, 2012), a tradeoff occurs in which people could be characterized as competent jerks (high instrumental/low affective value) or loveable fools (low instrumental/high affective value). Research has shown that emotional bias leads individuals to favor their well-being, even at the cost of accessing less-valuable instrumental information. That is, their positive feelings toward a less-competent coworker propel them to seek that coworker for task advice rather than seeking a more-competent but less-favored coworker. Casciaro and Lobo (2012) also showed that individuals were biased in favorably evaluating the competence of coworkers they have positive affect for (regardless of whether competence is an objective measure). To understand emotional dynamics and their effect on relational dynamics, we must consider carefully the trade-off

between affective and instrumental considerations in the workplace (see Figure 2.2; inspired from Casciaro & Lobo, 2005, 2008).

Figure 2.2: Instrumental/Affective Consideration Tradeoff

Value	Affective High	Affective Low
Instrumental High	Optimal (No Tradeoff)	Avoid (Tradeoff)
Instrumental Low	Preferred (Tradeoff)	Worst (No Tradeoff)

The need for cooperation necessitates workplace social interactions. Emotional dynamics are thus a key determinant of affective value (well-being). Relational dynamics are a key determinant of instrumental value (task performance) because of the flow of resources, information, and action coordination. Emotional and relational dynamics must then be linked to understand affective and instrumental values. Additionally, well-being influences task performance, which in turn affects task performance and well-being over time (Harter, Schmidt, & Hays, 2002). Research has shown, for example, that chronic negative affect (e.g., burnout and continual stress) exerts negative consequences on employees' health and performance (Shirom et al., 2005). If emotional well-being is continually disregarded, especially because of poor workplace social interactions, all may suffer risks to their motivation, focus, and task involvement (Ryan & Deci, 2000). This does not mean that happier workers guarantee higher performance but rather that individuals cannot continually sacrifice their emotional well-being

without at least hindering their ability to perform their best. Companies such as Google, Apple, and SAS are aware of well-being and instrumental duality; they rely on novel yet powerful innovations to boost employee well-being by providing enhanced work settings and flexibility. Employees, in turn, are asked for high commitment and performance. I next discuss my specific research question related to employees' emotional dynamics occurring within relational dynamics.

Research Questions

In this dissertation, I focus on the benefits of emotional ability in social networks. Emotional ability (EA) relates to how we think about how individuals feel to achieve some desired outcome; in short, how individuals perceive, use, understand and manage emotions in themselves or others (Caruso, Bienn & Kornacki, 2006; Mayer, J. D., & Ciarrochi, J., 2006). The ability to process emotional information evolves throughout workplace social interactions and is a key component for the examination of emotional dynamics as they emerge. Because individuals vary in EA levels (Mayer, et al., 2000, 2002), not all will have the same emotional dynamics occurring within interpersonal workplace interactions.

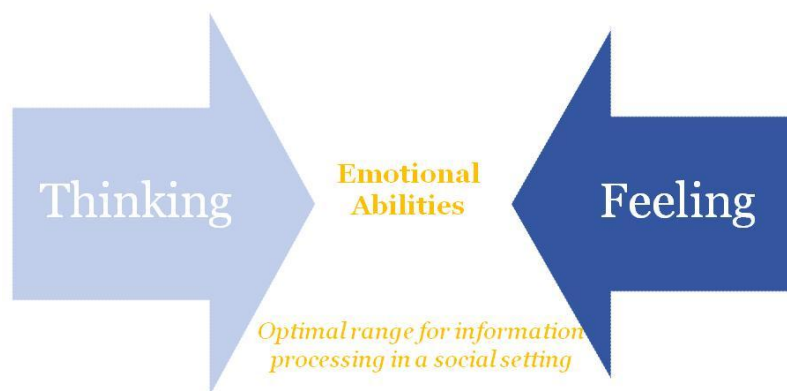
Specifically, in my dissertation I focus on EA's role in determining which individuals others choose to provide emotional support, as well as EA's benefits in terms of affective well-being and task performance for individuals with higher EA and others who are tied to them via emotional support networks. The value of emotional ability thus extends beyond the individual (ego) benefit to include others (alters) who are tied to ego, in turn benefiting the entire social network group and contributing to an organization's emotional health. I argue that individuals are likely to choose those with higher EA in seeking emotional support that, in turn, increases the affective well-being of both provider and recipient of support. In turn, increased well-being

enhances task performance, as feeling emotionally supported leads to desirable emotions that increase task focus and commitment. Additionally, I argue that individuals who appear (as assessed by others) to be emotionally competent moderate whether they are chosen for emotional support. People may seek emotional support from those they believe first to be able to provide such support. Furthermore, I argue that emotional self-efficacy — an individual's beliefs in their own EA — moderate who is chosen to provide emotional support; before individuals with higher EA may be willing to provide emotional support, they may need first to believe in their own emotional ability, increasing their willingness to provide such support in the first place. Finally, empathic concern — propensity to experience feelings of warmth, compassion and concern for other's dealing of life — further moderates the emotional self-efficacy moderation relationship; While belief in one's own emotional ability may strengthen the relationship between higher EA and being chosen for emotional support, I argue that this is especially true for individuals who are higher in their empathic concerns for others. Such individuals are more likely to feel for what others are going through emotionally, bringing that intrinsic motivation to want to support emotionally others; making those individuals more likely to be chosen to provide such help, but only for those with higher EA abilities as well as higher emotional self-efficacy. Understanding the role of emotional abilities will help develop important insights into emotional and relational dynamics in the workplace, with potential consequences regarding employees' emotional well-being as well as task performance. In sum, I wish to investigate one aspect of how individuals process crucial emotional information (via emotional abilities) and how that process shapes the experience of emotional and relational dynamics in workplace social settings (via emotional support networks).

Emotional Ability

Researchers have argued for an optimal range where emotion and cognition overlap to enhance socially embedded decision making (Damasio, 1994; Goleman, 1995; Mayer et al, 2002; Ekman, 2003). This overlap occurs when individuals use both cognition and emotion to inform their information processing and reasoning (considering their own and others' feelings). For example, an employee believes a raise is in order after discovering that a new hire with equivalent experience/skills received a higher starting salary. The employee prepares a list of sound logical arguments for a raise to present to the supervisor, but fails to consider the feelings the discovery evoked. Those feelings of being treated unfairly surface during the meeting with the supervisor, so that the employee becomes counter-productively angry, demanding, and argumentative. A better approach would have been to acknowledge the feelings first and prepare for the meeting accordingly. Figure 2.3 illustrates when emotional abilities matter most.

Figure 2.3: Emotional Ability: Thinking about How We Feel



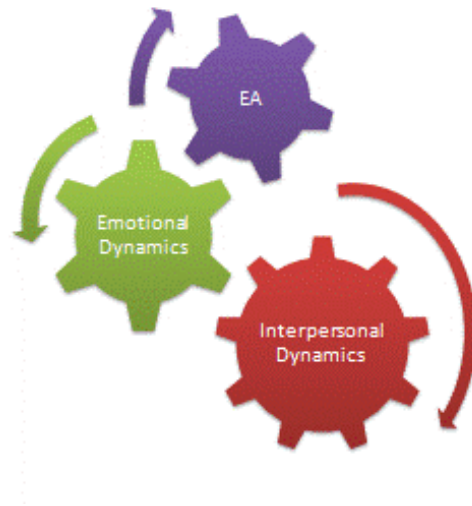
Theoretical concept. Emotional ability (EA) relates to how individuals think about emotions: how they process emotional information coming from themselves and the social

surroundings. EA includes four areas or branches: perceiving, using, understanding, and managing emotions (Mayer et al., 2000, 2002). EA is relevant to the study of emotional dynamics occurring within interpersonal interactions. Although other variables may be of interest, EA is directly applicable to the scope of this study. For example, self-monitoring has received much attention in understanding social astuteness (how well individuals navigate their social world). However this concept of social astuteness is much broader than the scope of this study. High self-monitors strive to align their behavior with their social setting. They may rely to some extent on their EA to reach that goal. However this behavioral/trait variable does not inform us regarding the process of reasoning about emotion in the self and others, empathy, or optimized social decision making. EA allows individuals to decrease their automatic response by thinking about emotion, recognizing the emotional dynamics benefiting the self and others to enhance interpersonal flows and coordination of actions (Caruso, Bienn, & Kornacki, 2006; Caruso & Salovey, 2004).

The way employees process emotional information is an important component of how effectively they communicate, interact, and relate with others. Many emotional cues are exchanged in daily communications, and individuals with varying emotional skills may respond to and process these cues differently. Over time, their responses to emotional cues will affect interpersonal relationships. For example, imagine that manager A and a newly hired manager B are meeting with their supervisors. Both their respective departments must work together to solve various crucial problems. Over the course of the meeting, manager A observes manager B's body language indicating growing frustration at being so new to the company and having difficulty following rapid interchanges. When the meeting concludes, manager A apologizes to manager B for failing to advise manager B about what to expect in company meetings. Manager B's

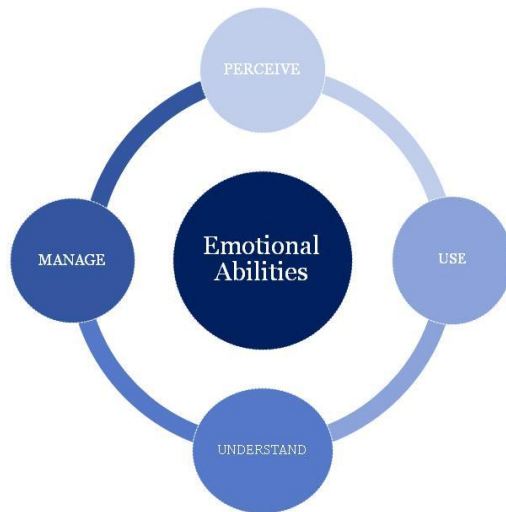
frustration is turned from anger to positive feelings of trust toward manager A. From then on, manager A builds on a positive interpersonal relationship with manager B that remains strong over time; in fact, they even joke about it when they recall how they first met. In this example, manager A displayed EA, which benefited both actors as well as the organization. By perceiving manager B's emotion, manager A used that emotional information, evaluated it cognitively, understood the feelings, and finally took action to manage the emotion. This leads to future pleasant work interactions and successful task accomplishment. From an organizational perspective, emotional abilities may enhance how effectively employees relate to coworkers, enable team-work, and manage subordinates using an "emotional blueprint", related to the four facets of EI as described above (Caruso, Bienn, & Kornacki, 2006: p. 189). The first step is to identify the emotions at stake (emotional awareness), then use those emotions to enhance thinking (emotional shared experience), further understand those emotions within the specific context (emotional investigation), and finally manage those emotions (emotional strategy) in order to achieve a desired outcome (e.g., relational, conflict resolution, motivation). This blueprint is an example of how emotional processing actually facilitates organizational interpersonal exchange (Lopes, et al., 2006). Figure 2.4 illustrates the delicate interplay of emotional ability in our social networks via our emotional dynamics.

Figure 2.4: Emotional Ability & Social Networks



EA measurement. Emotional ability (Mayer et al., 2002, 2004) identifies four skills related to the processing of emotional information: perceiving, using, understanding, and managing emotions in the self and others (see below Figure 2.5). Therefore, EA can be defined as: “The competency to reason about emotions ... to enhance thinking and apply this emotional knowledge to achieve a desired outcome” (Mayer & Ciarrochi, 2006: 197). Researchers have discriminated these abilities from how well individuals think they are able to process emotion (i.e., emotional self-efficacy or traits-based/self-reported measure), emotional traits (i.e., PANAS), or personality traits (i.e., extraversion or self-monitoring). Numerous researchers have established that employees with higher emotional abilities are higher performers (above and beyond cognitive abilities and other appropriate control variables; Cote & Minier, 2006; Mayer, Roberts & Barsade, 2008). However, we still need insight regarding the mechanisms by which higher EA is an asset to employees and thus for organizations to promote. This concept remains somewhat of a black box for speculation that needs further investigation (Druskat, Sala & Mount, 2006). I hope to gain insight regarding this question by examining EA’s role through the lens of social network theory.

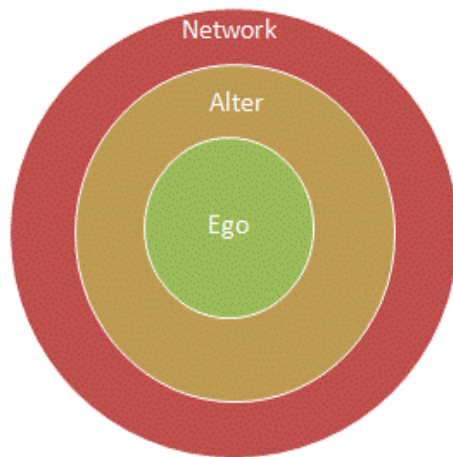
Figure 2.5: The Four Components Model of Emotional Ability



The Ripple Effect of Emotional Ability in Social Networks

Considering a relational perspective, high-EA individuals should benefit both themselves and their social environment. They enhance the emotional dynamics they participate in, which in turn improves the various flows of resources, knowledge, communication, and action coordination, as explained in the introduction. Emotions are invisible forces often shaping interpersonal dynamics, especially because communication cues in social settings are largely nonverbal. Most often, emotional expressions are nonverbal, especially in the workplace where emotions tend to be guarded (Eide, 2005). But emotions are still felt and communicated via body language, facial expressions, gestures, and tone of voice (Ekman, 2003). Emotions are thus crucial information in most successful social interactions (Lopes et al., 2006). I argue that EA helps enhance those emotional dynamics, in turn enhancing workplace relationship dynamics and benefitting not only individuals high in EA, but also others tied to them and the entire social network (see below Figure 2.6). According to Fineman (2000: 68): “Account[s] of the events and emotions they produce will ripple across relational connections that are activated and reactivated through the buzz of daily interaction.”

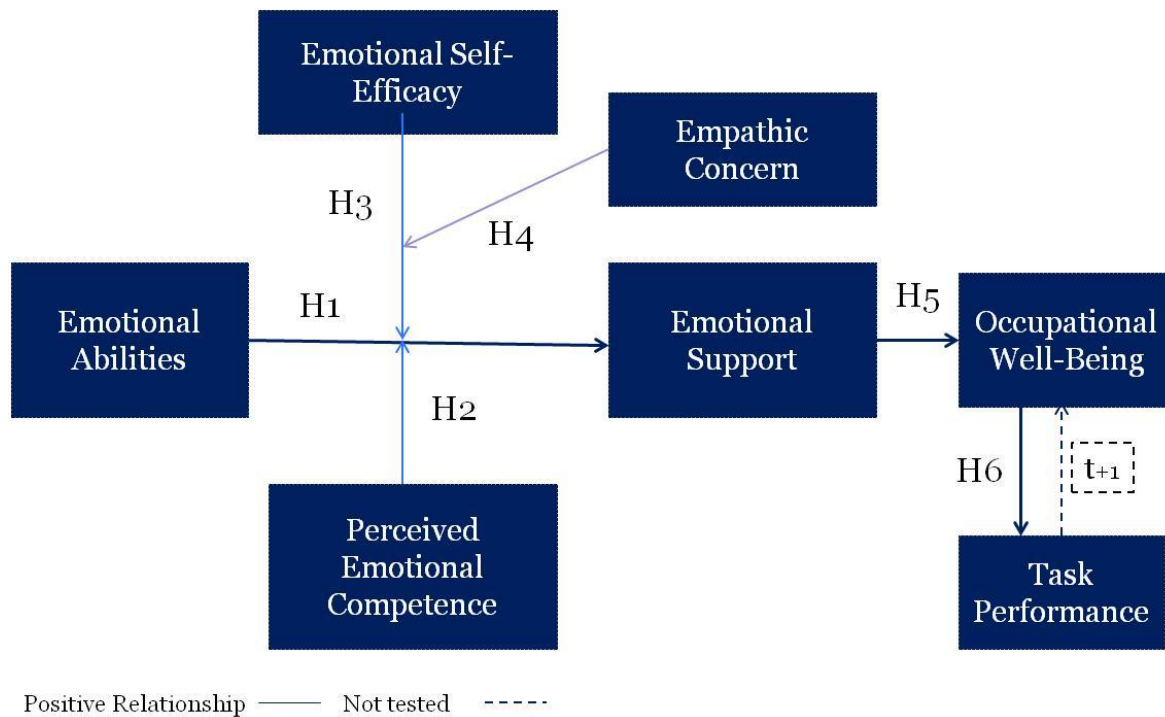
Figure 2.6: The Ripple Effect of the Benefit of Emotional Ability



In this dissertation, I focus on a particular aspect of emotional dynamics in workplace emotional support. Emotional support is described as the receipt of empathy, caring, trust, and concern (Jayaratne & Chess, 1984), a dimension of general/social support (House, 1980). Social support and lack of have been a growing research topic in the health literature (Song, Son & Lin, 2011). It is regarded as a key cause for avoiding disease and various health related outcomes (Berkman, 2000). In today's job environment, many jobs put higher emotional demands on workers from increased stress, greater customer service requiring positive emotional displays, career uncertainty and organizational changes to adapt to ever increasing competition and economic trend. Emotional support is thus a relevant dimension of social support in the workplace, as this can serve as a buffer for those emotional demands placed on employees. Further, Song, Son & Lin (2011) call for capturing social support via network instruments rather than general instruments, thus bringing the relevance of using a social network perspective in this study. EA relates to the processing emotional information in such of how individuals perceived, use, understand and manage emotions in one self and others. EA should be a key antecedent to further understand who is chosen to provide emotional support. I thus investigate

how alters benefit from egos' higher emotional abilities by accessing emotional support in term of their affective well-being and task performance. I will further determine what other mechanisms underlie this relationship by investigating a number of possible moderators including perceived emotional competence, emotional self-efficacy and empathic concern. Below in Figure 2.7, I present my overall model before developing support for each relation.

Figure 2.7: Proposed Model



Emotional support. Much research argues for the importance of adequate emotional support for employees (Toegel, Anand & Kilduff, 2007). For example, a recent 20-year-long longitudinal study (Toker et al., 2011) showed that a lack of emotional support in the workplace increased the risk that an employee would die over the next two decades by 140% (controlling for a number of other health and physiological factors), compared with employees who reported being emotionally supported in their workplace relationships. Because individuals must achieve the dual goals of performing instrumental tasks while also satisfying their affective goals (i.e.,

emotional well-being), the importance of organizational emotional support should come as no surprise. Fineman (2003: 39) refers to the “socio-emotional economy” as that “exchange of sympathy, compassion, love, appreciation, liking and so forth, which reinforces social bonds and sustains organizational relationships.” Further research has shown consistently that social support acts as a buffer between work-related stressors and burnout in the workplace (known as the stress buffering hypothesis; Cohen & Wills, 1985). I wish to contribute to that literature by investigating which employees are chosen by those who are seeking someone to provide emotional support. Individuals differ in emotional abilities (Mayer et al., 2002); some function at higher levels and are better at perceiving, using, understanding, and managing emotions in themselves and others. Therefore, such individuals are more likely to create positive, nurturing emotional atmospheres and are more likely to be chosen by coworkers to provide emotional support based on their higher EA skill set.

Hypothesis 1a. Actors (egos) with higher emotional ability (EA) will be more likely to be chosen by others (alters) to provide emotional support (in-degree centrality) than actors with lower EA.

Additionally, I argue that lower-EA alters seek higher-EA egos for emotional support. Lower-EA individuals are expected to be less able to perceive, use, understand, and manage emotions in themselves and others, in comparison with higher-EA individuals. Therefore, we should expect to see lower-higher EA matching in emotional support networks, as such dyads would exhibit natural and mutual attractions. I would thus argue for a complementary rather than homophily mechanism. Someone with a lower set of technical skills should look for someone who can provide such skills set when in needs of support, a similar logic is called upon here but for emotional processing skills. Individuals lower in processing emotional information look for individuals with higher level of EA in choosing their emotional support partners.

Hypothesis 1b. The difference of EA between an ego and alter will be positively related to alter reporting an emotional support tie with ego.

Last, I argue that higher-EA actors are more likely to bridge alters who are disconnected in the emotional support network. This effect would be beyond the ego or dyadic effect, where such key individuals would provide bridges of emotional support throughout the network. Individuals may not feel equally comfortable in the broker role (Burt, 2005; Casciaro, Jannotta & Mahoner, 1998). Being able to connect to different cliques and subgroups requires a person to be able to relate to actors with different backgrounds. Additionally, as Krackhardt (1999) has noted, the social norms, expectations, and relational rules may differ greatly among cliques, and someone who bridges such diverse actors may need to adjust to those conditions to develop and maintain their social relationships. This is especially applicable to providing emotional support; as such support requires cautious sensitivity to unique human situations. Furthermore, being between two cliques may bring stress, with one clique disapproving the ties to the other. Individuals with higher EA may not feel as much stress when relating to others from different social worlds, given their ability to decode much of the non verbal information occurring in interpersonal interaction.

Hypothesis 1c. Higher-EA egos will be more likely to bridge structural holes (i.e.; have a lower constraint score) by connecting alters who would otherwise be disconnected to one another in the emotional support network..

Perceived emotional competence. I investigate further underlying mechanisms related to emotional ability and emotional support in the workplace. I choose two relevant moderators to further understand the relationship between EA and being chosen as a provider of emotional support. First, individuals seeking emotional support may choose those they believe are able to provide such support. I argue that the relationship between higher EA and being chosen for emotional support will be stronger for individuals who they are perceived by others as

emotionally competent (regardless the assessment accuracy). For example, Tiziana and Lobo (2012) found that, over time, as individuals report positive affect toward another, they are also likely to report higher task competence, regardless of actual competence. Therefore perceptions of others' emotional abilities should moderate the effect between higher EA and alters' choices for emotional support. I argue for such a relationship both at the ego and dyadic level of analysis. This means for the ego level of analysis, I will look at the moderating effect of ego's average perceived emotional competence as assessed by others; while at the dyadic level, this will be the ego's perceived emotional competence as rated by alter whom alter chooses for emotional support.

Hypothesis 2a. Perceived emotional competence will moderate the positive relationship between self-reported EA and being chosen for emotional support (i.e., in-degree centrality); such that this relationship will be stronger for individuals with higher average peer-rated emotional competence.

Hypothesis 2b. The difference of alter's and ego's perceived emotional competence will moderate the positive relationship between the difference of alters' and ego's EA and reporting an emotional support tie; such that this relationship will be stronger when alter perceived ego as higher emotionally competent as assessed by others.

Emotional self-efficacy. The second moderator I focus on is emotional self-efficacy. This relates to individuals' perceptions of their own EA (i.e., their belief in their own EA), which the literature calls self-reported EA (for a review see Law, Wong, & Song, 2004). I argue the positive relationship between higher EA and being chosen by others to provide emotional support are stronger for individuals who believe they have higher EA. Being confident in one's ability (self-efficacy) has been shown to positively affect performance in the area of higher self efficacy (Bandura, A. 1977; Judge & Bono, 2001). I apply the same underlying logic, but to the realm of emotional ability, asserting that if individuals believe they have higher levels of perceiving, using, understanding, and managing emotion in themselves and others, they are more

confident about their ability to emotionally relate and support others. Emotional self-efficacy should then moderate the relationship between being higher in EA and the likelihood of being chosen by others for emotional support.

Hypothesis 3. Emotional self-efficacy will moderate the positive relationship between EA and being chosen by others for emotional support (i.e., in-degree-centrality); such that this relationship will be stronger for individuals with higher emotional self-efficacy.

Empathic Concern. Although EA is an important antecedent to being chosen for emotional support as well as the moderating role of perceived emotional competence and emotional self-efficacy to further understand that relationship. I argue for a further moderating mechanism (3-way) in empathic concern for others in the workplace. Empathy is the facility to experience, relate, and respond with appropriate emotions to the thoughts, emotions, or experience of others (Duan, 2000; Duan & Hill, C. E. 1996). Empathic concern (a sub dimension of empathy, see Davis, 1983) is an individual's propensity to experience feelings of warmth, compassion and concern for other's life. This is the most relevant to providing emotional support. If an individual can perceive, use, understand, and manage emotions in others, as well as has this genuine care for others' emotional well-being, this should make that person even more likely to be chosen for emotional support. Many leadership theories suggest the ability to have and display empathy is an important component of effective leadership (George, 2000; Kellett, Humphrey & Sleeth, 2006). Empathic concerns mean caring and being compassionate toward others. Empathy is a prerequisite before individuals may openly share their feelings. Without it, no one would spend time listening to others, no one would ask others about their welfare, and no one would care about others' feelings. Empathic concern is thus relevant for emotional support networks to flourish (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2002). Once an individual believes in his/her own EA, empathic concern acts as intrinsic motivation for providing emotional support. Goleman (2006)

describes empathic concern as compassionate empathy, where individual not only related to a person's situation but also is moved to help if one is able to. I expect that the moderating relationship by emotional self-efficacy between higher-EA individuals and being more likely to be chosen to provide emotional support will be stronger for individuals higher in empathic concerns.

Hypothesis 4. Empathic concern will moderate the moderating relationship by emotional self-efficacy onto higher emotional ability and being chosen by others for emotional support (in-degree centrality); Such that being higher in empathic concern will strengthen the two way moderation relation of emotional self-efficacy onto higher-EA and emotional support.

Occupational well-being and task performance. The last portion of my model focuses on organizational consequences for emotional support in the workplace. Researchers have found that having adequate emotional support in the workplace greatly benefits employee health (Toegel, Anand & Kilduff, 2007; Toker et al., 2011). As Casciaro and Lobo (2005, 2008, 2012) found, employees favor their own well-being, possibly leading to emotional bias when trade-off occurs between their instrumental and affective concerns. This means that affective value can trump instrumental value at the organizational level. I argue that by providing emotional support to others in the workplace, individuals actually increase their own affective well-being (i.e., their occupational well-being meaning within their current job rather than general well-being). The helping literature has documented this effect (known as the helper therapy principle; Rook & Dooley, 1985; Roberts, et al., 1999): the help provider often benefits as well as those receiving help. Furthermore, I argue that recipients of emotional support also experience increased occupational well-being. Their emotional needs being met through their relational dynamics increases desirable emotional states. Thus being linked to others with higher EA has benefits

beyond the mere ego, which spreads through the social networks, here the emotional support networks, contributing to the overall emotional organizational health.

Hypothesis 5a. Providing emotional support (in-degree centrality) will positively relate to ego's occupational well-being.

Hypothesis 5b. Seeking emotional support (out-degree centrality) will positively relate to ego's occupational well-being.

Another interest in this study is to link the exchange of emotional support to task performance, especially to highlight the value of emotional support and affective well-being to the organizational level beyond the mere benefit of each individual. I argue that affective well-being acts as a mediator of the relationship between emotional support and task performance. One recurring and well-documented finding across various settings characterizes EA as a predictor of higher performance (see meta-analysis, O'Boyle et. al., 2010). Emotional intelligence has been shown to enhance task performance: in customer service, decision-making task, merit increase, company rank, peer and supervisor evaluation, organizational citizenship behaviors, and leadership skills (Cote & Minier, 2006; Druskat, Sala & Mount, 2006; Mayer, Roberts & Barsade, 2008). However, little is known about why higher-EA employees perform better. This unknown has been the subject of much speculation. Are higher-EA individuals socially astute? Do they have better quality relationships? Do they better understand their social world dynamics? However, given that job performance should reflect how well a job is performed instrumentally (i.e., in term of task execution), why such proposed explanations would matter in the first place remains unanswered. But researchers and professionals alike cannot ignore the robust relationship between EA and higher job performance even in job contexts with minimal customer or coworker interaction (Mayer, Roberts & Barsade, 2008). With this study, I will test a possible explanation. Within my context I do not focus on a direct

relationship between EA and task performance; however, given my model, I argue that affective well-being will mediate the positive relationship between emotional support (driven by higher EA) and ego's task performance, as well as alter's task performance. Based on the affective and instrumental trade-off, I argue that once affective well-being is positively impacted via feeling emotionally supported through social relations in the workplace, this also influences task performance. Much research supports that increased well-being relates to better performance. More satisfied employees were found to be more cooperative towards coworkers, punctual, time efficient, have fewer days off work, and remain with organizations longer than other employees with lower levels of job satisfaction (Spector, 1997). Organizations also stand to benefit from workers' well-being (Harter, Schmidt, & Keyes, 2002). A meta-analysis by (Harter, Schmidt, & Hays, 2002) found a positive relationship between job satisfaction and employee performance (especially aspects of relational satisfaction with supervisors). However, this has not been linked to emotional support networks, let alone EA (see the above model for a visual of the full path of relationships). One mechanism is that once affective needs are met, employees will have more resources (i.e., motivation, focus, and time¹) to devote to a task (i.e., instrumental concerns). Thus I offer a possible explanation for EA's role in increased task performance via emotional support and affective well-being:

Hypothesis 6. Emotional support (both in degree and out-degree centrality) will have an indirect effect on ego's task performance via occupational well-being.

My overall model, as illustrated above, lists a final relationship that I am not testing, which I did not formally propose. However, it is of interest for my future work. I argue that as task performance is positively impacted at time t by increased affective well-being, then at time t_{+1} positive performance will positively impact affective well-being, and so on. This is key to the

¹ These underlying potential mechanisms will not be tested in this dissertation.

interrelation of instrumental needs, coupled with affective well-being needs. Organizations stand to gain by acknowledging that even if task performance largely depends on the instrumentality of social relationships (e.g., advice, knowledge exchange, and communication), affective concerns (i.e., well-being) is key for employees; and especially for the emotions arising and experienced within social relationships. If affective and instrumental concerns are incongruent, usually affective concerns win over instrumental ones, which can lead to various biases (see Casciaro & Lobo, 2005, 2008, 2012). Additionally, poor affective well-being leads to burnout, turnover, low performance, and other negative effects (Shirom et al., 2005). Gaining a better understanding of emotional dynamics via interpersonal relationships can give precious insights into motivation, job satisfaction, turnover, and many other key organizational outcomes.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

Research Settings

I surveyed an organization in the field of higher education located in the United States. The employees included staffs, faculties, and graduate students from three departments, who work together on various grants, research and consulting projects. One interesting feature is that the particular work tasks (research development) do not require emotional labor or customer service of any sort. Therefore studying affective networks such as emotional support and emotional abilities in such a sample would make finding results of even greater interest as we would not expect EA nor emotional support to be particularly required for task performance. The three areas moved into a new “state of the art” facility about a year ago. The main architectural goal was to create a green-oriented building while promoting research collaboration. This facility is the second part of a larger multi-million design to create an innovative space; the first building was completed eight years ago, and two more buildings are planned to be added over the next two decades. This building has three floors with a number of labs, offices, graduate students’ open offices, as well as storage places for equipment and open spaces with computers. Last, a number of common spaces have various sitting areas and dry-erase boards, as well as a kitchen, elevator, and bathroom spaces.

Six months prior to the data collection, to understand the building design’s impact on daily work functioning, 50 employees were interviewed regarding their feelings about their workspace. I had accessed to those transcripts. In addition, I met with various employees prior to and during my first data collection to gather appropriate information regarding the work-life specific setting. Last, for a year a research assistant studying the effect of the building design onto work collaboration helped assembling the most accurate rosters, as some individuals have

multiple offices or work in the building for a specific project or limited time. In addition, the research assistant reviewed and advised about the wording of the questions to increase the validity of the responses. Upper management employees also reviewed the survey before it was administered.

Design and Procedures

The University of Kentucky's Office of Research Integrity (ORI) approved this study, as did upper management, who encouraged employees to participate. I conducted my first survey (see <http://edu.surveymoz.com/s3/666941/Digital-Village-Survey-1>) at the site described above in early May 2012², about a year after the building grand opening. This survey contains both sociometric and psychometric questions. During the summer of 2013, I plan to conduct a brief follow-up survey to build future work and yield longitudinal data, however this is not formally part of this dissertation. My overall response rate for this survey was 70%³. To boost the response rate, I included as incentives a number of cash prizes to be drawn randomly when the study will conclude.

Measures

Main variable of interest. EA was measured using the only available validated EA scale domain specific to a work setting. The Emotional Intelligence in Sales and Service (EISS) instrument (Kidwell et al., 2011) measures a composite of distinct emotional abilities, giving an overall EA score along with four scores for each branch or facet of EA: perceiving, using, understanding, and managing emotions in one self and others. This 15 items scale was modeled after the original domain general EA scale called MSCEIT (Meyer et al., 2000, 2002). However,

² Upper management and the higher educational semester workflow imposed this timing.

³ 70% is considered an acceptable response rate for whole network analysis.

the EISS is shorter, more flexible, easier to administer, free and equally predictive as the MSCEIT. This ability framework is distinct from the trait models (for a review see Law, Wong, & Song, 2004). The central difference is that the ability model allows for consensus or expert rating of respondents' answers, which more precisely assesses actual abilities. Each respondent's answer is scored against the rating of a panel of experts in emotions, rather than as a self-reported measure in which respondents rate their own abilities to process emotions. The ability model has been found to be the most valid, reliable, and robust among diverse measures (Brackett et al., 2006; Daus & Ashkanasy, 2005; Mayer et al., 2002; Mayer et al., 2008). Last, the score is normalized within a given sample with a mean of 100 and a standard deviation of 15 (similar to IQ scores) to facilitate comparison within a sample. The split-half reliability was of .65. The Cronbach's alpha is for scales that are homogeneous, but the EIME has 4 different response formats, so using the cronbach's (the average of all split half combinations) is not appropriate, but split half is (Kidwell et al., 2011). Sample items for all scales and measures are given in Appendix 1.

Moderators. Perceived emotional competence was measured sociometrically by asking respondents to rate coworkers they knew from a roster of all possible employees. We clarified that instruction by explaining: *“by know we mean you can put a face to that name, and have talked at least once with that person for work and/or personal reasons beyond a simple greeting”*. Instructions were: *“To the best of your judgment, please rate the overall EMOTIONAL competence for each person”*, and clarified that instruction by explaining: *“by emotional competence, we mean how good that person is at processing emotional information when interacting with others”*. The scale was a five-point ranging from ‘Very Incompetent’ to ‘Very Competent’. I then ran in Ucinet VI a column average on this dyadic matrix of emotional

competence scores, given for each ego the average emotional competence rating given by all his/her alters (i.e., consensus rating).

Emotional self-efficacy was measured using a validated self-report measure of EA (see discussion above for difference between self-report and ability measure of EA), modeling the same four-dimensional format as the ability version but asking respondents to rate their own skills at perceiving, using, understanding, and managing emotions (Brackett et. al, 2006; see appendix 1 for sample items for this 16 items scale; $\alpha=.70$).

Empathic concern was measured using Davis's (1983) subscale of empathy (7 items, $\alpha=.75$).

Outcome variables. Emotional support was measured sociometrically by asking respondents to identify the supportive people among their acquaintances (i.e., the people they knew) "*if you turn to that person for emotional/personal support*". Here I chose a subjective approach by letting respondents select per their understanding of what constitutes emotional/personal support for them. As this may vary from person to person, it appears to be the best way to capture the network of emotional support as seen in the respondents' eyes. In addition, what matters in this study is to capture if a respondent perceived to be emotionally supported rather than whether they were objectively supported. From there I ran in-degree centrality (i.e.; number of incoming ties or nominations for each ego by alters) and out-degree centrality (i.e.; number of outgoing ties or nominations for alters by each ego) in UCINET VI. For the dyadic analysis, I used the actor-by-actor matrices, where a cell i,j represents the absence or presence of an emotional support tie as reported from each ego i about each alter j .

I measured respondents' occupational well-being (IWP multi-affect indicator scale, Warr, 1990; 12 items, $\alpha=.90$).

Respondents' task performance was measured sociometrically using peers' ratings as well as a supervisor's rating of their overall work competence. Instructions read, "*To the best of your knowledge, rate the overall WORK competence of each person (by work competence we mean how good this person is at his/her job)*". I then ran in Ucinet VI a column average on this dyadic matrix of task competence scores, assigning for each ego the average task competence rating provided by all his/her alters (i.e., consensus rating).

Other measures. I collected other measures as control variables or for future and post-hoc work. For control purposes I assessed: sociometrically the frequency of interaction of the person they knew by asking: "*Check this box if you interact (face to face, email, or phone) at least weekly with this person*" (then ran in-degree Ucinet routine to assess ego's size of work interaction). I also collected respondents' self-monitoring (Gangestad & Snyder, 1985; 18 items, $\alpha=.71$) and positive affectivity (Thompson, 2007; 6 items, $\alpha=.65$) as controls. Additionally, I collected and controlled for gender, age, education level, tenure, department, rank, and building (i.e.; if this building was the primary location for the respondent's research/work).

For future or post-hoc work I assessed sociometrically respondents': liking network ("*Choose the response that best describes your feelings toward this person*", 1=Dislike a lot to 5= Like a lot), energy network ("*Rate how energized you feel after interacting with this person*" 1= Very dis-energized to 5=Very energized) and pleasantness network ("*Rate the pleasantness of your typical interaction with this person*" 1=Very unpleasant to 5=Very pleasant). I also assessed

respondents' organizational affective commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990, one of the dimensions of organizational commitment, 6 items, $\alpha=.85$).

I also assessed sociometrically prior ties before moving into the new facilities, instrumental task advice networks, collaboration networks, as well as other organizational outcomes such as job satisfaction, intention to turnover, and job burnout. All instruments used were from well-established validated scales.

Analysis

Almost all hypotheses (except hypotheses 1.b and 2.b) are at the node level of analysis. I thus used UCINET to run appropriate ego-level network attributes on the emotional support network: number of nominations by alters for each ego or the in-degree centrality as well as constraint scores for assessing egos' bridging of structural holes, both measures in the emotional support networks. Then I ran hierarchical OLS regressions model in SPSS statistical package (SPSS Inc., 2006). If the pre-conditions were met, in order to test the mediation (H6: Emotional Support \rightarrow Occupational Well-Being \rightarrow Task Performance), I would also use a SPSS Process Macro for an indirect effect test using the bootstrap method (Haynes, 2012).

Hypotheses 1.b and 2.b are at the dyadic level, so I conducted a network regression. First I built a difference of EA score for each dyadic pair, which I regressed on the emotional support matrix (where a 1 in a given cell_{*i,j*} means actor *i* nominated actor *j* as a provider of emotional support). Attribute into matrix UCINET VI procedure was also used to create dyadic controls. Because of auto-correlation of network observations (i.e., observations are not independent; Krackhardt, 1988), normal OLS regression cannot satisfy the assumptions of dyadic network regression. Multiple regression quadratic assignment procedure (MRQAP original Y method;

UCINET 6, Borgatti et al., 2002) regression methodology is thus the preferred analyses. As Borgatti and Cross (2003: 438) explained, “QAP and MRQAP are identical to their non-network counterparts with respect to parameter estimates, but use a randomization/permutation technique (Edgington, 1969; Noreen, 1989) to construct significance tests.” The MRQAP procedures follow two steps. First, a standard multiple regression is performed across corresponding cells of the dependent and independent matrices. Second, both rows and columns of the dependent matrix are randomly permuted and the regression re-computed, storing the resultant values of all coefficients. This step is then repeated 10,000 times to estimate standard errors for the statistics of interest. For each coefficient, the program counts the proportion of random permutations that yielded a coefficient as extreme as the one computed in step 1.

Last for any interaction model, all variables/matrices of interest were first means centered for proper interaction modeling.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS

Proposed Model and Result

In this section, I present my findings for my proposed hypotheses as described in the prior section (see Figure 2.7). For all analyses I used the following controls: gender, age, education, organizational tenure, rank, building (whether the building was the primary workplace), department (whether computer science or other), size of the interaction network (in-degree centrality in the work interaction network), positive affectivity, and self-monitoring personality traits. Each variable is described in the prior section, and including in Appendix 1 for sample scale items. Each covariate was important to explain variance above and beyond prior explanatory variables. Descriptive statistics and bivariate correlations are displayed in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Descriptive statistics and bivariate correlations

	<i>N</i> [^]	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1 Gender [^]	78	.78	.42	-						
2 Age	78	34.85	12.48	-.112	-					
3 Education	78	2.58	.96	.091	.461**	-				
4 Tenure	73	8.04	7.88	-.005	.711**	.358**	-			
5 Rank	78	1.87	.71	.212	.318**	.701**	.324**	-		
6 Building	78	.87	.34	-.110	-.113	.071	-.044	.039	-	
7 Department [^]	78	.38	.49	.098	.016	-.091	.024	.069	-.485**	-
8 Size of Network	78	4.55	4.48	-.158	-.105	-.147	-.040	-.047	.022	-.098
9 Positive Affectivity	78	3.66	.53	.080	.373**	.160	.197	.026	-.178	.146
10 Self Monitoring	76	9.38	3.56	.257*	-.213	-.172	-.104	.054	.097	.207
11 Emotional Self-efficacy (ESE)	78	3.41	.50	-.031	.038	-.138	.103	.013	-.017	.163
12 Empatic Concern (EC)	77	4.02	.55	-.146	-.042	.017	-.070	-.150	.068	-.023
13 Perceived Emotional Competence (PEC)	74	3.93	.45	-.121	-.122	-.018	-.025	.030	.205	-.202
14 Emotional Abilities (EA)	78	100.00	15.00	-.238*	.149	-.081	.069	-.075	-.123	.103
15 Emotional Support In-Degree Centrality	78	1.17	1.53	.119	.305**	.066	.127	.151	-.008	.069
16 Emotional Support Out-Degree Centrality	78	1.17	1.62	-.081	.149	.088	.015	-.004	.040	-.066
17 Emotional Support Constraint	62	.54	.33	.028	-.259*	.048	-.124	-.044	.110	.001
18 Occupational Well-Being	76	10.52	2.06	-.007	.061	-.057	-.049	-.027	.071	-.022
19 Task Competence	75	4.26	.48	-.235*	.026	.038	-.140	.054	.101	-.052

Table 4.1: Descriptive statistics and bivariate correlations (continued)

	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1 Gender [^]											
2 Age											
3 Education											
4 Tenure											
5 Rank											
6 Building											
7 Department [^]											
8 Size of Network	-										
9 Positive Affectivity	-.356**	-									
10 Self Monitoring	-.059	.081	-								
11 Emotional Self-efficacy (ESE)	-.186	.269*	.349**	-							
12 Empatic Concern (EC)	-.111	.169	.146	.277*	-						
13 Perceived Emotional Competence (PEC)	-.001	-.024	-.074	-.018	-.085	-					
14 Emotional Abilities (EA)	-.095	.098	-.069	.253*	.009	.020	-				
15 Emotional Support In-Degree Centrality	-.150	.043	.070	.018	-.123	-.061	-.011	-			
16 Emotional Support Out-Degree Centrality	.118	-.032	-.057	.069	.053	-.229*	-.036	-.038	-		
17 Emotional Support Constraint	.001	.084	-.052	-.131	.012	.209	-.035	-.529**	-.548**	-	
18 Occupational Well-Being	-.335**	.214	.100	.262*	.006	.202	.142	.122	-.126	.101	-
19 Task Competence	.036	-.042	.070	.099	-.010	.052	.013	.087	-.187	.076	.193

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

[^] Binary variable

^{^^} Difference in N is due to missing responses

Hypotheses 1a to 1c. For hypothesis 1a, I did not find a significant positive relationship between an individual level of EA and their in-degree centrality in the emotional support network (Table 4.2, model 2: $\beta = .06$, $t = .40$, $p > .10$). However, the relationship was positive, suggesting the direction was at least correct. The emotional network was rather sparse which may explain why it was difficult to find significance, given a restricted range for in-degree centrality. For hypothesis 1b, I did not find a significant relationship between the difference of EA between an ego and alter and an emotional support tie between alter and ego (Table 4.3, model 2: $\beta = .00$, $p > .10$). Last, for hypothesis 1c, I did not find a significantly positive relationship (Table 4.4, model 2: $\beta = -.01$, $t = -.07$, $p > .10$) between individuals with higher EA

and bridging alters in the emotional support network (a higher constraint scores means a lower bridging position, so the coefficient should be negative).

Hypothesis 2. For hypothesis 2a, I did not find significance for emotional competence moderating the relationship between EA and in-degree centrality in emotional support (Table 4.2, model 3: $\beta = .28$, $t = .29$, $p > .10$). For hypothesis 2b, I also did not find significance for the difference of alter's and ego's perceived emotional competence moderating the relationship between the difference of alters' and ego's EA and reporting an emotional support tie (Table 4.3, model 3: $\beta = .02$, $p > .10$).

Hypothesis 3. I did not find significance for emotional self-efficacy moderating the relationship between EA and in-degree centrality for emotional support (Table 4.2, model 3: $\beta = -.12$, $t = .12$, $p > .10$).

Hypothesis 4. I did not find significance for empathic concern moderating the two-way moderating relationship between emotional self-efficacy and higher emotional ability onto in-degree centrality for emotional support (Table 4.2, model 4⁴: $\beta = -.25$, $t = -.21$, $p > .10$).

Hypothesis 5. I did not find that in-degree centrality in emotional support positively significantly relates to ego's occupational well being (Table 4.5, model 2: $\beta = .07$, $t = .51$, $p > .10$). I also did not find that out-degree centrality in emotional support (Table 4.5, model 2: $\beta = -.09$, $t = -.73$, $p > .10$).

Hypothesis 6. Because Hypotheses 5a and 5b were not supported, I could not test for the indirect effect of in-degree centrality onto task performance via occupational well-being. To test for indirect effect of variable X (in-degree or out-degree centrality in emotional support) onto Y

⁴ In order to be statistically consistent my 2-ways and 3-ways model in table 2 had to include all possible interaction terms even if not formally hypothesized.

(task performance) via Z (occupational well-being, mediator), at least a significant relationship between X to Z (hypothesis 5) as well as from Z to Y must exist. These pre-condition were not met.

Table 4.2: Result for hypotheses 1a, 2a, 3, 4

Variable	<i>Emotional Support In-Degree Centrality</i>			
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
Gender	.21	1.63	1.16	1.17
Age	.74	3.19**	2.62*	2.44*
Education	-.20	-0.87	-0.74	-0.48
Tenure	-.37	-1.97*	-2.14*	-2.01*
Rank	.06	0.18	0.91	0.71
Building	.07	0.44	-0.16	0.13
Department [^]	.07	0.54	-0.13	-0.22
Size of Network	-.14	-1.01	-0.79	-0.91
Positive Affectivity	-.20	-1.32	-1.13	-1.24
Self Monitoring	.07	0.56	0.75	0.76
Emotional Self-efficacy (ESE)		-0.03	0.09	0.13
Empatic Concern (EC)		0.05	0.13	0.64
Perceived Emotional Competence (PEC)		0.65	-0.34	0.27
Emotional Abilities (EA)		0.40	0.48	0.80
EA * ESE			-0.12	-0.14
EA * PEC			0.29	-0.31
EA * EC			-0.31	-0.78
ESE * PEC			1.24	-0.36
ESE * EC			1.24	0.37
PEC * EC			1.61	-0.96
EA * ESE * EC				-0.21
EA * PEC * ESE				0.45
EA * PEC * EC				1.16
R-Square	.198	.207	.286	.312
Δ R-Square	.198	.009	.079	.026
Adjusted R-square	.052	-.011	-.032	-.066

Note . Standardized coefficients are reported. Δ R-Square report changes from the previous model.

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

Table 4.3: Result for hypotheses 1b, 2b

Matrix	<i>Emotional Support</i>		
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Gender Similarity	0.00	0.00	0.00
Age Similarity	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03
Education Similarity	0.02	0.02	,02
Building Similarity	0.00	0.00	0.00
Rank Similarity	-0.05***	-0.05***	-0.05***
Department Similarity	0.09***	0.09***	0.09***
Interaction Ties	-0.03***	-0.03***	-0.03***
Self-monitoring Similarity	-0.02	-0.02	-0.02
Positive affectivity Similarity	0.00	0.00	0.00
Empatic Similarity	0.00	0.00	0.00
Emotional Self-Efficacy Similarity	0.02	0.02	0.02
Perceived Emotional Competence Similarity		-0.01	-0.01
Ego & Alter Combined Emotional Abilities		0.00	0.00
Ego & Alter Combined Emotional Abilities *			
Perceived Emotional Competence Similarity			0.02
n	6006	6006	6006

Note. Standardized coefficients are listed in this table. ***p < 0.001

Table 4.4: Result for hypothesis 1c

Variable	<i>Emotional Support Constraint</i>	
	Model 1	Model 2
Gender	-.09	-.09
Age	-0.62*	-0.62*
Education	.26	.26
Tenure	.19	.20
Rank	-.10	-.10
Building	.14	.13
Department	.13	.13
Size of Network	.15	.15
Positive Affectivity	0.50*	0.50*
Self Monitoring	-.19	-.19
Emotional Self-efficacy (ESE)	-.19	-.19
Empatic Concern (EC)	-.05	-.05
Perceived Emotional Competence (PEC)	.14	.14
Emotional Abilities (EA)		-.01
R-Square	.280	.280
Δ R-Square	.280	.0
Adjusted R-square	.040	.020

Note . Standardized coefficients are reported. Δ R-Square report changes from the previous model.

* $p < .05$.

Table 4.5: Result for hypothesis 5

Variable	<i>Occupational Well-Being</i>	
	Model 1	Model 2
Gender	.00	-.01
Age	.21	.19
Education	-.21	-.19
Tenure	-.18	-.18
Rank	.11	.10
Building	.07	.06
Department	-.12	-.13
Size of Network	-0.33*	-0.31*
Positive Affectivity	.09	.10
Self Monitoring	.09	.09
Emotional Abilities (EA)	.12	.11
Emotional Support In-Degree Centrality		.07
Emotional Support Out-Degree Centrality		-.09
R-Square	.196	.210
Δ R-Square	.196	.012
Adjusted R-square	.043	.024

Note . Standardized coefficients are reported. Δ R-Square report changes from the previous model.

* $p < .05$.

Post-Hoc Model and Analysis

Based on the above non-findings for the proposed hypotheses, I expanded my theory and general model, and proceeded to post-hoc analysis. First I changed my focus and created a modified key variable of interest. I decided to look at more than one affective network and focus on broader emotional dynamics, rather than just the emotional support network. This network, as said before, was rather sparse and thus may render finding results challenging. Considering that I collected several positive affect networks, I decided to combine them to create a general positive affective resources network, which I call *relational well-being network*. This network represents

the evaluation by the interacting partners of the general positive affective resources – liking, positive energy, pleasantness, and emotional support – exchanged within repeated interpersonal interaction, and fits within my research agenda as capturing relevant emotional dynamics to study in the workplace. I thus go above and beyond simply investigating the emotional support network, allowing for a denser network and thus also greater variance as well as more theoretical depth to my arguments (please see the discussion section for post-hoc theoretical development). I obtained the relational well-being network by thus combining liking, positive energy, pleasantness, and emotional support (please see the method section for full description of the mentioned networks). First I recoded values of *like* (4) and *like a lot* (5) to value of 1, otherwise 0; and values of *energized* (4) and *energized a lot* (5) to value of 1, otherwise 0; as well as values of *pleasant* (4) and *very pleasant* (4) to value of 1, otherwise 0. Second, I summed the above dichotomized networks: liking, energy, pleasant, and emotional support (which did not need to be recoded since already dichotomized, valued as 1, otherwise 0). The relational well-being matrix cell i, j can thus have a minimum value of 0 and a maximum value of 4, reflecting the number of nominations actor i has selected for alter j over the four described positive affect dichotomized networks. This relational well-being network is thus valued where a higher score means a stronger tie in term of positive affective resources between two actors. From there I can focus on the providers and recipients of relational well-being. Providing relational well-being is the sum of all ego's ratings received from his/her interacting partners (in-degree centrality procedure). And receiving relational well-being is the sum of all ego's ratings sent to his/her interacting partners (out-degree centrality procedure). In the discussion section, I will further explain the theoretical underpinning for this concept. Further to ensure that the overlap was not too extensive, I ran the correlation between those four individual positive affect matrices and the

combined well-being matrix (see Table 4.6; the correlations vary from .29 to .40, confirming that unique variance can be explained by using this combined matrix⁵). Below I present my post-hoc model, although I will discuss the theoretical justification in the discussion section.

Table 4.6: Correlation table for Liking, Energy, Pleasantness, Emotional Support and Affective Well-Being matrices

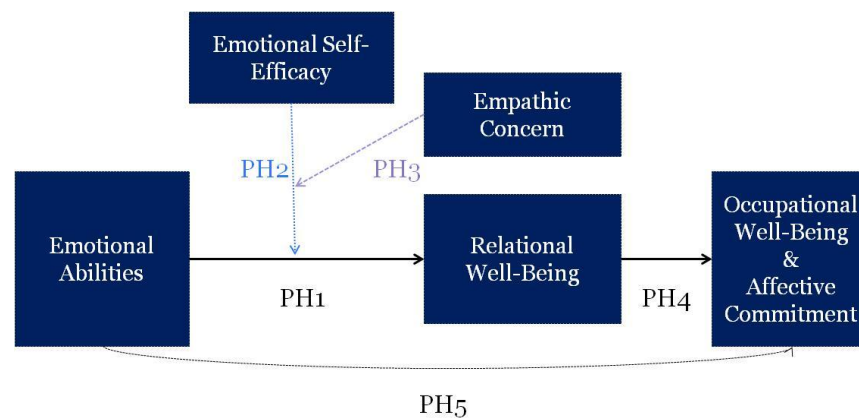
	1	2	3	4	5
1 Liking Dichotomized Network	--				
2 Pleasantness Dichotomized Network	0.33***	--			
3 Positive Energy Dichotomized Network	0.15***	0.16***	--		
4 Emotional Support Dichotomized Network	0.03*	0.02*	0.07***	--	
Relational-Well-Being Combined Positive Affect Valued					
5 Networks	0.39***	0.40***	0.40***	0.29***	--

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Then, inspired by my proposed model, I decided to test a similar yet simpler model, where most of my arguments are still valid (even if here those are directed to relational well-being as a four combined positive affective networks rather than emotional support network) and will be further explained in the discussion section.

Figure 4.1: Post-Hoc Model



⁵ In addition, the order of presentation of each network question (Emotional support, Liking, Energy and Pleasantness) in the survey did not seem to affect the responses, in such if respondent's fatigue was to be an issue we should find a decreasing correlation as respondents would simply rate less alters, but this was not the case. Additionally each network was presented as a standalone question (and Emotional support was separated by other network questions to the other positive affect network questions) allowing respondents to answer each question on its own rather than as one single question (i.e., using a matrix table like format).

I now present my findings for the above five post-hoc (PH) relationships. Table 5.7 shows descriptive statistics and bivariate correlations for all variables included in my post-hoc analyses. I used the same set of controls than the one used for my proposed model.

Table 4.7: Post-hoc descriptive statistics and bivariate correlations

	<i>N</i> [^]	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1 Gender [^]	78	0.78	0.42	-						
2 Age	78	34.85	12.48	-0.11	-					
3 Education	78	2.58	0.96	0.09	.461**	-				
4 Tenure	73	8.04	7.88	0.00	.711**	.358**	-			
5 Rank	78	1.87	0.71	0.21	.318**	.701**	.324**	-		
6 Building	78	0.87	0.34	-0.11	-.113	.071	-.044	.039	-	
7 Department [^]	78	0.38	0.49	0.10	.016	-.091	.024	.069	-.485**	-
8 Size of Network	78	4.55	4.48	-0.16	-.105	-.147	-.040	-.047	.022	-.098
9 Positive Affectivity	78	3.66	0.53	0.08	.373**	.160	.197	.026	-.178	.146
10 Self Monitoring	76	9.38	3.56	.257*	-.213	-.172	-.104	.054	.097	.207
11 Emotional Self-efficacy (ESE)	77	4.02	0.55	-0.15	-.042	.017	-.070	-.150	.068	-.023
12 Empatic Concern (EC)	78	3.41	0.50	-0.03	.038	-.138	.103	.013	-.017	.163
13 Emotional Abilities (EA)	78	100.00	15.00	-.238*	.149	-.081	.069	-.075	-.123	.103
14 Relational Well-Being In-Degree Centrality	78	7.60	9.32	-.227*	.146	.029	-.009	.092	.029	.079
15 Relational Well-Being Out-Degree Centrality	78	7.60	9.27	.004	.266*	.255*	.261*	.063	.075	-.052
16 Relational Well-Being Constraint Centrality	75	0.51	0.30	0.05	-.199	.018	-.135	.035	-.049	-.032
17 Organizational Well-Being	76	10.52	2.06	-0.01	.061	-.057	-.049	-.027	.071	-.022
18 Organizational Affective Commitment	76	3.18	0.89	-.034	.257*	.252*	.163	.139	-.023	.038

	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1 Gender [^]										
2 Age										
3 Education										
4 Tenure										
5 Rank										
6 Building										
7 Department [^]										
8 Size of Network	-									
9 Positive Affectivity	-.356**	-								
10 Self Monitoring	-.059	.081	-							
11 Emotional Self-efficacy (ESE)	-.111	.169	.146	-						
12 Empatic Concern (EC)	-.186	.269*	.349**	.277*	-					
13 Emotional Abilities (EA)	-.095	.098	-.069	.009	.253*	-				
14 Relational Well-Being In-Degree Centrality	.428**	-.145	-.184	-.214	-.044	.241*	-			
15 Relational Well-Being Out-Degree Centrality	.022	.069	.013	.260*	.114	.146	-.043	-		
16 Relational Well-Being Constraint Centrality	-.290*	.104	.084	-.055	-.135	-.272*	-.423**	-.507**	-	
17 Organizational Well-Being	-.335**	.214	.100	.006	.262*	.142	-.225	0.031	.170	-
18 Organizational Affective Commitment	-.199	.205	-.188	.161	.062	.054	-.059	.298**	-.043	.383**

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

[^] Binary variable

^{^^} Difference in N is due to missing responses

For my post-hoc relation 1a, I tested whether having higher emotional abilities is positively related to providing relational well-being to others (in-degree centrality in the relational well-being network), meaning receiving more nominations by others for being likeable, energizing others when interacting with them, being pleasant, or being chosen for emotional support. I found support (Table 4.8, model 2: $\beta = .25$, $t = 2.20$, $p < .05$).

For my post-hoc relation 1b, I tested whether combined higher emotional abilities between two coworkers (the product of their respective EA) was positively related to a stronger relational well-being tie. I found support (Table 4.9, model 2: $\beta = .07$, $p < .05$).

For my post-hoc relation 1c, I tested whether higher emotional intelligence was related to bridging coworkers who are not connected to one another in the relational well-being network. I found support (Table 4.10, model 2: $\beta = -.01$, $t = -1.98$, $p < .05$; as expected the coefficient should be negative as lower constraint scores indicates higher bridging position for the focal actor).

For my post-hoc relation 2, I tested whether emotional self-efficacy moderated the relation between EA and in-degree centrality in the relational well-being network. I did not find support (Table 4.8, model 3: $\beta = -.29$, $t = -.38$, $p > .10$).

For my post-hoc relation 3, I tested whether empathic concern interacted in a three-way with emotional self-efficacy and emotional abilities onto in-degree centrality in the relational well-being network. I found support (Table 4.8, model 4: $\beta = -1.91$, $t = -2.12$, $p < .05$). To further interpret that three-way interaction, I ran a simple slope analysis (Preacher, Curran, & Bauer, 2006; Table 4.11, for Higher EC & Lower ESE: $\beta = 10.54$, $t = 1.92$, $p < .05$) and graphed that interaction (see Figure 5.2). When empathic concern is higher and emotional self-efficacy is

lower, the positive relationship between emotional abilities and relational well-being in-degree centrality is stronger.

For my post-hoc relation 4a, I tested whether in-degree centrality in the relational well-being network was positively related to (1) occupational well-being and (2) organizational affective commitment. I found mixed support (Table 4.12, model 1.2: $\beta = -.25$, $t = -1.71$, $p < .10$; model 2.2: $\beta = -.08$, $t = -.51$, $p > .10$), such as a marginal but negative significant relation between in-degree centrality in the relational well-being network and occupational well-being, while no significant result for organizational affective commitment.

For my post-hoc relation 4b, I tested whether out-degree centrality (i.e., receiving relational well being) in the relational well-being network was positively related to (1) occupational well-being and (2) organizational affective commitment. I found mixed support (Table 4.12⁶, model 1.2: $\beta = .09$, $t = .70$, $p > .10$; model 2.2: $\beta = .29$, $t = 2.16$, $p < .05$), such as a positive significant relation between out-degree centrality and organizational affective commitment, while no significant result for occupational well-being.

Last, post-hoc relation 5 was tested for an indirect effect of EA onto occupational well-being via in-degree centrality in the relational well-being network I used a SPSS Process Macro for an indirect effect test using bootstrap method (Haynes, 2012) and found some support⁷ (Table 4.12, 5000 Bootstrap, $z = -.02$, $p < .10$). Because only Hypotheses 4a-1 was supported (not H 4a-2), I could only test for the indirect effect of EA on occupational well-being (and not

⁶ For post-hoc relationship 4 in addition to my set of control, I also controlled for the variable of interest and main independent variable EA.

⁷ The indirect effect was tested with no covariates in the model but as a pure mediation path.

organizational affective commitment) via in-degree centrality⁸ in relational well-being (thus being the mediating variable). To test for indirect effect of variable X (EA) onto Y (occupational well-being or organizational affective commitment) via Z (in-degree centrality in relational well-being, mediator), at least a significant relationship between X to Z (see hypothesis 4a1 and 4a2) as well as from Z to Y must exist (see hypothesis 1a). Thus the pre-condition were only meant for occupational well-being and not organizational affective commitment.

Table 4.8: Post-hoc relation 1.a, 2, 3

Variable	<i>Relational Well-Being In-Degree Centrality</i>			
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
Gender	-0.13	-0.07	-0.05	-0.02
Age	0.26	0.27	0.31	0.35+
Education	-0.10	0.02	-0.02	-0.01
Tenure	-0.23	-0.28+	-0.35*	-0.38*
Rank	0.19	0.13	0.20	0.19
Building	0.14	0.19	0.23+	0.25*
Department	0.22 +	0.21+	0.19	0.21+
Size of Network	0.44***	0.46***	0.45	0.43***
Positive Affectivity	-0.03	-0.05	-0.07	-0.07
Self Monitoring	-0.21+	-0.20	-0.20+	-0.23*
Emotional Self-efficacy (ESE)		0.09	0.37	0.22
Empatic Concern (EC)		-0.15	-0.25	-0.27
Emotional Abilities (EA)		0.25*	0.25*	0.32**
EA * ESE			-0.29	-0.10
EA * EC			0.08	0.18
ESE * EC			0.18	2.05*
EA * ESE * EC				-1.91*
R-Square	.352	.434	.458	.501
ΔR-Square	0.35***	0.08*	0.02	0.04*
Adjusted R-square	.242	.303	.294	.338

Note . Standardized coefficients are reported. ΔR-Square report changes from the previous model.

+ p < .10.

** p < .01.

* p < .05.

*** p < .001.

⁸ I only had a post-hoc relationship to test for the indirect effect of EA onto both of my organizational outcomes via in-degree centrality (providing relational well-being) and not out-degree centrality because I am not testing any indirect relationship between EA and out-degree (receiving relational well-being).

Table 4.9: Post-hoc relation 1.b

Matrix	<i>Relational Well-Being</i>	
	Model 1	Model 2
Gender Similarity	-0.01	0.001
Age Similarity	0.00	0.001
Education Similarity	0.03	0.03
Building Similarity	0.01	0.02
Rank Similarity	-0.01	-0.01
Department Similarity	0.16***	0.16***
Interaction Ties	0.19***	0.19***
Self-monitoring Similarity	0.02	0.02
Positive affectivity Similarity	0.01	0.01
Empatic Similarity	0.03	0.03
Emotional Self-Efficacy Similarity	0.03	0.03
Ego & Alter Combined Emotional Abilities		0.07**
n	6006	6006

Note. Standardized coefficients are listed in this table. * $p < 0.05$ ** $p < 0.01$

Table 4.10: Post-hoc relation 1.c

Variable	<i>Relational Well-Being Constraint</i>	
	Model 1	Model 2
Gender	-.17	-.23+
Age	-.41+	-1.95*
Education	-.05	-.06
Tenure	.08	.10
Rank	.23	.21
Building	-.09	-.14
Department	-.19	-.18
Size of Network	-.37**	-.38**
Positive Affectivity	.20	.21
Self Monitoring	.13	.10
Emotional Self-efficacy (ESE)	-.33*	-.26+
Empatic Concern (EC)	-.33	-.56
Emotional Abilities (EA)		-.25*
R-Square	.286	.335
Δ R-Square	.286	0.05*
Adjusted R-square	.127	.172

Note . Standardized coefficients

+ $p < .10$. ** $p < .01$.
 * $p < .05$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 4.11: Post-hoc simple slope analysis for the 3-ways interaction between Empathic concern, Emotional self-efficacy, and EA.

Simple Slope Analysis for 3-way Interaction		
Condition	Beta	t -Value
Lower EC & Lower ESE	-15.9	-1.87
Lower EC & Higher ESE	12.3	1.69
Higher EC & Lower ESE	10.54*	1.92
Higher EC & Higher ESE	-8.02	-1.91

EC means Empathic Concern; ESE means emotional self-efficacy. All variables are continuous. Simple slope statistics are shown in this table for the relationship between EA and Relational Well-Being In degree Centrality for the various conditions listed.

* $p < .05$

Table 4.12: Post-hoc relation 4-5

Variable	<i>Occupational Well-Being</i>		<i>Affective Commitment</i>	
	Model 1.1	Model 2.1	Model 1.2	Model 2.2
Gender	.00	-.03	-.01	-.05
Age	.21	.28	.14	.14
Education	-.21	-.29	.13	.01
Tenure	-.18	-.24	-.04	-.10
Rank	.11	.18	-.02	.08
Building	.07	.09	.05	.04
Department	-.12	-.09	.10	.09
Size of Network	-0.33*	-0.25†	-.09	-.11
Positive Affectivity	.09	.03	-.16	-.22
Self Monitoring	.09	.06	.12	.12
Emotional Abilities (EA)	.12	.17	.02	.00
Relational Well-Being In-Degree Centrality		-0.25†		-.08
Relational Well-Being Out-Degree Centrality		.09		0.28*
R-Square	.442	.449	.130	.200
ΔR-Square	.442	.05	.130	.07†
Adjusted R-square	.040	.070	-.040	.014
	Value	LL 95% CI		UL 95% CI
<i>Bootstrap result for indirect effect^a</i>				
Effect	-.02† (.006)	-.03		-.01

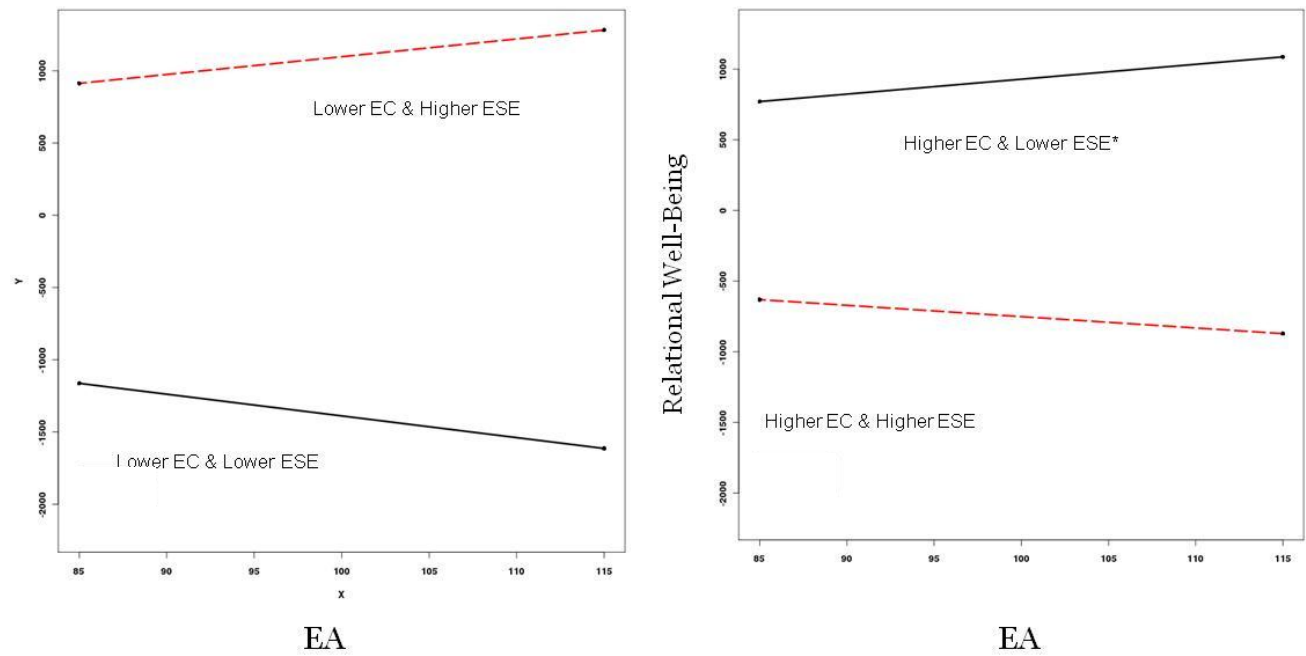
Note . Standardized coefficients are reported. ΔR-Square report changes from the previous model.

Bootstrap sample size = 2000. LL = lower Limit; UL = upper Limit; CI confidence interval;

a Indirect effect of EA on Occupational Well-Being through Relational Well-Being In-degree

† $p < .10$

Figure 4.2: 3-way Interaction Graphs between Emotional Ability, Emotional Self-Efficacy & Empathic Concern.



CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Post-Hoc Findings

Because I did not find support for my proposed hypotheses, in this section I review my post-hoc findings (see above section) and theoretically advance some support for my modified model (see Figure 5.1), which is still very much related to my initial proposal. First I reiterate my broader research agenda, as well as how my post-hoc findings fit within this overarching research umbrella. As explained before, I wish to better understand the role of emotions in workplace interpersonal interactions by focusing on the dynamics of emotions within repeated social interactions rather than on singular experiences of emotion treated as events. Emotional dynamics focus on emotional exchanges and experiences occurring through repeated interpersonal interactions. Relational dynamics focus on necessary social ties that must be sustained over time because cooperation is needed for completing tasks. My broad research agenda is thus to develop an affective relational theory (ART) to examine how emotional and relational dynamics interrelate in an organizational context. ART is thus at the intersection of affect theory and relational theory, and I hope to further integrate both perspectives to gain further insights into organizational behaviors. In those post-hoc findings, I focus on relational wellbeing, the exchange of general positive affective resources (i.e., liking, positive energy, pleasantness, and emotional support) within repeated interpersonal interactions, as my emotional and relational dynamics of interest. I retain the same general overall model (see Figure 5.1), in that I investigate EA's role in providing relational wellbeing, providing (in-degree centrality), and receiving (out-degree centrality) relational wellbeing as they affect organizational outcomes (occupational wellbeing and organizational affective commitment). Last I investigate emotional self-efficacy and empathic concern for their moderating role of the relationship between EA and

providing relational wellbeing; and EA's indirect role in affecting organizational outcomes by providing relational wellbeing. My post-hoc model is somewhat simpler than my proposed model (see Figure 2.7), which may provide a simpler, more compact story and findings. Next, I review the theoretical arguments behind each post-hoc relation tested in this model.

Relational wellbeing. The workplace is a “socioemotional economy. . . It is the exchange of sympathy, compassion, love, appreciation, liking, and so forth, which reinforces social bonds and sustains organizational relationships” (Fineman, 2003: 39). The workplace requires numerous interpersonal interactions necessary to perform the work at hand, but also to fulfill our needs as social beings (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Those interactions are usually repeated over time, with often the same set of individuals, and those exchanges with coworkers heavily influence our wellbeing, because “relationships are the key part of the fabric of organizational life” (de Tormes Eby & Allen, 2012: 3). While most of our work relationships are instrumental:

“Relational affect is not a dimension of social life in organizations complementary to, but separate from, task networks. Rather, task networks always comprise both instrumental and affective motivations.”

“*Relational affect* represents, therefore, the relatively stable set of moods and emotions ego experiences in social interactions with a given alter.”

“The study of affect in organizational networks can be vastly expanded by defining and measuring relational affect in terms of the moods and emotions an actor experiences during social interactions with a given alter” (Casciaro, forthcoming: 2, 9, 18).

Based on those observations, I formed a social network concept of relational wellbeing, combining four key positive affect resources: liking, energizing, pleasantness, and emotional support. This concept is also inspired from the affective support literature, defined as receipt of warmth, empathy, caring, trust, and concern (Jayaratne & Chess, 1984). That allows me to capture a multidimensional positive affect exchange in work relationships, where a stronger tie means two actors exchange more positive affect. In my study, this network represents the

evaluation by the interacting partners of the general positive affective resources – liking, positive energy, pleasantness, and emotional support – exchanged within repeated interpersonal interaction, and fits within my research agenda as capturing relevant emotional dynamics to study in the workplace. From there I can focus on the providers and recipients of relational well-being.

Why should organizations care about relational wellbeing? One study found that employees who lacked wellbeing in the workplace were 140% more likely to die over the next two decades, beyond several health-related controls (Shirom, Toker, Alkaly, Jacobson, & Balicer, 2011). In addition, positive relational work interactions have been found to foster positive work attitudes, reduce work strain, and provide greater overall wellbeing (for review, see Dutton & Ragins, 2007; Grant & Parker, 2009). Research has shown that the quality of social connections impacts individual health (Cohen & Janicki-Deverts, 2004). In addition, “our work experiences are closely shaped by our relationship with others, and relationships are fundamental to the process of getting work accomplished” (de Tormes Eby & Allen, 2012: 11). This means that employees’ general wellbeing will be greatly shaped and impacted by the wellbeing they derived from their relationships with others in the workplace, defined here as the exchange of general positive affective resources (i.e., liking, positive energy, pleasantness, and emotional support) within repeated interpersonal interactions. Social exchanges are like a currency that purchases positive affective resources (Halbesleben, 2010). Considering the importance of relational wellbeing, and acknowledging that relational wellbeing is highly desirable as an essential resource to organizational well functioning, a question arises: who provides relational wellbeing?

The role of emotional abilities on relational wellbeing. In my first post-hoc relation, I found support that peers were more likely to nominate higher EA individuals as providing relational wellbeing (in-degree centrality). The rationale behind this finding is similar to the rationale I advanced for my first hypothesis regarding emotional support (see Chapter 2, hypothesis 1a), but here it is extended to relational wellbeing, via general positive affective resources including liking, positive energy, pleasantness, and emotional support. In the workplace, the “socio-emotional economy” is where individuals exchange crucial emotional information during social interactions (Fineman, 2003: 39). Individuals differ in emotional abilities (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso 2002); some function at higher levels and are better at perceiving, using, understanding, and managing emotions in themselves and others. Therefore, based on their higher EA skill set, they are more likely to create positive, nurturing emotional atmospheres, and coworkers are more likely to choose them as providers of relational wellbeing. As for coworkers, being connected to higher EA individuals gives them access to relational wellbeing and thus enhances the quality of their relationships (Lopes et al., 2005; Schutte et al., 2001). In addition, I also found that two individuals with higher combined EA were more likely to report a stronger relational wellbeing tie (PH 1.b), adding to the robustness of the finding for PH 1a, but on a different level of analysis here being at the dyadic level. Thus higher EA individuals are more likely to be the providers of relational wellbeing in the workplace, and two higher EA individuals are more likely to report stronger relational wellbeing tie.

Furthermore, I found that higher EA individuals were more likely to bridge connections for individuals who were unconnected in the relational wellbeing network (PH 1.c). This suggests that higher EA reaches to unique parts of the network that would otherwise be unconnected to positive affective resources, they are emotional bridgers. The reasoning for

suggesting that higher EA plays such a role is similar to my reasoning for my proposed hypothesis 1.b, but here it is extended to relational wellbeing rather than emotional support only. Individuals may not feel equally comfortable in the broker role (Burt, 2005; Casciaro, Jannotta & Mahoner, 1998). To connect different cliques and subgroups requires individuals to be able to relate to actors of different backgrounds. Additionally, cliques may differ greatly in their social norms, expectations, and relational rules, so individuals must adjust to those conditions to develop and maintain their social relationships and to serve as a bridge between such diverse actors (Krackhardt, 1999). This especially applies to providing relational wellbeing; exchanging positive affective resources requires sensitivity to unique human situations. Furthermore, being between two cliques that may disapprove of ties to the other may generate stress. Individuals with higher EA may feel more comfortable relating to others from different social worlds, given their ability to decode much of the nonverbal information occurring in interpersonal interaction.

The moderating role of emotional self-efficacy and empathic concern. I did not find a two-way interaction between emotional self-efficacy (individuals' self-reported EA level) and EA on in-degree centrality in the relational wellbeing network. However, I found evidence for a three-way interaction between empathic concern, that is, the propensity to experience feelings of warmth, compassion, and concern for others' life situations (Davis, 1983), emotional self-efficacy, and EA on in-degree centrality in the relational wellbeing network. The simple slopes analysis showed that under higher empathic concern and lower emotional self-efficacy, a stronger positive relationship occurs between emotional abilities and relational wellbeing in-degree centrality. In my proposed three-way interaction (see Chapter 2, hypothesis 4), I argued for higher empathic concern and higher emotional self-efficacy as the condition to strengthen the relationship between EA and in-degree emotional support. Here I was expecting the same type of

findings even with in-degree relational wellbeing. However, it seems that the interaction occurs at higher level of empathic concern and lower level of emotional self-efficacy, suggesting this setting is strengthen the motivation to provide relational wellbeing under the initial condition of higher EA. The interpretation of this three-way interaction may require further investigation in future research to be fully understood.

The organizational consequences of relational wellbeing. I found evidence of a positive relation between out-degree centrality in the relational wellbeing network and organizational affective commitment (i.e.; how you feel toward your organization). But I also found a negative relation between in-degree centrality in the relational wellbeing network and occupational wellbeing (i.e.; how you feel toward your job). Research has established the important link between wellbeing and work performance (Daniels & Harris, 2000; Sousa-Poza & Sousa-Poza, 2000). Contributing to that literature I found that receiving relational wellbeing is important for organizational affective commitment. This suggests that individuals who receive liking, energy, pleasantness, and support from coworkers may spillover those positive feelings toward the organization. On another side, providing relational wellbeing seems to cost such providers in regard to their own occupational wellbeing. Perhaps the time they spend and the emotional cost of managing stress and other negative emotions via emotional contagion becomes a liability for those who are central in relational wellbeing networks. In addition, an organizational setting hardly recognizes such a role, thus making the cost possibly outweigh any benefits to provide such role.

EA's indirect role in organizational consequences via providing relational wellbeing. I found encouraging evidence that EA indirectly affects occupational wellbeing via in-degree centrality in the relational wellbeing network (mediator). This suggests that the robust relation

found in the literature between EA and work outcomes could further be explained via various mediators. Such underlying mechanisms are crucial to be uncovered in order better understand EA's role on organizational life.

Contributions and Implications

According to my post-hoc findings, individuals with higher EA enhance social-emotional organizational health by (a) providing relational wellbeing (liking, positive energy, pleasantness, and emotional support) as nominated by others (in-degree centrality); (b) creating relational wellbeing ties among higher EA individuals; and (c) bridging others who otherwise would be unconnected in the relational wellbeing network (lower constraint scores). Individuals who have higher empathic concern, that is warmth, compassion, and concern for others, and who have lower emotional self-efficacy, that is believing less in their own EA seem to have a stronger relationship between their EA and providing relational wellbeing in the network as nominated by others. Co-workers connected with higher EA individuals gain access to relational wellbeing that is, they receive general positive affective resources, which in turn increases their affective commitment to the organization. Surprisingly, those providing relational wellbeing may find that occupying structural positions cost them their own occupational wellbeing. Last, EA seems to indirectly affect occupational wellbeing via providing relational wellbeing network as nominated by others, suggesting a novel intermediary explanatory variable between EA and organizational outcomes. These findings offer a number of theoretical and managerial implications for both the role of EA and the importance of fostering relational wellbeing in the workplace.

First, with this study, I contribute to the emotional abilities literature in finding that higher EA individuals, in addition to being higher performers in the workplace (Côté & Miners, 2006; Mayer, Roberts, & Barsade, 2008; O'Boyle, et al., 2011), seem to be key players for

spreading relational wellbeing and thus positive affective resources to the networks they are embedded in. Furthermore, I show that other coworkers tied to higher EA individuals gain benefits by accessing those affective resources, positively affecting their organizational commitment. This goes above and beyond what the EA literature have thus far examined, such as EA's benefits to others socially linked to those with higher emotional processing skills. By taking a social network perspective, I show that EA is not only a self-enhancing mechanism, but that such individuals benefit the entire networks they are embedded in, and thus contribute positively to the overall organizational health. However, I also find that higher EA individuals pay a price for being a provider of relational wellbeing costing them their own occupational wellbeing. From a practical standpoint, organizations may want to recognize that individuals who provide relational wellbeing also pay a social cost. Usually organizations rarely officially recognize, reward, or even encourage such roles. Consequently, my findings suggest that organizations may want to turn positive attention to those providers of relational wellbeing to ensure that they continue to enhance organizational wellbeing.

Second I contribute to the social network literature. Recently, a new area has emerged focusing on how networks within organizations influence and are influenced by affect (Casciaro & Lobo, 2005, 2008; Labianca & Brass, 2006). A key driver for this new focus is the shift in affective research from viewing affect as private and intra-psychic to conceptualizing affective states as social in nature (Hareli & Hess, 2012). For example, our emotions are most commonly aroused by the actions of other people, and emotions we express greatly impact others' feelings, attitudes, and behaviors (Van Kleef, 2009). The social network approach provides a direct way of capturing the collective interactions of people and emotions. Moreover, affect theory provides promising insights into the development of networks. Affective ties have been studied as (a)

attitudes toward others, such as liking or disliking; (b) the content of social relationships, such as trusting and friendship; and (c) moods and emotions experienced during social interaction, such as happiness and anger (Casciaro, forthcoming). In this section, I therefore review theory and empirical work relating to these three ways of viewing affective ties. My study further adds to the existing network affect literature (Casciaro & Lobo, 2005, 2008; Labianca & Brass, 2006). First, I assessed relational wellbeing using four affective networks; second, I showed the role of relational wellbeing on important organizational outcomes (occupational wellbeing and organizational affective commitment); third, I showed that individuals with higher emotional abilities impact the affective network they are embedded in.

Last I contribute to the relational literature, recognizing that “relationships are a key part of the fabric of organizational life” (Allen, 2012: 3). High quality relationships have been shown to have many positive organizational consequences (Dutton & Heaphy, 2003). In addition the support literature shows that social resources greatly impact strain and stress (Halbesleben, 2010). My findings further indicate the importance of the relational aspect within organizations. Even when instrumental reasons require us to connect with others, we also derive affective value as a byproduct. Evolutionary theory indicates that we are hardwired in our needs to belong and feel affiliated with our peers (Kenrick, Vladas Griskevicius, Neuberg, & Schaller, 2010). Thus we will derive significant wellbeing from our workplace relationships. This study shows that relational wellbeing has important consequences for both providers and recipients of this resource.

Limitations

My study has several limitations. First, I use a cross-sectional sample, which makes it difficult to test for the direction of my causal arguments. I hope to collect longitudinal data in the future to remedy this limitation.

Second, the sample is rather small for conducting OLS regression, and the sample represents one type of organization among many. However, the small sample, in addition to the number of controls I included in my models, yield conservative findings. It would be advisable to replicate my findings with a larger sample and across industries to increase the robustness of my findings.

Last, some data are missing. My response rate was 70%, which reaches the minimum acceptable level to conduct whole network analysis. However the missing data could convey important information, which unfortunately I cannot access. Replication of my findings with a higher response rate would be advisable to increase the robustness of the findings.

Future Research

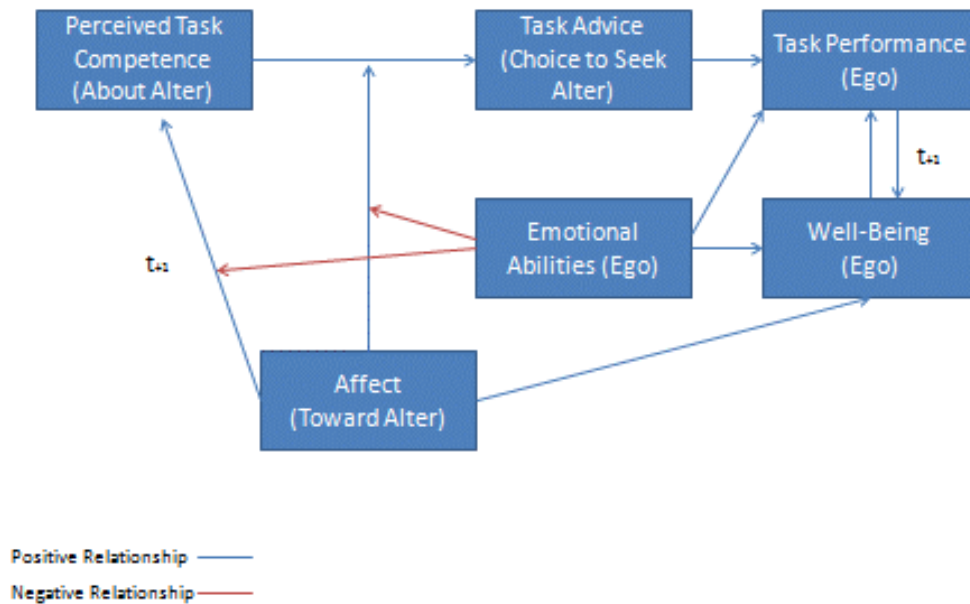
One possible area of future research is to gather longitudinal data to confirm some of the causal pathway arguments. I mentioned before that I hope to collect at least one additional wave of data for further longitudinal analysis. Another possible area of future research is to add another level of organizational outcome such as task performance. I have collected peer-rated performance data and plan to investigate its role using a more complex level of analysis (i.e., allowing for multiple mediators). In addition, replicating my findings with a larger sample from different type of organizations or across industries would strengthen my findings and conclusions.

In addition, I would like to present two additional models for future investigation building on my central research question. I hope that an additional data collection at the site described above will yield any additional variables needed to test the models presented below.

Ego's benefit from higher emotional abilities – overcoming affective biases to access most-competent task advice. This model would focus on higher-EA benefit to egos in that they can overcome affective bias when making instrumental decisions. I would build on the work of Casciaro and Lobo (2005, 2008, 2012), who found that ego's positive affect toward alters moderates the positive relationship between perceived task competence and seeking alters for task advice, so that this relationship is stronger under condition of high affect (regardless of one's task competence). Furthermore, they found that ego's positive affect toward alters is positively linked to alter's perceived task competence by ego over time. I would then add a main proposition to their work (see model 2 below):

Proposition 1: EA will act as a moderator in that ego's emotional abilities will allow ego to overcome emotional biases: (a) Higher-EA individuals will not let their affective evaluation bias whom they go to for advice; and (b) Higher-EA individuals will not let their affective evaluation bias their perception of peers' task competence over time.

Figure 5.1 – Work under Development: Ego’s benefit from higher emotional abilities



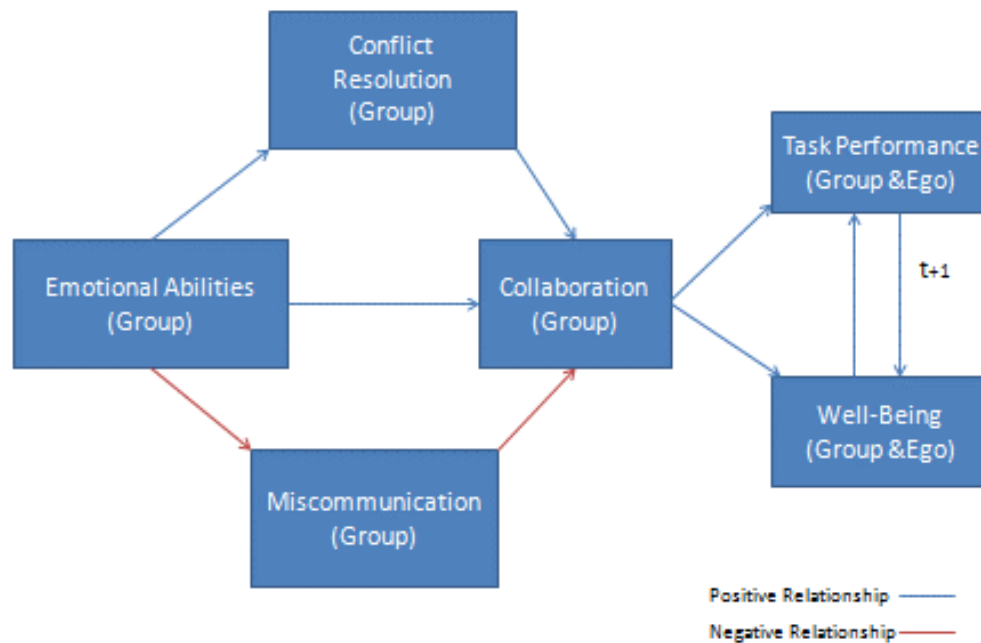
Team-level benefits from actors with higher EA – enhanced collaboration via reduced miscommunication and conflict resolution. This model would investigate the team-level benefit of having higher-EA individuals. This would thus focus on the benefits of EA beyond the dyadic level to expand to the team level of analysis. Below I list a few propositions of interest (model 3, see below):

Proposition 1. Higher combined emotional abilities within a team will be positively related to enhanced collaboration.

Proposition 2. Respectively, miscommunication and conflict resolution will mediate the positive relationship between combined team emotional abilities and enhanced collaboration.

Proposition 3. Enhanced collaboration will be positively related to task performance and well-being, for team members and for teams.

Figure 5.2 – Work under Development: Team-level benefits from actors with higher EA



My overall research agenda focuses on developing an affective relational theory (ART, see figure 2.1) to examine how emotional dynamics and relational dynamics interrelate in an organizational context. I have thus developed several projects in addition to center my dissertation around this fruitful area of investigation. I will briefly list my and coauthors' works in progress related to this research agenda beyond what I have presented thus far, in an effort to develop a strong stream of research that contributes to the organizational literature.

1. *I feel therefore I connect: The role of employees' emotional abilities in shaping their social network preference for socio-emotional bonds, diversity, and emotional homophily.*
2. *A turn for the better: The mediating role of interaction for improving affective ties.*
3. *How does organizational structure make us feel? The dynamic role of physical, formal, and informal structure on work feelings and other organizational outcomes.*

4. *Riding the same “emotional” wave: Emotional similarity and relational outcomes in service interactions.*
5. *Narcissism, Machiavellism, and paranoia dysfunctional personalities: The cost of interpersonal relationships and its interplay with emotional abilities and envy.*

I will conclude this dissertation with the following quote relevant to my current and future research endeavors:

“You don’t love someone because of who they are; you love them because of the way they make you feel. This axiom applies equally in the company setting....Conventional wisdom has it that management is not a popularity contest...I contend, however, that all things being equal, we will work harder and more effectively for people we like. And we like them in direct proportion to how they make us feel” Federman.

APPENDIX 1

SAMPLE ITEMS FOR SCALES

1. Emotional Abilities (EA; Kidwell et. al, 2010)

Perceiving Emotion



Indicate how much "happiness" is expressed in the picture to the left:

1. Not at all present
2. Slightly present
3. Moderately present
4. Quite present
5. Extremely present

Using Emotion

How useful might it be to... (check column that applies for each question)

	Not at all Useful	Slightly Useful	Moderately Useful	Quite Useful	Extremely Useful
Feel "hostility" when interacting with an angry supervisor?					

Understanding Emotion

A man went into an electronics store feeling rested. Later, he felt anxious. What happened in between?

1. He was approached by an aggressive salesperson.
2. He saw an old friend that he hadn't seen in several years.
3. He was helped by a cashier whom he thought he recognized.
4. He found an alternative product that he liked almost as well.
5. He couldn't find the brand of cell phone he wanted.

Managing Emotion

Bill never received clear instructions about how to do his job. One day he found out he was reassigned to a supervisor who had a reputation for setting clear goals and objectives. Bill felt relieved and calm for the first time in a long while. How well would the following behaviors help Bill maintain his feelings?

He could tell his new supervisor how much he didn't like the previous supervisor.

1. Not at all effective
2. Slightly effective
3. Moderately effective
4. Quite effective
5. Extremely effective

2. Emotional Self-Efficacy (SREI; Brackett et al., 2006)

- a. *By looking at facial expressions, I recognize the emotions people are experiencing.*
- b. *I have a rich vocabulary to describe my emotions.*
- c. *I have problems dealing with my feelings of anger.*
- d. *When someone I know is in a bad mood, I can help the person calm down and feel better quickly.*

3. Empathic Concern (Davis, 1983)

- a. *When I see someone being taken advantage of, I feel somewhat protective toward them.*
- b. *When I see someone begin treated unfairly, sometimes I do feel very little pity for them.*
- c. *I often have tender, concerned feelings for people less fortunate than I am.*

[Very inaccurate to Very accurate]

4. Self Monitoring (Gangestad & Snyder, 1985)

The statements below concern your personal reactions to a number of different situations. No two statements are exactly alike, so please consider each statement carefully before answering. If a statement is TRUE or MOSTLY TRUE as applied to you, select TRUE. If a statement is FALSE, NOT USUALLY TRUE as applied to you, please select FALSE.

- a. *I'm not always the person I appear to be*
- b. *I find it hard to imitate the behavior of other people.*

- c. *I guess I put on a show to impress or entertain people*
- d. *I would not change my opinions (or the way I do things) to please someone else or win their favor*

[True or False]

5. Positive Affectivity (Thompson, 2007)

Thinking about yourself and how you normally feel, to what extent do you generally feel:

<i>Alert</i>	<i>Attentive</i>
<i>Inspired</i>	<i>Active</i>
<i>Determined</i>	

[Never Very Rarely Occasionally Frequently Always]

6. Occupational Affective Well-Being (Warr, 1990)

Please indicate how often your job made you experience any of following feelings over the past month:

<i>Comfortable</i>	<i>Worried</i>
<i>Tense</i>	<i>Motivated</i>
<i>Calm</i>	<i>Depressed</i>
<i>Anxious</i>	<i>Enthusiastic</i>
<i>Relaxed</i>	<i>Sad</i>

Optimistic

Unhappy

[never, very rarely, occasionally, frequently, always]

7. Organizational Affective Commitment (Meyer & Allen, 2011)

- a. *I really feel as if company X's problems are my own.*
- b. *I do not feel like "part of the family" at company X.*
- c. *I do not feel "emotionally attached" to the digital village.*
- d. *Company X has a great deal of personal meaning for me*

[strongly disagree to strongly agree]

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