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RESEARCH IN PERSONNEL AND HUMAN RESOURCES
MANAGEMENT VOLUME 35

RESEARCH IN PERSONNEL AND HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT

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EMOTIONS AND EMOTIONAL REGULATION IN HRM: A MULTI-LEVEL PERSPECTIVE

Neal M. Ashkanasy, Ashlea C. Troth,
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ABSTRACT

Scholars and practitioners in the OB literature nowadays appreciate that emotions and emotional regulation constitute an inseparable part of work life, but the HRM literature has lagged in addressing the emotional dimensions of life at work. In this chapter therefore, beginning with a multi-level perspective taken from the OB literature, we introduce the roles played by emotions and emotional regulation in the workplace and discuss their implications for HRM. We do so by considering five levels of analysis: (1) within-person temporal variations, (2) between persons (individual differences), (3) interpersonal processes; (4) groups and teams, and (5) the organization as a whole. We focus especially on processes of emotional regulation in both self and others, including discussion of emotional labor and emotional intelligence. In the opening sections of the chapter, we discuss the nature of emotions and emotional regulation from an OB perspective by introducing the five-level model, and explaining in particular how emotions and emotional regulation play a role at each of the levels. We then apply these ideas to four major domains of concern to HR managers: (1) recruitment, selection, and socialization; (2) performance management; (3) training and development; and (4) compensation and benefits. In concluding, we stress the interconnectedness of emotions and emotional regulation across the five levels of the

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model, arguing that emotions and emotional regulation at each level can influence effects at other levels, ultimately culminating in the organization's affective climate.

Keywords: Emotions; emotional regulation; five-level model

Emotion can be the enemy, if you give in to your emotion, you lose yourself. You must be at one with your emotion, because the body always follows the mind.

– Bruce Lee

The word “emotion” derives from the Latin word *emovere*, which means simply “to move.” As such, emotions represent an organization’s basic biological responses to environmental stimuli. In this regard, Frijda (1986) defined emotion in terms of psychological changes that an organism undergoes in readiness for action in response to stimuli. Schwarz and Clore (1983) note further that emotions represent in essence an organism’s means to signal readiness for action. In addition, emotions can be either positive or negative, with positive emotion usually signaling a safe situation and maintenance of a *status quo*, while negative emotions signal that something is awry and the organism needs to take action to resolve the situation.

The problem with emotions, however, is that they emanate from basic psychophysiological processes deep in the *limbic* brain, and therefore are not fully under conscious control. This realization led Descartes (1641/1978) to found the philosophy of “dualism”; which holds that the mind and body act independently. More recently, however, we learned from the work of Damasio (1994) that this is not in fact so. In his book *Descartes’ Error*, Damasio refers to the case of “Patient Elliot,” who suffered from a brain lesion that prevented him from experiencing emotion. Despite his high IQ, however, Patient Elliot was unable to make even the simplest of decisions. Damasio coined the expression “somatic marker” to represent the essential connection between mind and body. More recently, researchers have established the veracity of this connection, showing that the limbic and cortical brain systems work together across multiple pathways (see Ashkanasy, 2003, for a more detailed discussion about the neurophysiology of emotion).

The point here is that attempting to study human behavior and thought without considering the emotional side, including the need for individuals to control (i.e., to regulate) their emotions, is futile. In fact, and as Weiss and Brief (2001) point out, organizational behavior (OB) and HRM scholars in the early years of the Twentieth Century appeared to be aware of this. For example, Durkheim (1912/1976) coined the idea of “collective consciousness” (or common values), which was largely predicated in the idea that rational explanations of behavior tell only a part of the story. This view also underpinned much of the OB and HRM research in the 1920s and 1930s as scholars began to apply

principles borrowed from the natural sciences to develop the principles of the “scientific method” of studying human behavior. Thus, and as Weiss and Brief also detail, the study of the role played by emotions and emotional regulation in behavior was considered essential in this early work, especially when considering dependent variables such as job satisfaction and work–life balance.

Following the Second World War, however, the role of emotions came to be considered secondary to the more “rational” concepts of traditional economics, as social scientists turned their attention to matters of industrial effectiveness and efficiency. This trend continued until Simon (1976) proposed the idea of “bounded rationality” (although Simon still tended to dismiss the emotions as either “irrational” or “arational”) which identifies the limits of human capacity in deciding between alternatives.

A further decade elapsed following Simon’s (1976) seminal work before social scientists began to grasp in full the importance of emotions and the need for emotional regulation. A major impetus for this realization came via a study by sociologist Hochschild (1983), showing how employees working in jobs that involve interactions with the public (e.g., sales, customer service, flight attendants, debt collectors) need to assume organizationally mandated emotional expressions, which were often different from the emotions they were actually feeling at the time. Hochschild called this “emotional labor,” pointing out that this kind of behavior, while deemed critical to meet key performance goals, also placed a heavy emotional strain on the employees so engaged, often resulting in burnout and/or productivity loss. Rafaeli and Sutton (1987, 1989) subsequently introduced the idea of emotional labor to the mainstream of OB literature. At the core of emotional labor is the more fundamental idea of emotional regulation (which we discuss in more detail later in this chapter).

The next breakthrough in terms of bringing the study of emotions into the mainstream literature, however, was an article by Ashforth and Humphrey (1995), where the authors argued convincingly that emotions lie deeply embedded in every aspect of organizational life. Ashforth and Humphrey pointed to evidence that organizational members’ emotions and emotional reactions to everyday events had implications for a wide range of individual behaviors, including motivation and leadership, as well as affecting behavior in groups. The authors called in particular for research into the role of emotional expression and regulation, and asked why scholars, especially in the decision-making literature, seemed to have forgotten all about the emotional dimension. In this regard, they asked why emotions had apparently become a “dysfunctional antithesis of reality” (p. 120).

Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) added further impetus to recognition of the role emotions play in organizational life and developed the idea that emotions in organizations are associated with what they referred to as “affective events.” In their model, such events arise in the environment and trigger emotional reactions that, in turn, result in direct behavioral responses (“affect-driven behavior”) and development of attitudes (such as job satisfaction and/or

commitment), which then lead to more considered “judgment-driven behaviors.” Known as Affective Events Theory (AET), Ashton-James and Ashkanasy (2005) subsequently extended the idea to encompass a strategic perspective.

In 2003, twenty years after the publication of *The Managed Heart* (Hochschild, 1983), Barsade, Brief, and Spataro (2003) announced that an “affective revolution in organizational behavior” (p. 3) had occurred. This was on top of the “cognitive revolution” that had taken place a decade earlier (Major & Tower, 1994). Today, continuing interest in the role of emotions and emotional regulation in organizations is manifest in the Listserv *Emonet*, an international online network for discussion of topics in this field. This group conducts a biannual conference series (*The International Conference on Emotions and Worklife*, <http://www.emotionsnet.org>). Associated with these activities, is an annual book series (*Research on Emotion in Organizations*, <http://emeraldinsight.com/series/reom>). For recent reviews of the field, see Ashkanasy and Humphrey (2011b) and Ashkanasy and Dorris (2017).

While the important role of emotions is now well-acknowledged in the OB literature, it would seem however that HRM scholars have yet to appreciate fully the critical role that emotions play in their field of study. This is despite repeated calls for HRM scholars to embrace this as a central topic (e.g., see Ashkanasy & Ashton-James, 2005; Fox & Spector, 2002; Pekrun & Frese, 1992). Moreover, while well-known HRM approaches such as AMO (Ability, Motivation, Opportunity) theory – which predicts that employee job performance is determined by a combination of employees’ abilities, motivation and opportunity to perform – seem to imply an emotional dimension (Boxall & Purcell, 2011; Paauwe 2009), HRM scholars have yet to devise a comprehensive theory about the role of emotions and emotional regulation. Thus, we find that authors in the HRM field seem to refer only rather sporadically to emotion-related constructs (e.g., Brunetto, Teo, Shacklock, & Farr-Wharton, 2012). In particular, emotions is almost totally absent from the strategic HRM literature (e.g., see Huselid, 1995), despite calls for the topic to be addressed (e.g., see Doorewaard & Benschop, 2003). To address this shortcoming we turn to Ashkanasy’s (2003) five-level model of emotions in the workplace, and examine its potential as a framework for understanding the role of emotions and emotional regulation in HRM.

THE FIVE-LEVEL MODEL

As foreshadowed, we refer to the five-level model of emotions in organizations proposed by Ashkanasy (2003) to structure the present review. The model begins at Level 1, which refers to “within-person” temporal variability in affect and behavior. At Level 2, attention turns to “between-person” variability, which refers to more stable individual dispositions, including personality, trait

affectivity, and emotional intelligence. The role of emotions in interpersonal relationships is the focus at Level 3 of the model. This level encompasses interpersonal perceptions and communication of emotion, and includes emotional labor. Group-level analysis becomes the focus at Level 4 of the model, including leadership, which is viewed as a team-level property. Finally, Level 5 is an overarching level in the model encompassing organization-wide phenomena, including affective culture and climate.

LEVEL 1: WITHIN-PERSON

As Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) emphasize in AET, an employee's experience at work is far from static. On the contrary, employees experience moment-by-moment and day-by-day variations in every aspect of their behavior, thoughts (cognitions), and feelings (affect). Indeed, there is a burgeoning stream of research that encourages the examination of within-person variation of emotion in the workplace (Fisher & To, 2012; Jordan & Lindebaum, 2015). From an HRM perspective, understanding within-person variation in emotion at work is important for managing the day-to-day behaviors of individual employees. Emotions experienced on a within-person basis in a single day can be diverse, varying from happy and excited, to surprised, to sad, and to angry and fearful. Given the complexity of examining emotions in the workplace, we focus in the next discussion on just one of the most common emotions that employees experience: fear (Pfeffer & Sutton, 2013). Following this discussion, we address the process of *emotional regulation* as a means to manage emotions in worklife.

Fear: The Survival Emotion

Fear is ubiquitous in every aspect of biological life. Without fear, organizations would not be able to take the necessary action to survive. In this regard, LeDoux (1995a) pointed out that the study of fear provides a unique insight into the functioning of the human emotional brain (see Armony & LeDoux, 2000; LeDoux, 1995a, 1995b, 1996, 1998, 2000). LeDoux (1995a) makes the point that, because fear is the basic mechanism of self-preservation for every species, it is the key to evolutionary survival. Moreover, fear is an emotion that responds to both internal and external stimuli. Thus, an organism's perception of a threat emanating in the environment is likely to trigger fear; but so do our recalled experiences of situations seen to be threatening. In this regard, fear becomes more than a response to immediate threat; it can also act as a response to *anticipated* threat. In organizations where change is endemic, often change can be seen as a threat.

Moreover, while fear is a critical emotion in organizational settings, it is not necessarily a negative influence. In this regard, authors such as Flam (1993), Funlop and Rivkin (1997), and Mirvis and Sales (1990), point out that fear plays a central role in organizational settings. Schein (2004) referred to the role fear plays as “disconfirmation,” resulting in a re-evaluation of organizational processes and goals. Cartwright (1976) notes in particular that fear serves to shock members out of a culturally ingrained mode of functioning to a more conscious or mindful approach. More recently, Jordan, Lawrence, and Troth (2006) and Lindebaum and Jordan (2012) argue that in many instances fears act as motivators that in turn result in positive rather than negative outcomes, especially for employees who are passionate about their work (Bélanger, Lafreniere, Vallerand, & Kruglanski, 2013).

To understand how fear works from a neuropsychological perspective, we turn to the pioneering work of Le Doux (1995a) who, in an innovative program involving fear responses of laboratory rats, demonstrated that the key lies in two laterally positioned neural ganglia called *amygdalae*. More recently, Sander, Grafman, and Zalla (2003) demonstrated that the *amygdalae* act more generally, affecting positive as well as negative emotions. As such, the *amygdala* appears to be the neural center for detection of salience (i.e., how significant and noticeable an event is; see also Cunningham & Brosch, 2012). Moreover, the *amygdala* appears to be intricately connected via neural pathways to varied sections of the brain that in turn manage our behavior.

Fig. 1 illustrates the neural pathways that connect the *amygdala* to the neocortical and limbic parts of the brain. Pathway 1 represents the path linking the sensory thalamus to the amygdala. Pathways 2 and 3 also provide information to the *amygdala*, but only following cortical processing, and therefore arrive much later. Importantly, there is a direct link (Pathway 4) between the *amygdala* and the hippocampal formation of the brain, which is the repository of memory. This link serves as the pathway for recalled memories of salient events. Illustrated in the lower part of Fig. 2 are linkages to bodily functions needed to enact behaviors in response to the stimulus. Notably, Pathways 1 and 4 bypass the cortical brain; this means that our bodily reactions to both immediate and recalled stimulus can occur without cortical (i.e., conscious) processing. LeDoux (1995a, 1995b; see also Armony & LeDoux, 2000) point out that, while there are many reciprocal connections between the *amygdala* and the cortex, by far the majority of connections run out of the two *amygdalae* rather than run into them. Consequently, organisms find it exceedingly difficult to unlearn autonomic reactions to stimuli and therefore find it difficult to overcome fear reactions.

While Damasio (1999) was adamant that the *amygdala* only processes negative emotions, and that positive emotions and even other negative emotion (e.g., disgust) are processed through other pathways, more recent findings (e.g., see Fitzgerald, Angstadt, Jelsone, Nathan, & Phan, 2006) do not support this idea. In fact, it appears that *amygdalae* are involved in emotion processing

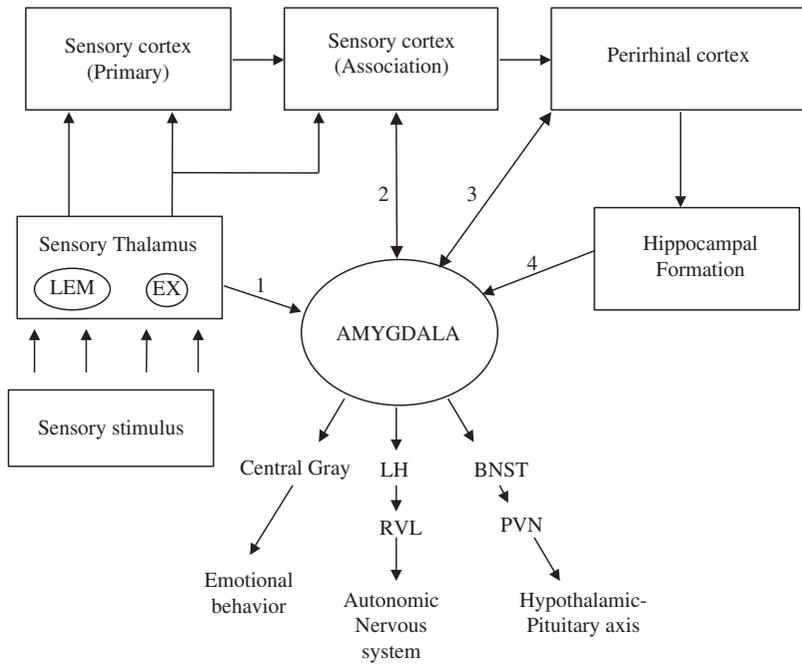


Fig. 1. Fear Circuits in the Brain. Source: With permission, from the *Annual Review of Psychology*, Volume 46 © 1995 by Annual Reviews (www.annualreviews.org). *Notes:* Neural circuits involved in fear (from LeDoux, 1995b). Four pathways are identified. Abbreviations: LEM, lemniscal nuclei; EX, extralemniscal areas; LH, lateral hypothalamus; RVL, rostral ventral lateral medulla; BNST, bed nucleus of the stria terminalis; PVN, paraventricular hypothalamus.

across the whole gamut of emotional feeling and expression. This is not to say, however, that *amygdalae* are the only neural substrates involved in processing emotional information. For example, there is evidence that left frontal hypoactivity (as measured by EEG), is linked to depression, a mood disorder, and to emotion and the drivers of bodily reactions similar to the *amygdala* (Drevets & Raichle, 1995; Gotlib, Ranganath, & Rosenfeld, 1998; Tomarken & Keener, 1998). The point of this analysis of neural functioning is that, while the cortical functions of the brain play an important role in regulating and determining behavior, other neural functions exist that are essentially not under conscious control. As Ashkanasy (2003, p. 17) noted, “these responses are initiated precociously and have internally knowable and externally visible visceral outcomes.”

In terms of the ways in which employees cope with fear-inducing and stressful events in the workplace, we refer to the work of Lazarus and Folkman (1984), who postulated that individuals adopt one of two strategies to cope



Fig. 2. Five Levels of Emotion and Relevance to HRM. *Source:* Adapted from Ashkanasy (2003).

with such experiences: (1) emotion-focused or (2) problem-focused coping. In emotion-focused coping, the individual seeks to ameliorate the emotional effects of stress, for example, by behaviorally withdrawing from the situation. Problem-focused coping, on the other hand, involves taking action to deal with the source of the stress rather than the effects of the stress. For example, the individual can schedule work commitments to reduce the stress associated with looming deadlines (and fear of failure). Note however that, while it is often assumed that problem-focused coping is preferable to emotion-focused coping, in many instances the individual must at first deal with the emotions experienced before s/he is in a fit state to problem-solve, which emphasizes the equal importance of emotion-focused coping (Gooty, Gavin, Ashkanasy, & Thomas, 2014). More recently, Michalak, Ashkanasy, and Kiffin-Petersen (2017) suggest that individuals often engage in a blend of emotion-focused and problem-focused coping depending on the level of coping resources.

The issue to be addressed at this juncture is the manner by which individuals deal with their emotions (and especially their fears) on a day-to-day basis. To accomplish this, we refer to Gross’s (1998) emotion regulation process model, which he defines as “the process by which individuals influence which emotions they have, when they have them and how they experience and express these emotions” (p. 275). Simply put, positive and negative events at work, including fear, can potentially give rise to a full range of discrete emotions (e.g., happiness, sadness, anger), but the exact nature of the discrete emotion experienced

and expressed depends on the use of particular emotion regulation (ER) strategies (Lawrence, Troth, Jordan, & Collins, 2011).

The Emotion Regulation (ER) Process Model

According to Gross (1998), individuals regulate their emotions using antecedent-focused (prior to the full development of an emotional experience) and response-focused strategies (after the discrete emotion has been experienced). In this regard, Gross identifies five broad strategy categories. The first four comprise antecedent strategies: (1) situation selection, (2) situation modification, (3) attentional deployment, and (4) cognitive change. The fifth is a response-focused response modulation strategy (e.g., expressive suppression) that occurs *after* a discrete emotion has been experienced, and is intended to increase, to maintain, or to decrease one or more components of the discrete emotion (experiential or expression). Within Gross's process theory, the choice of strategy depends on an individual's emotion-related goals, and the enactment of a strategy can occur consciously, unconsciously, in isolation, or as part of simultaneous regulation attempts (Gross, 2015; Lawrence et al., 2011; Mikolajczak, Tran, Brotheridge, & Gross, 2009).

Much of the empirical work to date, however, has been limited to experimental designs using student samples. Gross (2013a, 2015) has mostly focused on two ER strategies in particular: (1) expressive suppression (hiding from another person the emotion experienced by inhibiting emotional displays that typically accompany that emotion) and (2) cognitive reappraisal (changing a situation's meaning to the extent that there is a change also in the emotional response to that situation). His research shows that habitual or experimental-induced expressive suppression leads to the maintenance or increased experience of negative emotions, decreased (but often not totally masked) behavioral expressions of negative emotion, increased stress physiology (e.g., blood pressure), poorer cognition and memory, and decreased social functioning and well-being (see Gross, 2013a, 2015; Webb, Miles, & Sheeran, 2012).

Alternatively, this research (see Gross, 2013a, 2015; Webb et al., 2012) also appears to show that habitual or experimentally induced cognitive reappraisal tends to be associated with a positive impact on experienced emotions, as well as no or decreased physiological, cognitive, and social functioning deficits.

Other researchers, however, have detected more nuanced findings in relation to cognitive appraisal. Urry (2009, 2010), for example, examined the effects of different types of cognitive reappraisal. She found that the type of cognitive appraisal goal (imagining situations getting worse; maintaining the images of situations; imagining situations getting better) and the timing of reappraisal (anticipatory to the emotion-triggering event; during the event; after the event)

has differential and sometimes negative effects on subsequent experiences and expressions of emotion, as well as the consequent physiological responses.

Gross (2013a, 2015) also describes experimental designs that examine the efficaciousness of attentional deployment ER strategies. These refer to attentional distraction, which redirects attention from a situation and cognitive resources are devoted to a secondary task versus attentional allocation. Such distraction also serves to redirect attention from an emotion-eliciting feature of an event in order to attend selectively to some other specific feature in the event. With attentional deployment strategies, the redirection of attention can involve a change in gaze and/or a shift in internal focus (i.e., what the actor is thinking about; see Gross, 2015).

Research (see Bennett, Phelps, Brain, Hood, & Gray, 2007; Denson, Moulds, & Grisham, 2012; Rusting, 1998) has also shown that, in response to painful and negative emotion-inducing events, attentional distraction rapidly reduces the experience of negative discrete emotions. In this way, attentional deployment strategies seem to have beneficial impacts on outcomes (Gross, 2015). In contrast, Webb et al. (2012) found meta-analytic evidence that attentional deployment strategies, as a whole, are not a reliably successful method of regulation. Instead, their meta-analysis suggest that three types of attentional distraction are effective in aiding regulation (active positive distraction; active neutral distraction; passive neutral distraction), whereas passive positive distraction and all types of concentration strategies (concentrate on feelings; concentrate on causes/implications; concentrate on both feelings and causes/implications) tend to hinder emotional regulation.

Importantly, Gross's (1998) framework provides a theoretically grounded basis to examine an extensive range of ER strategies and to identify how they shape the experience and expression of emotions in the workplace. Relevant workplace events include those where employees either witness or engage in interactions with others. As such, it is clear that the manner in which employees regulate their emotions has potential to shape almost all of their working behaviors. Indeed, Diefendorff, Richard, and Yang (2008), examined how employees' use of Gross's (1998) five emotion regulation strategies (situation selection; situation modification; attentional deployment; cognitive reappraisal; suppression) are associated with perceived work stressors (job/organizational, interpersonal) and the experience of discrete emotions. Diefendorff and his team found that all five ER strategies are utilized by employees. Moreover, these authors found that particular discrete negative emotions and stressors tend to link to specific regulation strategies. For example, anger and conflict with customers tend to be most frequently associated with expressive suppression; annoyance and conflict with co-workers tend to link to attention deployment (e.g., turning attention to something less bothersome).

Expanding upon the strategies Gross and his colleagues have examined to date, but still consistent with the ER process model, organizational researchers have begun to examine the influence of two additional ER

strategies: (1) Authentic expression of a discrete emotion and (2) mindfulness. For instance, when anger is habitually and authentically expressed in response to workplace stressors, this strategy is associated with decreased job satisfaction (Glomb, 2002), increased organizational incivility (Andersson & Pearson, 1999), interpersonal revenge (Bies & Tripp, 1998), and/or violence (Fox & Spector, 1999).

More recently, Lindebaum, Jordan, and Morris (2016) found that anger expressions of this type also reduced colleagues' respect for that individual. Nonetheless, researchers (see Geddes & Callister, 2007; Perrone & Vickers, 2004; Tamir, Mitchell, & Gross, 2008) have also found that the use of authentic expression as a strategy (in negotiations for example) can have positive outcomes. This appears to be the case if authentic expression is used situationally to achieve particular instrumental communication goals and the emotional intensity of expression displayed is within the bounds of acceptable emotional display norms (see Jordan & Lindebaum, 2015).

Van Kleef and Côté (2007) found further that both status and the appropriateness of the expressed anger play a role in whether anger expressions during negotiations achieve instrumental goals. Relatedly, Stickney and Geddes (2014) found additional moderating factors influencing the authentic expression or suppression in the workplace. These authors determined certain conditions under which employees express their anger to the appropriate sources (e.g., relevant colleagues or management) as opposed to when employees suppress their anger (silent anger), or only bring it up with others who have no relevance to the incident (muted anger). It seems that anger is more likely to be expressed in an appropriate way when employees have high commitment to the organization combined with high trait positive affect. Silent or muted anger (which leaves no way of resolving the situation) is likely to occur when an employee has less organizational commitment, higher trait negative affect, and/or higher emotional exhaustion.

Mindfulness, by contrast, involves creating a psychological distance from the emotion an individual experiences, so that the actor can notice her or his emotional experiences in the present moment without judging or condemning them (Brown & Ryan, 2003; Dane, 2011). While some researchers (e.g., see Dane, 2011; Glomb, Duffy, Bono, & Yang, 2011) conceptualize Gross's (1998) framework as a specific type of attentional deployment strategy, other researchers also claim that it involves cognitive change strategies such as positive cognitive reappraisal (Hulsheger, Lang, Schewe, & Zijlstra, 2015; Li, Black, & Garland, 2016). Moreover, the use of mindfulness as an emotion regulation strategy has been found to influence leadership behaviors positively (Reb, Narayanan, & Chaturvedi, 2014), job performance (e.g., Dane & Brummel, 2013), turnover intentions (e.g., Dane & Brummel, 2013), job satisfaction, and emotional exhaustion (e.g., Hulsheger, Alberts, Feinholdt, & Lang, 2013).

Other research has identified moderating influences on the link between mindfulness and outcomes. Zhang, Ding, Li, and Wu (2013) for instance, found

that trait mindfulness (described as “presence”) interacted with task complexity to influence performance. For individuals performing high task complexity jobs, mindfulness seems to be positively related to their task and safety performance. For those with jobs that have low task complexity, on the other hand, mindfulness appears to be a negative influence on task performance.

In summary of the role of emotions as a within-person phenomenon, we have argued (using the example of fear at work) that an employee’s responses to environmental stimuli need to be understood as an ever-changing dynamic process driven by basic neural processing, not all of which is under the individual’s control. We also discussed in detail how people regulate their emotions, referring in particular to Gross’s emotion regulation process model. In the following section of this chapter, we move on to the higher levels in the model, which build on the processes taking place at Level 1.

LEVEL 2: BETWEEN-PERSONS

In moving to Level 2 in the Ashkanasy (2003) model, we see that the focus shifts to individual differences at the between-persons level of analysis. In terms of HRM, Level 2 has been a significant focus for professionals working in the field because it enables them to advance individual skill levels that allow employees to perform at their optimum capacity. One such specific construct that has recently gained much interest, especially in the context of management consultancy, is emotional intelligence, which ultimately affects an individual’s ability to regulate and to manage her or his emotion. Since its introduction by Salovey and Mayer (1990), emotional intelligence has attracted considerable attention, especially following its popularization by popular author and *NY Times* columnist Daniel Goleman (1995). Indeed, Goleman’s (1998) next book popularized the construct further in the specific context of work and organizations. Although Goleman made many exaggerated claims in his books that have since been criticized (e.g., Landy, 2005), this did nothing to stem the popularity of emotional intelligence among organizational consultants.

As of the present time, however, the most robust and broadly accepted definition of emotional intelligence is the one provided by Mayer and Salovey (1997). These scholars proposed that the construct consists of four basic abilities or “branches:” (1) ability to perceive and to recognize emotions in both self and others; (2) ability to incorporate emotional information in decision-making and cognition; (3) ability to understand the effects of emotion in self and others, and finally (4) ability to use and to manage emotion in self and others (i.e., to regulate emotions). Jordan, Ashton-James, and Ashkanasy (2006) argue that this is the “gold standard” for emotional intelligence. More particularly in defense of the construct, Ashkanasy and Daus (2005) argue that emotional

intelligence is really no more than another human individual difference, similar to IQ or physical prowess.

Much of the controversy surrounding emotional intelligence has arisen because of a proliferation of different definitions and measurement instruments. In this regard, [Ashkanasy and Daus \(2005\)](#) categorize emotional intelligence research and applications into three “Streams.” The first of these entails measurement of emotional intelligence using an IQ-style “ability” instrument known as the MSCEIT ([Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002](#)). In recent years, researchers ([Czarna, Leifeld, Śmieja, Dufner, & Salovey, 2016](#); [MacCann, Joseph, Newman, & Roberts, 2014](#)) have started to develop alternative ability measures of emotional intelligence, largely based around responses to written situational vignettes.

The second stream of research uses measures of emotional intelligence that are based in the [Mayer-Salovey \(1997\)](#) definition, but employ self- or peer-report measures (e.g., [Jordan, Ashkanasy, Härtel, & Hooper, 2002](#); [Schutte et al., 1998](#); [Wong & Law, 2002](#)). While such measures lack the objective status of the MSCEIT (and other ability measures), they offer more efficacious administration, and have demonstrable predictive validity (e.g., see [Jordan & Troth, 2004](#)).

The third stream uses definitions of the construct that are more trait-like and are often described as “mixed models.” Although these models have attracted the most stringent criticism (e.g., see [Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005](#)), especially that they seem to overlap with measures of personality, they are nonetheless the most popular in practice. Examples include the EQi ([Bar-On, 1997](#)) and “trait emotional intelligence” ([Petrides & Furnham, 2001](#)), and the Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI: [Boyatzis, Goleman, & Rhee, 2000](#)). Despite their popularity, [Ashkanasy and Daus \(2005\)](#) are especially critical of Stream 3 models of emotional intelligence, largely because: (1) they are based on disparate and often naïve definitions of the emotional intelligence construct and (2) they correlate highly with measures of personality. On the other hand, recent research has shown that the Stream 3 measures often perform well in meta-analytic tests. [O’Boyle, Humphrey, Pollack, Hawver, and Story \(2011\)](#) and [Schlaerth, Ensari, and Christian \(2013\)](#), for example, found that all three streams of emotional intelligence demonstrate incremental validity over personality variables, and that the Stream 3 models tend to demonstrate the best results for predicting work outcomes.

As we noted in the foregoing, and despite ongoing controversy, emotional intelligence in its various forms has remained a popular construct in the management consultancy industry ([Boyatzis, Stubbs, & Taylor, 2002](#); [McCleskey, 2014](#)). Indeed, the consensus is that the construct is both valid and important across a range of organizational outcomes, including leadership and work performance. Work on development of new and more tractable measures of emotional intelligence (e.g., [Czarna et al., 2016](#); [MacCann et al., 2014](#)) is ongoing and encouraging, so it is likely that the construct is not going to go away any time soon (cf. [Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005](#)).

LEVEL 3: INTERPERSONAL INTERACTIONS

The next level in the Ashkanasy (2003) model deals with the interactions *between* individual employees at work, which is a central issue when it comes to emotional regulation. From the perspective of HRM in particular, this is a critical level insofar as we know that individual employees do not work in isolation. In this regard, we point out that organizations ultimately comprise working relationships between human actors, be that between colleagues, between supervisors and subordinates, or between employees and customers. We also know that the quality of these interactions is critical to determining important performance and service outcomes, especially for those valued by the organization and therefore underpinned by HRM strategy and function. These connections also determine the positive (or negative) culture of an organization (as we discuss later) which then have important implications for employee well-being and job satisfaction; a core focus of any HRM and organizational development unit within a business.

Ashkanasy (2003) depicts Level 3 as encompassing these interpersonal interactions and associated emotion-related processes (Ashkanasy, 2003; Ashkanasy & Humphrey, 2011b). In essence, this part of the model is focused on the perception and communication of emotion in interpersonal exchanges (or dyads), consistent with De Dreu, West, Fischer, and MacCurtain's (2001) notion of emotion as primarily a relational phenomenon. Indeed, Waldron (2000) points out that the interactional level lies at the core of emotions in organizations, especially insofar as they serve to bridge between Levels 1 and 2 (at the micro level) and Levels 4 and 5 (at more macro levels).

Within the Ashkanasy (2003) model, constructs that are considered important at Level 3 include interpersonal-level emotional regulation (Ashkanasy & Humphrey, 2011b), which also encompasses emotional labor (Hochschild, 1983). Moving beyond traditional employee–customer interfaces, emotional labor is also linked to leader influence research (e.g., see Humphrey, 2012; Humphrey, Ashforth, & Diefendorff, 2015). Consequently, in addressing Level 3 of the five-level model, we unpack these interpersonal-level constructs and discuss some of the practical implications for HRM practitioners and managers, focusing in particular on interpersonal emotional regulation.

Interpersonal Emotional Regulation

As we alluded to in our coverage of Levels 1 and 2 of the five-level model, there is increasing recognition of the important role ER plays at work (i.e., the experience and expression of emotions determined by the activation of ER strategies, see Gross, 2015; Gross & John, 2003; Lawrence et al., 2011). ER strategies are typically conceptualized at the intrapersonal level as either antecedent-

focused (prior to full development of an emotional experience) or response-focused (after experience of a discrete emotion).

While considerable research has been conducted on ER at Levels 1 and 2, scholars today (e.g., Côté, Van Kleef, & Sy, 2013; Kafetsios, Hantzara, Anagnostopoulos, & Niakas, 2014; Little, Kluemper, Nelson, & Gooty, 2012; Niven, Holman, & Totterdell, 2012; Zaki & Williams, 2013) increasingly recognize the critical importance of ER as an *interpersonal* (i.e., Level 3) phenomenon. In this regard, the evidence supports the idea that employees' perceptions of workplace events shape their emotional experiences and expressions as well as the emotional experiences and expressions of others (Grandey, Diefendorff, & Rupp, 2013; Lawrence et al., 2011). To give a practical example, consider an employee who might turn to her colleague or supervisor for assistance in managing her own emotions, or might attempt to regulate a colleague's or a supervisor's emotional experiences and displays.

Empirical evidence demonstrates that the regulation of emotions at the interpersonal level (i.e., using strategies to regulate the emotional experiences and expressions of others or using others to regulate own emotions) is linked to several markers of high performance. These include, for example, higher customer service quality and satisfaction and better negotiation outcomes (see Côté et al., 2013); positive client affect and higher perceptions of trust and friendship (Niven et al., 2012); and more positive perceptions of friendship with colleagues (see Niven et al., 2012).

As we outlined in our earlier discussion of Level 1, Gross's (1998) emotion regulation process model forms the basis for much of this line of research. To understand what occurs at the interpersonal level, however, we turn to another theory, emotional labor. Initially coined by Hochschild (1983), the idea of emotional labor has been further developed in the context of HRM by Grandey (2000). A number of reviews have focused on conceptual and empirical research related to emotional labor theory (Grandey et al., 2013; Gross 2013b, 2015; Mesmer-Magnus, DeChurch, & Wax, 2012; Webb et al., 2012) including the commonalities and differences between the intrapersonal ER theories (see Lawrence et al., 2011; Mikolajczak et al., 2009). In the following sections therefore, we briefly outline emotional labor theory and highlight current and suggested applications to HRM practice.

Emotional Labor

Hochschild (1983) defines emotional labor as a process by which employees regulate their emotions within interpersonal encounters in order to adhere to organizational emotional display rules (see also Grandey, 2000; Grandey et al., 2013). Hochschild further argues that when the organization requires employees to display specific emotions, they enact one of two interpersonal ER strategies: *surface* acting (suppressing the expression of emotions and faking unfeelt emotions) or *deep* acting (consciously modifying felt emotions to match expressed

emotions). In effect therefore, surface acting involves enacting two ER strategies – expression suppression and faking emotion – whereas deep acting is more conceptually vague. As several researchers (see Côté, 2005; Grandey & Gabriel, 2015; Lawrence et al., 2011) suggest, deep acting is in effect a variant of Gross's (1998) cognitive reappraisal strategy, and may possibly even include attentional deployment strategies.

Emotional labor theorists (e.g., see Diefendorff, Croyle, & Gosserand, 2005; Grandey et al., 2013) have recently begun to acknowledge “expression of naturally felt emotion” as an additional ER strategy that sits under the emotional labor banner. The authentic expression of emotions is not like surface and deep acting as no conscious “acting” is required to perform it, although the emotions expressed still need to align with organizational display rules (Martinez-Inigo, Totterdell, Alcover, & Holman, 2007). This concept is also referred to as “automatic regulation” by some emotional labor researchers (Beal & Trougakos, 2013; Hulsheger et al., 2015). This however should not be confused with Gross's notion of “automatic unconscious emotion regulation,” insofar as the later concept encompasses strategies from all ER categories, including expressive suppression (Barrett, Ochsner, & Gross, 2007). The particular argument that researchers such as Hulsheger et al. (2015) use is that natural expressions of experienced emotion proxy for *all* of Gross's (1998) antecedent ER strategies when automatically and unconsciously enacted.

Although initially only applied to employees' interpersonal encounters with customers, emotional labor scholars have recently begun to extend the concept to cover exchanges between colleagues and supervisors (Côté et al., 2013; Grandey et al., 2013). The key to this notion is that individuals need to regulate their own emotions *intrapersonally* within an interpersonal context. Further, most emotional labor models only consider *one* instrumental emotional goal, aligning employees' emotional expressions with organizational emotional display rules (Grandey et al., 2013). Finally, Diefendorff, Erickson, Grandey, and Dahling (2011) argue that more individuals need to enact more ER behaviors when display rules are prominent in organizations (as compared to workplace situations where individuals are free to display their feelings as they choose).

Findings relating to surface and deep acting are similar to those related to Gross's (2013a, 2015) ideas about expressive suppression and cognitive reappraisal in intrapersonal emotional regulation. The results relating to the natural expression of emotion are too few to compare them to research examining authentic expression. In this regard, Mesmer-Magnus et al. (2012) found in a meta-analysis (canvassing both survey and experimental data) that surface acting increases burnout, work withdrawal, and turnover intentions; and decreases job satisfaction and health. They found, on the other hand, that deep acting decreases work withdrawal and turnover intentions and increases task performance and overall work performance.

Very little empirical work seems to look at the influence of the expression of naturally felt emotions on organizational outcomes, however. An exception is

the work of [Hulsheger et al. \(2015\)](#), who found that both deep acting and the natural expression of emotion link to the number of tips received from waiters and taxi-drivers. Finally, [Martinez-Inigo et al. \(2007\)](#) found that automatic regulation negatively relates to emotional exhaustion.

In view of these findings, researchers such as [Côté \(2005\)](#) and Lawrence and her associates ([2011](#)) are increasingly coming to view emotional labor as in fact a subset of interpersonal ER. As mentioned earlier in this chapter, emotional labor was originally viewed as a process involving Level 1 ER strategies evoked when employees are encouraged to regulate *their own* emotions albeit within interpersonal encounters in order to adhere to organizationally mandated emotional display rules (see also [Grandey, 2000](#); [Grandey et al., 2013](#)).

We argue, however, that emotional labor in fact occurs at multiple levels and thus can be framed at Level 3 of the [Ashkanasy \(2003\)](#) model as a form of interpersonal ER (e.g., [Ashkanasy & Humphrey, 2011b](#); [Côté, 2005](#); [Côté et al., 2013](#)). For example, Côté and his colleagues examined emotional labor within a dyadic context in which individual senders (e.g., employee) control their emotions in order to have an impact on a receiver (e.g., client or customer). In essence, the sender's regulation of her or his own emotional expression (using individual-level deep or surface acting strategies) produces changes in the other person's emotions via contagion (e.g., mimicry, entrainment), that then have consequences for the sender (in [Côté's 2005](#) model: work strain).

[Gracia and Ashkanasy \(2014\)](#) also provide a conceptualization of emotional labor that is multi-level – whereby interpersonal emotional labor is viewed as acting in both directions between the employee and customer in a reciprocal process. Similarly, [Grandey, Kern, and Frone \(2007\)](#), in considering how employees use emotional labor when encountering verbal abuse from customers, advocate that an employee's subsequent emotional expression is in fact influenced by the target's emotional expressions. The employee initially focuses on the self and regulates her or his own emotional expressions (i.e., via surface or deep acting in accordance with organizational display rules) in order to influence the angry customer (i.e., the target). The customer's potential change in emotional expressions in turn partially shapes the subsequent emotional expressions to regulate the targets' emotions further.

Taken together, the extant research appears to show that effective use of emotional labor strategies relates to increased customer service and performance (e.g., [Mesmer-Magnus et al., 2012](#)). In terms of health and well-being, deep acting seems to have more positive effects on employees than surface acting strategies; the latter leading to the greater likelihood of strain and emotional exhaustion overtime ([Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002](#); [Grandey, 2003](#)).

In summary, it is clear that processes at Level 3 of the [Ashkanasy \(2003\)](#) model serve in effect as a critical link between the micro and macro levels of the model. In particular, the realization that emotional regulation encompasses regulation of both own and others' emotions is only now coming to be understood as a pivotal factor in shaping the nature and effectiveness of

interpersonal relationships at work. Clearly, however, these is still much more to be studied before we have a more complete understanding of these processes.

LEVEL 4: TEAMS AND WORKGROUPS

The penultimate level in the Ashkanasy (2003) model encompasses teams and workgroups. In particular, the rising use of team structures over the last few decades has directed much more research to focus on teams. From an HRM perspective, this is important insofar as we know that there is increasing emphasis on teams as a factor underpinning productivity in the workplace. Moreover, HR managers are the ones usually responsible for recruitment and for development strategies that enhance teamwork. Salient emotion-related constructs at this level include the effect of emotional contagion (Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1993) and group affective tone (George, 1990). For example, Kelly and Barsade (2001) show that emotional contagion is central to the dissemination of moods in work teams, and also that this has consequences for group mood and performance. Ashkanasy (2003) cites Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) to lend support to the idea that leaders play a key role in determining emotional states at the group level. More recently, Sy, Côté, and Saavedra (2005) demonstrated that emotional contagion facilitates this process.

The role of effective leadership through Leader–Member Exchange (LMX; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) is another salient construct related to emotion at Level 4. The main argument in terms of LMX is that effective leaders regulate relationships with their followers (often working in a team) as a means of enhancing their relationships with them (Jordan & Troth, 2011; Tse, Lam, Lawrence, & Huang, 2013; Tse & Troth, 2013; Tse, Troth, & Ashkanasy, 2015) – and this has subsequent consequences for performance and well-being. In the following discussion, we therefore focus on this topic as an example of the consequences of emotions at the team level.

Leader–Member Exchange as a Team-Level Phenomenon

Leadership researchers (e.g., Ashkanasy, 2003; Jordan & Troth, 2011; Tse & Ashkanasy, 2008; Tse, Dasborough, & Ashkanasy, 2005; Tse et al., 2013; Tse & Troth, 2013) increasingly have come to recognize the role of emotion in leader–member exchanges (LMX) in the workplace and particularly in teams. LMX theory occupies a distinct space in the leadership literature with its focus on the quality of the dyadic relationship between a leader and follower (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Tse et al., 2013). Briefly, the theory is based in the notion that leaders use different leadership styles to develop differential interpersonal relationships with subordinates. This means leaders form low-quality

transactional relationships with some employees, but high-quality socio-emotional relationships with others (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975). LMX theory also holds that leaders have difficulty forming high-quality relationships with every member of a team because of their limited resources, time, and abilities (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Maksom & Winter, 2009). A corollary of this is that leaders tend to develop high-quality relationships with a few employees who in turn act as “trusted assistants.” The remaining subordinates tend to experience lower-quality relationships with their leader.

The quality of the relationship between a leader and her or his subordinates has important implications for both parties involved and for the overall experience of the team. A high-quality LMX relationship tends to be characterized by mutual respect, trust, and influence that go beyond the formal employment contract (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Tse & Troth, 2013). Both parties in the high-quality exchange relationship report higher job satisfaction and work performance (e.g., Gerstner & Day, 1997). Gerstner and Day contend further that leaders focus on developing, supporting, and satisfying employees in high-quality relationships by delegating more interesting tasks, providing access to important resources, and giving them increased autonomy and responsibilities.

In contrast, low-quality relationships tend to develop based on the terms and conditions derived from the formal employment contact. Compared to peers in high-quality LMX relationships, subordinates in this type of relationship often receive less supervisory attention and have poorer access to organizational resources, and fewer empowerment opportunities. This potentially leads to job dissatisfaction and lower organizational commitment (Gerstner & Day, 1997). Thus, the differential quality of LMX relationships results in different employee work attitudes and behaviors, which in turn help to maintain relationships with the leader (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

One of the specific research foci in LMX is how emotions influence LMX quality (see Adams, 2005; Ashkanasy, 2003; Hughes & Avey, 2009; Lee, 2005). Emotions here are thought to play an important role in LMX processes owing to the increased proximity and increased frequency of interactions between subordinates and supervisors in workgroups. In this regard, underpinned by Affective Events Theory (AET: Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), Tse and Troth (2013) argue that the quality of LMX relationships are perceived by subordinates as sources of affective events which create uplifts that produce positive emotional responses or hassles that lead to negative emotional reactions among subordinates in workgroups.

Scholars propose that the affective experience arising from the quality of LMX relationships may influence how subordinates perceive and react to their supervisor, and determine their willingness to engage in social and economic exchanges (Dasborough, 2006; Tse et al., 2005). For instance, in a series of employee interviews, Tse and Troth (2013) found that subordinates experience more positive emotional reactions (e.g., pleasure, joy, excitement) if their supervisor recognizes their potential, spends time listening to their needs and trusts

their ability for performing tasks. Conversely, subordinates experience more negative emotional responses (e.g., anger, frustration, resentment) if their supervisor is seen to be disrespecting their value and ability, disregarding their interests, or showing favoritism towards other subordinates. These findings tell us that different quality LMX relationships influence a subordinate's experience of a wide range of emotions in diverse ways.

Leadership as Emotional Labor

Recently, researchers have begun to pay attention to the nexus of leadership and emotional labor ("leading with emotional labor" is a term used by Humphrey, 2008). In particular, Humphrey and his colleagues (see Ashkanasy & Humphrey, 2011b; Humphrey, 2008; Humphrey, Pollack, & Hawver, 2008) have examined how leaders use emotional labor tactics, not only to manage their own moods, but also to improve the moods of their followers. Humphrey (2012) argues that leaders can influence their subordinates' feelings through a process of emotional contagion and goes on to discuss how leaders can use emotional labor as a form of ER to take conscious control of their own emotions so that they can express appropriate emotions to their followers. Through emotional contagion, the followers feel the leaders' experienced emotions, display congruent emotional expressions and, in turn, pass on the emotions to other group members or clients. Ashkanasy and Humphrey (2011b) also discuss how, via emotional contagion, effective leaders create an emotional resonance that emotionally synchronizes leaders and followers.

Humphrey and his colleagues (2008) also propose that leaders who engage in deep acting will be more emotionally contagious than leaders who use surface acting or who do not perform emotional labor. Furthermore, these scholars suggest that leaders who perform emotional labor are seen as better communicators, and deep acting is more effective than surface acting at increasing perceptions of communication skill. Finally, Humphrey and his associates argue that leaders who perform emotional labor will be more likely to be perceived as transformational leaders, and deep acting will be more effective than surface acting at increasing perceptions of transformational leadership.

LEVEL 5: THE ORGANIZATION AS A WHOLE

At the top level in the Ashkanasy (2003) model is the role emotions play as an organization-wide phenomenon. This includes both strategic decision-making and issues related to organizational culture and climate.

Referring to emotions and strategic decision-making, Ashton-James and Ashkanasy (2008) demonstrate that principles of AET (Weiss & Cropanzano,

1996) can be applied at this level. In this case, rather than needing to deal with affective events that are generated within the organization, strategic decision-makers deal with events that derive from the external environment, including organizational environment, including organizational change events; economic, legal, and political events; and inter-organizational negotiation. Similar to AET, such events generate emotional reactions leading to mood states that in turn result in either impulsive affect-driven decisions or considered decisions, which both ultimately affect strategic decision-making and organizational outcomes. The authors conclude that understanding and managing emotions in organizations is a critical ingredient for successful strategic decision-making. Taking this idea a step further, [Voola, Carlson, and West \(2004\)](#) argue from the resource-based view of organizational strategy ([Barney, 2001](#)) that emotional intelligence contributes to an organization's competitive advantage.

Turning now to consider emotions from a culture/climate perspective, we note that the principal HRM perspective becomes one of identifying how organizations can engender what [Ashkanasy and Daus \(2002\)](#) refer to as a "healthy emotional climate" (see also [Ashkanasy & Härtel, 2014](#); [Ashkanasy, Härtel, & Daus, 2002](#)). Such "healthy" organizations tend to be characterized across the board by positive emotions, high commitment, and high job satisfaction — leading to high performance and positive outcomes. This can be seen in the organization's affective culture and climate, which is manifested through organizational members' understandings about norms and expectations that exist in the organization. These norms and expectations, in turn, are reflected in the affective climate (positive or negative), the norms for emotional expression and in the organization's emotional history. For example, an organization that has just survived a Chapter 11 restructure is likely to have an emotional history that is very different to an organization riding the crest of an economic boom.

The central concept in this respect is the idea of "emotional climate," which [de Rivera \(1992\)](#) defined as "an objective group phenomenon that can be palpably sensed — as when one enters a party or a city and feels an attitude of gaiety or depression, openness or fear" (p. 197). Note that here we are referring specifically to the notion of "climate," not culture. The latter is most accurately defined in terms of organizational members' espoused beliefs and values, and especially by their deep-seated assumptions about the organization and its stakeholders ([Schein, 2004](#)). Emotional climate, on the other hand, refers to the collective mood of organizational members, including attitudes towards the organization as a whole, their peers and their leaders. As such, affective climate is a subset of organizational climate ([Ashkanasy, 2007](#)).

Organizational climate tends to be more volatile than culture, however, and so has greater potential to be a group-wide (Level 4) rather than an organization-wide phenomenon. In illustration of this, we note that [Ashkanasy and Nicholson \(2003\)](#), who studied "climate of fear" in two Australian restaurant chains, found that, while organizational culture varied across the two organizations (and not between sites within each organization), climate of fear varied between sites, but

not across the organizations. Yurtsever and de Rivera (2010) studied a similar construct, which they referred to as “emotional climate” and found that it varies markedly depending on how much employees trust each other.

Ashkanasy and Ashton-James (2005) note further that “Level 5 is qualitatively different from the other levels of the (Ashkanasy, 2003) model” (p. 221). This is because emotions at this level represent an accumulation of emotions at all the lower levels. Thus, affective events, which are experienced in different ways by employees at Level 1, result in emotional attitudes and behavior that are moderated by individual differences (e.g., emotional intelligence) at Level 2. This, however, also influences inter- and intrapersonal emotional regulation at Level 3, affecting leader–member relations (Level 4). Ultimately, Ashkanasy (2003) argues that this process also influences the affective climate right across the organization.

In support of this idea, Dasborough, Ashkanasy, Tee, and Tse (2009) posited that “a leader’s behavior towards subordinates (Level 4) is reflected in team-member relationships (Level 3) that in turn reflect on the leader’s performance via emotional contagion processes, leading to an organizational management response to the leader (Level 5)” (Ashkanasy & Humphrey, 2011a, p. 219). In another study, Pirola-Merlo, Härtel, Mann, and Hirst (2002) found that transformational leaders tended to use emotion regulation to help followers deal with their negative emotions when confronted with difficult situations. Pescolido (2002) likewise found that leaders help their followers to deal with organizational change by assisting them to regulate their emotions. In another study, Kim, Choi, and Lee (2016) found that a positive affective climate was directly reflected in-group creativity (cf. Isen, Daubman, & Nowicki, 1987). Finally, Jiang and Probst (2016) found that what they referred to as “affective job insecurity climate” had an impact on the organization’s safety performance.

PUTTING IT ALL TOGETHER: IMPLICATIONS OF EMOTIONS AND EMOTIONAL REGULATION FOR HRM

Up until this point, we have addressed the role of emotions in organizations largely from an OB perspective, keeping to the framework set out in Ashkanasy’s (2003) five-level model, but referring where appropriate to implication for HRM. We began with discussion of within- and between-persons micro-level processes at Levels 1 and 2, then continued on to discuss interpersonal, team, and organizational-level processes at Levels 3–5. Notably, however, and as we noted in the earlier section, organization-wide outcomes ultimately extend across all levels, connecting individual behavior with organizational outcomes.

Consistent with the subject matter of the series, *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management*, we shift our focus now to issues that are

specifically relevant in HRM. In this regard, we note that an appropriate framework for examining HRM practices is the four-part typology proposed by Dyer and Holder (1988), which includes recruitment and selection, training and development, performance management and compensation and rewards. Counter to considering HRM as a set of practices, however, Wright and Boswell (2002) posit that HRM can be reconceptualized from a focus on functional and strategic issues to a focus on individual and organizational issues to advance the field. Their argument stems from evidence that individual factors influence employee behavior (see Ajzen & Fishbein, 1970; Paauwe, 2009), while organizational issues such as broader policy decisions and the direction of the company also impact on employees' experiences at work (Huselid, 1995).

O'Brien and Linehan (2014) go a step further to draw attention to the balancing act that HRM professionals engage in while undertaking their jobs. In the following sections, we examine the impact that emotions at Ashkanasy's (2003) five levels have on a range of HRM activities including recruitment and selection, performance management and training and development and compensation and rewards (Dyer & Holder, 1988). Specifically, we argue that rather than changing the focus of our examination to individual and organizational in line with Wright and Boswell (2002), we can achieve a better understanding of the role of emotion in HRM by blending the two perspectives and extending this examination using Ashkanasy's (2003) framework. Fig. 2 provides an overview of the five levels, adapted from Ashkanasy (2003), focusing on the key issues for HRM that we identify.

Finally, we point out that the interaction of HRM and emotions is necessarily reciprocal. In this regard, Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) argue that HRM policies and procedures constitute components in the organizational environment and therefore are sources of "affective events." On the other hand, Ashkanasy (2003) points out that emotions at the lower levels of the five-level model contribute successively to processes and states that impact higher levels in the model. In support of this idea, Dasborough and her colleagues (2009) argue that employees' emotional reactions to their leader (at Level 1) contribute via contagion to group (Level 4) and ultimately organizational (Level 5) emotional states that, in turn, reflect back to the shop floor (Level 1). Similarly, emotional regulation processes operating as individual (Level 1) and interpersonal (Level 3) processes are likely both to reflect and to determine the organization's climate and emotional display rules (at Level 5).

Practical HRM Implications at Levels 1 and 2

To discuss the practical implications of the model at Levels 1 and 2 (and how they relate to higher levels and vice versa), we refer to the work of Wright and Boswell (2002). These authors argue specifically that individual differences

predict behaviors and responses by employees (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1970) as well as how individuals respond to others at work (Caldwell, Herold, & Fedor, 2004) and, ultimately, how this impacts organizational performance. In the following discussion, we consequently examine the impact that individual differences have on a range of HRM activities including recruitment and selection, performance management and training and development and compensation and rewards (Dyer & Holder, 1988) – that implicitly addresses issues from the more macro components (Levels 1 and 2) of the Ashkanasy (2003) model. We discuss in particular the role of interpersonal ER in selection and socialization, and training and development.

Recruitment, Selection, and Socialization

Consistent with Robertson and Smith (2001), we note that recruitment and selection depend on emotional judgments. In this regard, Ambady, Hallahan, and Rosenthal (1995) posit that any process by which individuals judge each other will inevitably evoke emotions. Moreover, emotions emerge for those recruits as well as those who are doing the recruitment and selection at Levels 1 and 2. Indeed, often people undertaking recruitment processes in their organizations report that they make their final decisions on what they term “gut reactions” (see Miles & Sadler-Smith, 2014). This may seem arbitrary in a discipline that ostensibly encourages appointment and promotion on meritocracy (Castilla & Benard, 2010), and as we noted earlier, there is extensive research that demonstrates that humans cannot make any decisions without emotion (Damasio, 1994; Hanoch, 2002). As a result, emotion is an essential element in recruitment decisions. While this does not mean that all recruitment decisions are going to be based in emotional decision-making processes, the evidence is nonetheless clear that emotion plays a significant role in this process (Morris & Feldman, 1997).

Moreover, there is evidence that recruitment candidates report a range of emotions during the process (at Level 1) that range from enthusiasm (Turban, Lee, Veiga, Haggard, & Wu, 2013) to anxiety (Feiler & Powell, 2013) and nervousness (Ayres, Keereetawee, Chen, & Edwards, 1998). Candidates also experience emotion and are required to display emotion (Level 3) as a part of the interview process. For instance, job interviewees report a range of emotions from the interview panel can influence their decisions to accept a job offer, including the enthusiasm of the interview panel (Liden & Parsons, 1986) and empathy (Lyon, Trotter, Holt, Powell, & Roe, 2013). Clearly, emotions are important, both for candidates and for recruiters.

Examining specific emotions that are relevant to recruitment and selection, Ayres et al. (1998) discuss the impact of nervousness on employment interviews. They note in particular that potential employees who suffer from communication apprehension (i.e., nervousness about the interview) spend less time in

thinking about or preparing for an interview, which in turn affects their overall performance at interview.

Of course, candidates can also experience a range of both positive and negative discrete (specific) emotions during the process. Positive emotions might include enthusiasm about the opportunity, hope about the outcome, pride in discussing their achievements, and excitement about discussing the future. Negative emotions might include fear about the interview process, sadness if the process does not end favorably, and anger if the process did not appear to be fair. Similarly, interviewers can experience positive and negative emotions from surprise to hope to frustration to boredom to anger and disappointment.

There has also been a significant research focus on emotion-related variables that are thought to have a direct impact on recruitment decisions. For instance, [Fox and Spector \(2000\)](#) argue that emotional intelligence is an essential element in employment interview outcomes (Level 2). These researchers found in particular that interviewees' emotional intelligence and trait affect contribute independently to the success of these interviews. Significantly, Fox and Spector also found that the interviewer's affective response mediates this relationship. In further support of this result, [Kluemper, McLarty, Bishop, and Sen \(2015\)](#), who examined a broad range of factors that influence interviews including mental ability and extraversion, found that interviewees' emotional intelligence was strongly associated with successful interview outcomes (Level 2).

Gender also seems to play a role in employment interviews. In this regard, [Feiler and Powell \(2013\)](#) examined the impact of gender on interview anxiety and found that males who are nervous in interview situations rate lower in interviews than females with a similar level of anxiety (Level 3). Interestingly, the interviewers who participated in this research were unable to assess accurately the level of anxiety experienced by the interviewees (as rated by those interviewees). This suggests that the gender effect in emotional expression represents a subjective experience that may affect interview outcomes.

Looking specifically at the skills that employees are able to use during interviews, [Imada and Hakel \(1977\)](#) found nonverbal communication is also critical in interviews. As [Ekman \(1999\)](#) points out, nonverbal communication in essence reflects an actor's emotional state (Level 1). Moreover, there is evidence that emotions can play a more direct role in the interview process. Certainly, when we think of those that perform well in a selection process, we think of factors such as confidence, emotional stability, agreeableness ([Cole, Field, Giles, & Harris, 2004](#)) as general attributes (Level 2) but also specifically in terms of how the candidate performs at interview (Level 1) – all of which have an emotional component.

All these studies indicate that emotion plays a key role in recruitment and selection for recruits and recruiters alike. In support of this view, [Levashina, Hartwell, Morgeson, and Campion \(2014\)](#) concluded that emotional contagion (Level 4) may hold promise for understanding some of the influences of emotion on the interview process.

Moreover, while our focus has been specifically on the interview process in terms of emotion, we also acknowledge that emotion and ER may be in play in other aspects of the recruitment and selection process. For instance, emotion may play a role in assessing written applications or resumes, and emotion certainly can emerge in references provided for employees. All of these areas would seem to provide significant potential for future research.

Emotional Regulation in Selection and Socialization

Turning now to look at emotional regulation in relation to selection and socialization, we note that, to date, the literature has paid little attention to the potential use of habitual emotion regulation strategies during selection processes (Levels 1 and 3). Organizations, however, utilize “onboarding” induction sessions to socialize their staff to organizational norms, including those relating to appropriate emotional displays in the workplace (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Morris & Feldman, 1997; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987).

Socialization processes also tend to be specific to each industry and each organization. There might be specific display rules required by some organizations (e.g., particularly in customer service areas where employees are encouraged to smile) and these rules are posted in high visibility areas (Level 3). Other organizations may socialize their staff to adopt functional emotion regulation and expression through value statements and professional standards developed by the organization and/or associated professional codes of conduct, or simply expect newcomers to model the professional behaviors exhibited by co-workers. Some organizations utilize all the above socialization processes. Diefendorff, Richard, and Croyle (2006) note in particular that display rules statements influence the behavior of workers for a range of expressions from smiling to restraining anger episodes. In terms of socialization processes, Martin, Knopoff, and Beckman (1998) examined values at the Body Shop® and found a direct link between the espoused values of the organization and emotion regulation behaviors of workers.

Most researchers argue, moreover, that the newcomer socialization phase typically lasts for up to a year (Morrison, 1993, 2002) although, for newly employed graduates in jobs with high task complexity (e.g., engineers), this phase can last for up to three years (Morrison & Vancouver, 2000). It is during this socialization phase that newcomers appear to seek information and feedback. They do so in order to become proficient at their jobs and to integrate into the organization’s culture (Morrison, 1993). Importantly, this includes normative information about expected role behaviors, and social feedback about how to behave during workplace social interactions (Morrison, 1993, 2002). These newcomers can source this information and feedback through one or more of three channels: (1) observation and monitoring of their supervisor and peers, (2) direct inquiry from supervisors and peers, or (3) from company literature (including operational manuals, codes of conduct, strategy documents,

internal communications, performance guidelines, organizational websites, and newsletters; see Ashford, Blatt, & VandeWalle, 2003; Morrison, 1993, 2002).

Emotional labor researchers propose further that it is during this socialization process that employees learn organization-specific emotional display rules, including the emotion regulation strategy norms used to achieve them (Greguras & Diefendorff, 2009; Grandey et al., 2013; Matsumoto, Yoo, Hirayama, & Petrova, 2005). In this regard, Clarke (2007) found that newcomer healthcare workers tend to use workplace learning methods during their socialization phase; they do so to learn to use effective emotion regulation strategies for that particular work context. These methods include on-the-job learning and the opportunity to reflect on and to share experiences with supportive others in the work setting – and are seen by newcomers as a way of developing their professional role abilities.

In sum, it is clear that HR practitioners should focus on intrapersonal emotion regulation strategy and emotional display use in the areas of selection and socialization (Level 3). Given that certain cognitive reappraisal (e.g., positive cognitive reappraisal) and attentional deployment (e.g., mindfulness) strategies typically have positive impacts on employee behaviors, interactions and performance (see Grandey et al., 2013; Lawrence et al., 2011; Mesmer-Magnus et al., 2012; Webb et al., 2012), it follows that selection criteria should start focusing on whether potential recruits use these emotion regulation strategies habitually. So-called “onboarding programs” should also include information about emotional verbal and nonverbal display expectations that organizations require as part of employees’ job roles.

Finally, HR practitioners would do well to provide frontline managers with checklists and/or training. This should serve to remind them to provide information and ongoing feedback to newcomers (during socialization) about the emotional displays that are expected (and forbidden) in their particular work context. These lists should also provide useful intrapersonal emotion regulation strategies that they may utilize to deal with work stressors. Alternatively (and as suggested by Clarke, 2007), mentoring programs could be utilized where mentors discuss emotional normative behavioral expectations and use coaching techniques to develop newcomers’ intrapersonal emotion regulation repertoires (Level 4).

Performance Management

Ashkanasy et al. (2002) point out that management generates emotion for both the employee being performance-managed and the supervisor. In this regard, giving feedback involves passing judgment on another’s performance and behaviors and, since human judgment is inherently influenced by emotion (Damasio, 1994; Hanoch, 2002), that means our emotions influence the feedback we give to others (Levels 1 and 3). Similarly, receiving feedback can be an emotional experience. In this respect, London and Smither (2002) developed a model that identifies emotions as a central element of the performance

appraisal process. These authors note in particular that employees inevitably experience an initial emotional response to feedback (cf. “primary appraisal,” Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) and then must manage their emotions (“secondary appraisal”) to deal successfully with the feedback and then to respond to it mindfully (Level 3). On this basis, there seems to be clear evidence of the importance of emotions in the performance management practices at the individual level.

Indeed, research has consistently linked emotions to employee performance, especially at the individual level. Kluemper, DeGroot, and Choi (2013) argue that the ability to manage emotions results in higher work performance (Levels 2 and 3). Similarly, Gooty et al. (2014) found that emotion-focused coping (a range of strategies designed to deal with discrete emotions) to be linked to better performance for those individuals with high emotional intelligence (Levels 2 and 3). Other studies (e.g., see Lam & Kirby, 2002; Rode et al., 2007; Wong & Law, 2002) demonstrate the link between high emotional intelligence and individual performance (Level 2).

Culbertson, Henning, and Payne (2013) argue further that employees fall into two categories with respect to performance management. These authors identify those that avoid performance management or set low goals in the process who seek to avoid the negative feelings that emerge (or can emerge) from this process. On the other hand, Culbertson et al. (2013) note that there are employees who seek to engage in the process to prove their worth and experience the positive feelings from achievement. Similarly for managers, poor performance management practices can often be a result of managers wanting to avoid the uncomfortable emotions that can emerge during the performance management process (Brown, Kulik, & Lim, 2016).

Staw, Sutton, and Pelled (1994) note in addition that positive emotions expressed by employees can result in a halo effect, whereby positive emotions result in generalization of the employee’s positive traits to other desirable traits and behaviors in the workplace. Staw and his colleagues (1994) argue that employees who express emotions that are more positive have higher evaluations of their work performance, and on this basis have the potential to earn higher salaries. Similarly, looking at managers, Staw et al. (1994) argue that positive emotions expressed by supervisors may result in them gaining more influence over subordinates and other employees.

A further issue concerns what happens when employees receive feedback in performance appraisal interviews. As Newcombe and Ashkanasy (2002) found, feedback results in varying experiences of emotion for employees at Level 1 (see also Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). In this regard, Atwater and Brett (2005) found that leaders who expressed positive emotions during a performance feedback interview where change was required were rated higher in subsequent performance appraisals than those who expressed negative emotions when asked to change (Levels 3 and 4). Smither, London, and Reilly (2005) reached a similar conclusion in their development of a model for managing the feedback

process. In their model, employees need to regulate their initial emotional reaction to feedback if they are going to be able to change their behavior appropriately.

We acknowledge, however, that the link between emotions and performance appraisal requires further investigation. For instance, researchers recommend regular progressive assessment of performance rather than an annual form-filling exercise (Kuvaas, 2011). What we do not know is what specific emotions are generated within each process. For instance, is provision of regular feedback likely to ameliorate negative emotions? What are the implications in terms of any change required by this feedback? Do emotional reactions moderate in response to feedback over time? Each of these issues should be of interest to both researchers and practitioners.

Training and Development

Like all activities in HRM, training can be emotional. Some types of training like interpersonal skills training and communication skills training directly addresses emotional aspects of work. In particular, both trainees and trainers are frequently challenged to reassess their own skills and abilities; and can even be asked to reflect on their contribution and values (cf., Luthans, 2002). For many, this can be a confronting and emotional experience (Level 1).

Certainly, the idea of training about emotions is not new. Lief and Fox (1963), for example, examined the process of training medical students to detach emotionally from their work. Sutton (1991) studied bill collectors trained to detach emotionally from those debtors. More recently, Sonnentag and Binnewies (2013) identified the emotional stresses caused by employees trying to gain work/life balance. Acknowledging these findings, Jordan (2005) argues that emotional intelligence is an important factor that can enhance organizational learning and may provide an avenue for improving the experience and performance of employees (Level 2).

One major trend in HR training and development is the emergence of explicit emotion training for employees (Level 3). Since Hochschild (1979) first identified emotional labor as a factor in service industries, this has come to be recognized as a factor that can be trained both on the job and in courses (e.g., see Rafaeli and Sutton, 1987). While this type of training has become popular in the fast food industry (Leidner, 1993), Little, Kluepfer, Nelson, and Ward (2013) comment that such training appears to be spreading to other service industry sectors. More recently, the idea that leaders can be trained to “lead with emotional labor” has arisen (Jordan & Lindebaum, 2015). Kafetsios, Athanasiadou, and Dimou (2014) note similarly that leaders can be trained in emotion regulation skills as a means to enhance their leadership acumen. In the following section, we deal in more detail with the role of intrapersonal ER in training and development.

Emotional Regulation in Training and Development

There is a good deal of existing research in clinical, social and organizational psychology that can inform evidence-based training or coaching approaches aiming to improve employees' intrapersonal emotion regulation behaviors. Current techniques identified within disciplines may be modified to improve emotion regulation for employees via training programs, mentoring programs or a more individualized and client-focused employee assistance program (EAPs, e.g., anger management courses or formal counseling or coaching sessions; Lawrence et al., 2011; Novaco, 1977).

In particular, Quoidbach, Mikolajczak, and Gross (2015) found that interventions involving training both clinical and nonclinical helped participants to use attention deployment, cognitive change, and response modulation strategies to improve their positive emotions in the short term. Training involving situation selection during an event and attentional deployment before, during, and after an event, seems to be the most effective means to improve positive emotions in the long term. In this regard, meta-analysis findings by DiGiuseppe and Tafrate (2003) revealed that one-on-one, rather than group anger management courses are more successful in regulating further anger episodes, particularly if the client is committed to behavioral change. Finally, we note a study by Deffenbacher, Oetting, and DiGiuseppe (2002) where the authors outline anger management interventions that involve relaxation, identification of cognitive patterns, and behavioral skill enhancement. These authors argue that combining all three of the above approaches is the most effective way to address unregulated anger.

Moving to an applied workplace intervention study, we see that Hulsheger et al. (2015) conducted an intervention on a group of hairdressers. This study involved brief self-training and daily instructions in how to use cognitive change and attentional deployment regulation strategies (reflective of emotional labor's deep acting strategy). The authors found that hairdressers in the experimental condition received more tips (a proxy of job performance) than the controls. This finding is in keeping with Grandey (2000), who argues that training programs can enhance emotion regulation skills, particularly in relation to emotional labor. Callaghan and Thompson (2002) note further that extensive formal training is used in call centers to enable operators to deal intrapersonally with feelings of anger (and especially not to respond in kind). The authors argue that organizations should screen out individuals with dysfunctional emotional control abilities during selection processes so that employee training programs can be more effective.

With regard to cognitive reappraisal interventions, Urry and Gross (2010) argue that individuals who struggle with anxiety might benefit especially from a focused intervention such as cognitive bias modification therapy (which can be used across a broad range of individuals and focuses on typical events). This is in contrast to participation in a general intervention such as cognitive behavioral therapy (which is usually associated with treating clinical anxiety and

depression disorder; see Butler, Chapman, Forman, & Beck, 2006, for a review).

Whereas change can result in a range of emotions including fear and anger (Antonacopoulou & Gabriel, 2001), cognitive bias modification training could assist employees to perceive the ambiguity around organizational change programs as positive challenge rather than negative stressor, and as a consequence respond with enthusiasm or excitement (Mathews & Mackintosh, 2000). We also argue that HR practitioners might find benefit in applying cognitive behavior therapy ideas about helping individuals to understand, to manage, and to change their cognitions and behaviors. Butler et al. (2006) suggest that such training programs should focus directly on improving functional emotion regulation behaviors.

With regard to attentional deployment interventions: clinical, social, and organizational psychologists have all done interesting work in the area of mindfulness training interventions. While clinical psychology researchers have increasingly seen mindfulness interventions as a promising form of treatment for many disorders (Baer, 2003), social psychology researchers appear to have recognized its value in shaping general well-being (Brown & Ryan, 2003), and organizational researchers see it as the new workplace panacea (e.g., Dane, 2011; Farias & Wikholm, 2015; Weick & Sutcliffe, 2006).

Turning now to mindfulness training in particular, we find that clinical psychologists believe this can be valuable in terms of disengaging individuals from automatic thoughts, habits, and unhealthy behavior patterns (including those relating to emotion regulation), and fostering informed and self-endorsed behavioral regulation that promotes well-being (Brown & Ryan, 2003; Goldin, Ramel, & Gross, 2009). Mindfulness clinical interventions include mindfulness-based stress reduction (MBSR: Kabat-Zinn, 2003), acceptance and commitment therapy (Hayes, 2004), and dialectical behavior therapy (Linehan, 1993). The major emphasis of these three approaches is on learning to experience negative emotions skillfully. In this context, training in emotion regulation skills involves elevating emotional distress through exposure to the primary emotion in a nonjudgmental environment, and building specific sets of skills.

Mindfulness training interventions in the social and organizational psychology research domains have also involved training in meditation and mind-body practices. These consist of decentering (i.e., “reperceiving”), amplification of positive emotions via positive attentional deployment and savoring pleasant events in the present moment, and de-amplification of negative emotions using meditative relaxation and stopping negative reactions (Li et al., 2016; Shapiro, Carlson, Astin, & Freedman, 2006). Individuals are then expected to enact such processes during everyday life to ensure that they are always attentive to the present moment (Dane, 2011). In particular, the results of a meta-analysis by Sedlmeier et al. (2012) indicate that mindfulness meditation training results in strong significant effects ($r = .40$ to $.32$) in terms of reducing stress and state anxiety, and improving attention, mindfulness, and to a lesser extent

improvements in well-being ($r = .25$). The use of mindfulness training interventions in the workplace reveals that mindfulness training, in comparison to control groups, positively influences increased mindfulness strategy use (Wolever et al., 2012), reduced use of surface acting (Hulsheger et al., 2013), reduced workplace stress and sleep difficulty (Wolever et al., 2012), increased job satisfaction, and reduced emotional exhaustion (Hulsheger et al., 2013).

While these results are encouraging, it is important to note that there have also been reports of a “dark side” to some mindfulness meditation techniques (Farias & Wikholm, 2015; Forster, 2016; Shapiro, 1992). For some employees, mindfulness meditation gives rise to memories of historical traumatic events, loss of identity, confusion, paranoia, panic, and depression (Forster, 2016). Shapiro also found that 63% of a sample of long-term meditators experienced at least one negative outcome from meditation retreats and 7% experienced significant adverse outcomes including emotional pain, panic, depression, and anxiety. Many of those who report adverse consequences do not have a history of mental disorders before commencing meditation practices sponsored by organizations (Farias & Wikholm, 2015; Forster, 2016). Although potentially a small population of participants, these findings point to the need for qualified personnel to develop training programs, actually conduct the meditation sessions and be available to provide ongoing guidance for day-to-day meditation practice (Farias & Wikholm, 2015).

In sum, there is evidence that training programs aimed at improving the use of positive emotion regulation cognitive reappraisal (e.g., positive cognitive reappraisal) and attention deployment (e.g., mindfulness) strategies can result in improved use and have other positive organizational flow-on effects, including performance. Therefore, it should be a strategic advantage to organizations if they began to focus on improving workers’ emotion regulation skills (Rupp & Spencer, 2006). HR practitioners wishing to provide emotion regulation-focused training to their employees should utilize this existing research to produce evidence-based training, mentoring and EAP activities and programs. Those practitioners wishing to utilize meditation in their organizations should seek professional advice in developing their programs in order to mitigate the “dark side” of mindfulness meditation (Farias & Wikholm, 2015). We conclude this discussion by noting that the evidence suggests that appropriately trained personnel should be utilized to guide people through the mindfulness meditation sessions and to provide potential ongoing guidance.

Another area that has become a particular focus in organizations is emotional intelligence training (Level 2). That said, Jordan, Murray, and Lawrence (2009) comment that many training programs lack rigor and that their developers appear to have promoted them principally as commercial products. Furnham (2009) comments in this regard that many emotional intelligence training programs seem to focus on stress reduction and/or social skills training and/or therapy. Clarke (2006) echoes this sentiment in suggesting that, to establish the unique contribution they make to improvements in employee

performance, managers need to assess the effectiveness of all commercial emotional intelligence training programs.

Clearly, there remains scope for substantial research on the actual impact of emotions training and both workplace and personal behaviors. In particular, the popularity of emotional intelligence training requires specific attention to determine the incremental validity of this type of training over traditional interpersonal skills and stress-reduction training programs.

Compensation and Benefits

While compensation and benefits are often described as a purely functional aspect of HRM (and are therefore often outsourced from many organizations), we posit that there are nonetheless significant emotions involved in such activity (particularly at Level 1), especially when perceptions of injustice arise. Indeed, the critical nature of organizational justice has been shown to have a major impact on employees' performance (Colquitt, LePine, Piccolo, Zapata, & Rich, 2012), organizational citizenship behaviors (Moorman & Byrne, 2013), and job (dis)satisfaction (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001). Managing compensation decisions in this case often involves an understanding of emotions and emotional reactions to such decisions, and highlights the importance of emotion management.

Aryee, Walumbwa, Mondejar, and Chu (2015) commented in particular on the central relationship between justice perceptions of employees and their positive affect at work. Similarly, Barsky and Kaplan (2007) found that affect plays a direct role in determining employees' perceptions of the justice climate in their organization. On this basis, it is clear that compensation and rewards are a physical manifestation of justice policies in organizations, and are of critical importance to HR Managers. We note, however, that this appears to be an area in which there is a dearth of research. Certainly, we anticipate some interesting research questions can emerge from looking at emotional responses to compensation and remuneration decisions.

Practical HRM Implications at Level 3

Arising from our earlier theoretical discussion of the role of emotion and emotion regulation at Level 3 of the Ashkanasy (2003) model, we identify two topics that hold important implications for HRM practice. These are (1) interpersonal regulation and (2) emotional labor.

Interpersonal Emotion Regulation

We contend that research on interpersonal ER has the potential to result in effective HR practices. One potential area for focus pertains to the training and development of managers to be aware of, and conversant, in a range of ER

strategies to manage emotion-related events with staff appropriately. For instance, Williams (2007) describes how managers can effectively use ER strategies in interpersonal interactions with staff when presenting them with potentially threat inducing or change information. The types of emotion-infused workplace scenarios that might be better dealt with by managers skilled in interpersonal ER include communicating and managing organizational redundancies and restructuring, as well as the more day-to-day activities of managing employee performance. For example, a manager might be more likely to choose to modify a threat-inducing situation by holding a meeting at a neutral venue instead of a boardroom (i.e., use situation modification as an ER strategy). Alternatively, a manager might be better equipped to reframe a pay cut cognitively as a way to mitigate potential job losses (i.e., using cognitive reappraisal as an appropriate strategy).

As a further option, a manager trained in a repertoire of interpersonal ER strategies might more effectively choose to discuss the rejection of an employee's pay rise request in a more informal setting, for example, while walking with them to a restaurant, or use deep breathing to modulate their response. In addition to a focus on the development of these skills in staff, it is clear that other HR functions need to be in alignment. For instance, the recruitment, selection and promotion of employees with greater interpersonal ER skills, rather than the traditional focus on the technical skills and knowledge of a position, will also have benefits for organizations. The important role of selecting and appointing managers or leaders with these interpersonal ER skills is also worth consideration, as is the promotion to higher-level positions of employees already with these skills, or the potential to develop or strengthen them further.

Emotional Labor

In terms of the practical implications of emotional labor, it seems rather than seeing jobs as wholly rational enterprises, internal HRM specialists and managers need to assess the emotional impact of each employee's job, and to design job assignments that take this into account (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2002). Nowhere is this more apparent than when employees are engaged in what Hochschild (1983) refers to as "emotion work" with clients or patients or customers. Practical strategies might include mini breaks away from the customer-service interface to reduce emotional load/exhaustion. Alternatively, job design that sees employees involved in the whole business process (e.g., sales staff not only deal directly with the customer but also order the salient product, are given back-of-house time to become knowledgeable about the product line) which provides time for the employee to recover from emotional labor. Moreover, and as we developed in our earlier discussion of Level 1, recruitment and selection is also vital to ensure that staff are hired with more effective

emotional skills, as well as training in how to reframe events to promote greater use of deep acting.

It is also important for HRM to remember that “emotion work” can also occur internally within the workplace between managers and their subordinates. As a starting point, from the perspective of organizational leadership, it might be prudent to reflect on the implicit emotional display rules that the business is expecting of their staff. For instance, are employees (and leaders) given opportunities or allowed to express authentic emotion (albeit in an appropriate form)? Or are felt emotion expressions (positive or negative) generally frowned upon? In terms of recruitment and selection, [Ashkanasy and Daus \(2002\)](#) suggest that the selection of employees and teams should depend to some extent on a positive emotional attitude. Managers should also select employees based on their record for engendering a positive emotional attitude in their work teams. Furthermore, managers should seek to train their employees to improve their emotional intelligence skills and to engage in healthy emotional expression at work.

Practical HRM Implications at Level 4

Leader–Member Exchange Theory

According to [Purcell and Hutchinson \(2007\)](#), in terms of HRM, what is critical is the extent to which employees see their managers (especially frontline managers) to be providing effective HR practices. According to these authors, HR practices exist initially as policies that are applied by supervisors and managers. The strength and quality of the LMX relationship, these authors argue, is to deliver or to translate a HRM system into action with subordinates. Purcell and Hutchinson also argue that a strong and integrated bundle of HRM practices coupled with visible and high-quality LMX relationships is what ensures positive relationships between HRM practices and organizational performance.

The emotion-related research on LMX also highlights the important role of positive affective experiences in the LMX relationship, and the important part supervisors play in determining this (from the subordinate’s perspective). Overall, findings suggest that practical training can increase the quality of the LMX relationship. For example, development of interpersonal communication skills, and training leaders in how to give personal recognition and mutual support would appear to promote the quality of the LMX relationships ([Tse & Ashkanasy, 2008](#)).

Leadership as Emotional Labor

According to [Humphrey et al. \(2008\)](#), the emotional labor literature on leadership has important practical implications. Most importantly, Humphrey and his colleagues suggest that managers need to pay attention to the moods and emotions of their followers. These scholars argue that this advice is in contrast

to the advice published regularly in popular media – and sometimes in academic outlets – that variables such as job satisfaction (tightly bound to emotion processes at Level 3) might have nothing to do with performance and productivity. Humphrey et al. also suggest strongly that the popular advice to act in a business-like manner and to refrain from displaying emotions needs to be changed. Although managers and other leaders may not have to express emotions 24-hours-a-day, expressing the appropriate emotions seems to be a key function that both task and relationship leaders need to perform. Thus, rather than telling managers and other leaders not to express their emotions, leaders need better training in how to express their emotions effectively. This may help leaders use either deep acting or genuine emotional expressions and avoid the harmful psychological effects that accompany surface acting. Mastering the basic skills behind genuine emotional expression and deep acting may make the workplace more productive and enjoyable for both leaders and followers.

There is also mounting evidence that leaders need to use considerable judgment about which emotions to display, especially during times of crisis or when confronting other negative workplace events. At such times, leaders need publicly to display emotions demonstrative of confidence and hopefulness even if they personally have the same concerns as their subordinates. Although performing surface acting may make leaders more effective, it may also add to leaders' feelings of emotional exhaustion.

Practical HRM Implications at Level 5

Finally, in addressing Level 5, we refer to [Ashkanasy and Daus \(2002\)](#), who presented eight practical recommendations for creating a “healthy organizational climate,” five of which they referred to as “preventative” and three as “restorative.” Based on the foregoing discussion we conclude that these strategies are as relevant today as they were in 2002. The eight strategies are:

- (1) *Assess the “emotional impact” of jobs (preventative)*. The point here, and as we stress throughout this chapter, is that managers need to recognize that all work is inherently emotional. As we outlined earlier, for many years, organizational managers appeared to hold the belief that employees need to be totally rational and emotionless when they come to work. In fact, and as we hope we have made clear, the opposite is true. In this regard, [Ouweneel, Le Blanc, and Schaufeli \(2012\)](#) advise employees “don’t leave your heart at home” (p. 537). In particular, all jobs have an emotional component, although some have more than others (e.g., service workers, compassionate professions).
- (2) *Create a positive and friendly emotional climate through modeling (preventative)*. Managers and leaders who model positive emotions at work

maximize the likelihood that their subordinates will reflect similar attitudes, either via contagion (cf. Sy et al., 2005) or social-cognitive role modeling (Wood & Bandura, 1989). Leaders should also attempt wherever possible to be authentic when interacting with their subordinates, including knowing when it is appropriate to display negative emotions (cf. Newcombe & Ashkanasy, 2002).

- (3) *Encourage a positive emotional climate through rewards and compensation systems (preventative)*. Employee compensation systems continue to be undervalued in HRM practice and research (Gupta & Shaw, 2014). In terms of what we are arguing in this chapter, moreover, and as Ashkanasy and Daus (2002) stress, organizational policies need to be tailored specifically to reward positive behavior. Importantly, and consistent with AET (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), employees also need to see that there is a match between organizational policies and how they are expected to behave day-to-day, especially in the form of positive organizational support (Kurtessis et al., 2015).
- (4) *Select employees and teams based, in part, on a positive emotional attitude (preventative)*. Organizations are ultimately a collective of individual employees, recruited and selected to enact the organization's mission and aims. If organizations are to develop a positive affective climate, then clearly they need to attract employees who are able to demonstrate the personal qualities and skills needed to achieve this outcome. Moreover, and as we discussed earlier in this chapter, recruitment, selection, and socialization of new employees are functions that are inherently emotion-infused and involve issues of emotional regulation in both self and others.
- (5) *Train employees in emotional intelligence skills and healthy emotional expression (prevention)*. In addition to selecting employees, and again as we stress throughout this chapter, organizations need to institute training programs across the organization that specifically address emotional skills, including training in emotional intelligence (Schutte, Malouff, & Thorsteinsson, 2013), empathy (Lam, Kolomito, & Alamparambil, 2011), and emotional labor (deep acting) training (Grandey et al., 2013). Moreover, as we noted with selection, recruitment, and socialization, training programs inherently involve emotions and emotional regulations.
- (6) *Culture change (organization-level restoration)*. While organizational culture change is notoriously difficult to effect (see Schneider, Brief, & Guzzo, 1996), ultimately managers of organizations characterized by a negative culture must strive to achieve this level of change. Schein (2004) emphasizes that this requires challenging deep-seated assumptions; moreover, if the organization fails to shift these assumptions, then culture change is doomed to failure. Schneider and his colleagues argue that such change is nonetheless possible, even if it requires top-level personnel changes and/or rethinking reward policies.
- (7) *Environmental and job change through job re-design (job-level restoration)*. Engendering positive organizational culture and climate sometimes comes

down ultimately to the nature of the work done by individual employees. This especially applies to providing individual employees with the freedom to use their own initiative with their work. In the end, employers need to think seriously about employee empowerment (Menon, 2001).

- (8) *Individual change through targeting training, punishment, re-assignment, or firing (individual-level restoration)*. Finally, and continuing the theme of addressing organizational-level issues from the bottom up, managers need to address the need for individual employees to participate in the culture/climate. This requires HRM policies that clearly set out positive expectations for employees including the rewards that can be reaped for exhibiting such behavior (and conversely, punishments for behaviors that run counter to such expectations).

CONCLUSIONS

In this chapter, we presented a multi-level perspective on emotions and emotional regulation, with special reference to HRM applications. In the first part of the chapter, we defined emotion and introduced Ashkanasy's (2003) five-level model of emotions in the workplace. The five levels addressed in the model are: (1) within-person temporal variations, (2) between persons (individual differences), (3) interpersonal processes; (4) groups and teams, and (5) the organization as a whole. At Level 1, we focused in particular on the emotion of fear, which is a basic emotion associated with an organism's quest for survival, citing the work of LeDoux (1995a, 1995b, 1996, 1998, 2000), which we argue is ubiquitous in organizational settings. We also discussed in detail how individuals can use emotional regulation to deal with their responses (Gross, 1998, 2013a, 2013b, 2015). At Level 2 in the model, we focused on emotional intelligence (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Salovey & Mayer, 1990) that, although still controversial, remains a popular construct in management consulting and has now garnered considerable empirical support as a valid and useful concept. Level 3 represents the interpersonal level of analysis in the five-level model, including the effect of emotional labor and emotional regulation, especially interpersonal emotional regulations (where the actor seeks to regulate emotion in others). From an HRM perspective, the key concept in this regard is reflected in emotional labor theory (Hochschild, 1983), which we argue is closely related to emotional regulation at Level 1. Level 4 deals with groups and teams. We focused in particular on leadership and LMX, which we argue is intrinsically associated with emotions and emotional regulation. Finally, we argued that Level 5, which is the top level in the model, encompasses processes at all of the lower levels, with the ultimate aim to engender a "healthy emotional climate."

In the second part of the chapter, we addressed the practical outcomes for HRM of our earlier analysis (based in the five-level model). At Levels 1 and 2,

we addressed in particular five main aspects of HRM: (1) recruitment, selection, and socialization; (2) performance management; (3) training and development; and (4) compensation and rewards, focusing on the role of emotional regulations, especially with regard to selection and socialization, and training and development. With regard to recruitment, selection, and socialization, we presented evidence to show that these processes are inherently emotions for both sides, for example candidates and recruiters in selection. It is in selection and socialization, however, that emotions, emotional contagion, and emotional regulation play the most critical roles, ultimately affecting the success or failure of a recruitment decision. When it comes to performance management, again the evidence is strong that emotions play a critical role, including creation of halo effects and responses to performance feedback. In relation to training and development, again we argued that emotions play a central role, including both training in use of emotions and emotional labor as well as the emotional effects of training in trainees. We also discussed in detail the issue of emotional regulation in training and development, concluding that the evidence points to such training, especially mindfulness and emotional intelligence training, as leading to positive employee performance outcomes, although it is also important to ensure adoption of appropriate techniques in such training. Finally, we noted that compensation and benefits, while often regarded as purely functional, are also infused with emotion, especially when it comes to perceptions of procedural and distributive justice.

At Levels 3 and 4 in the model, we turned our attention to the practical implications of interpersonal emotional regulation, emotional labor, LMX quality, and “leading with emotional labor,” concluding in each instance that HR managers need to pay close attention to each of these facets, including provision of appropriate training in each instance. All of this comes together at Level 5 of the model, which covers the organization as a whole entity. In this regard, we cited [Ashkanasy and Daus \(2002\)](#), who set out five “preventative” and three “restorative” strategies that need to be enacted if an organization is to achieve a “healthy organizational climate.”

In conclusion, we set out in this chapter to provide a comprehensive overview of the role emotion and emotional regulation play in organizations, with a focus in particular on HRM. The central point we make in this chapter is that while there remains scope for further research in this field, we know now that emotions are an unavoidable component of working life and should never be underestimated. A further point is that emotions in organizations constitutes an intrinsically multi-level phenomenon, extending from what employees do, think, and feel throughout every moment of their working days, up to the notion of an overarching emotional climate that affects the organization as a whole. While we acknowledge that there are gaps in our knowledge of this field, we now know enough about the topic for HR managers to begin to plan and to act on the basis that emotions and emotional regulation are core components of organizational well-being and effectiveness.

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