

THE ROLE OF EVENTS AND AFFECT IN PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL
SUPPORT: A WITHIN-PERSON APPROACH

by

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A dissertation submitted to the faculty of
The University of North Carolina at Charlotte
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in
Organizational Science

Charlotte

2017

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ABSTRACT

HALEY JANE WOZNYJ. The role of events and affect in perceived organizational support: A within-person approach. (Under the direction of LINDA RHOADES SHANOCK)

Employees develop global perceptions regarding the extent to which their work organization cares about their well-being and values their contributions, which is known as perceived organizational support (POS). While the extant literature on POS is vast, a majority of the research has been cross-sectional in nature, which ignores potentially important within-person variation in the job attitude. In addition, much of the research on POS has not directly investigated the role of affect in relation to POS, despite POS connoting caring by the organization. The current study explores the extent to which POS fluctuates on a short-term basis as a result of emotional reactions to events that employees experience at work. In addition, it integrates Affective Events Theory to understand the role of affective events and their associated transient discrete emotions in explaining why POS may fluctuate, and whether that relationship depends on the strength of individuals' socioemotional needs. To test my hypotheses, I employed a diary-study method in which 56 working adults responded to three surveys per day for ten days. The results suggest that while POS is relatively stable job attitude, it fluctuates over the course of two weeks. I also found that the events that employees experience at work are significantly related to both happiness and anger (discrete emotions). In turn, both happiness and anger are significantly related to POS. These results advance organizational support theory by highlighting the role of affect in relation to POS and illustrating that momentary changes in affect relate to momentary changes in POS. Furthermore, only one

socioemotional need moderated the relationship between discrete emotions and POS.

Organizations can use the results of the current study as evidence for the importance of providing signals of POS in socialization processes for new employees, as it seems that once POS develops, it is relatively stable.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This dissertation, as well as my success in graduate school, would not have been possible without the generous help and support of others. I would like to extend my sincere appreciation to some individuals who challenged, encouraged, and inspired my work. First, I would like to thank my committee chair, Dr. Linda Shanock. Her unwavering support, constant encouragement and invaluable guidance over the past five years and throughout the dissertation process have been important in shaping me as a scholar. Second, I would like to express my gratitude to my committee member, Dr. Eric Heggstad, who also mentored me and provided me with guidance, feedback, and support with my dissertation and throughout my tenure in the Organizational Science program. Together, the amount I have learned from Dr. Shanock and Dr. Heggstad about organizations, research, statistics, and life is incalculable, and I cannot express my appreciation enough. I would also like to thank Dr. George Banks for serving on my committee and providing important feedback to improve the project. I also appreciate his guidance and assistance through the process of finding a job and transitioning to a faculty position. Lastly, I would like to thank Dr. Shawn Long for serving on my committee and his thoughtful insights.

I would also like to acknowledge the Organizational Science Alumni Dissertation Fund for the funds to compensate participants for this project.

DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this dissertation to a handful of people who have helped me through graduate school and made it a positive experience.

First, to my husband, who selflessly moved 500 miles from home to help and support me through graduate school. I am forever grateful for the meals he cooked so that I could have extra time to work, for the days he forced me to take a break from work to keep me sane, and for his overall nonstop love and support when life got a little hard. I am so happy I was able to experience this new place with you.

To my mom, who has always told me that I can do anything I put my mind to, and for providing me with encouragement me to get there. I am thankful for the love and support she has given to me throughout my life. And, more generally, to my family for making it so hard to leave home but so welcoming each time I came back.

To Lea Williams and Alex Dunn, who were not only willing to help with school-related questions, but more importantly, who became the best friends outside of school. I am thankful for their willingness to explore Charlotte with me and to gossip about television shows. I am also appreciative of them for forcing me to celebrate degree milestones when I didn't necessarily feel the need to.

To my cohort, the Funky Five, who provided instant friendship from the first day of graduate school. I am grateful for our cohort outings around Charlotte, our puppy play dates, and the consistent academic and social support.

To Ashley Centafont, for sending the random flowers and chocolate covered strawberries when I needed them the most. Her expertise in Excel has been invaluable to

my research and organizational skills. I am also thankful for her willingness to keep me up to date on the happenings at home.

To my dog Coco, who has provided me with laughter every day since she came into my life. Her consistent snuggles made working from home a little less lonely, and her pure excitement when I walked in the door made coming home a joy.

Finally, to my late father and grandmother, who were my biggest fans. They both provided me with unrelenting love, support, and encouragement. Although they are not able to see me graduate, I am forever thankful of the time we spent together and the goals they were able to see me accomplish.

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INTRODUCTION

Employees develop global perceptions regarding the extent to which they feel their work organization cares about their well-being and values their contributions (Eisenberger, Huntingdon, Hutchinson, & Sowa, 1986). This perception, known as perceived organizational support (POS), has been the subject of numerous empirical investigations since the seminal paper on POS was published over 30 years ago. The popularity of POS is due, in part, to its beneficial implications for both organizations and employees (e.g., increased well-being and enhanced performance; Kurtessis et al., 2015; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Scholars have consequently sought to learn how organizations can foster perceptions of support among employees. Meta analyses aimed at summarizing the literature on POS have identified a wide variety of antecedents and outcomes of POS. For example, treatment by other organizational members (e.g., co-workers or supervisors), perceptions of organizational justice, and various human resource practices and job characteristics, such as flexible work schedules and autonomy, have been shown to positively relate to POS (Kurtessis et al., 2015; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). In addition, employees with high POS are more likely to perform better and less likely to withdrawal from their work or their organization (Kurtessis et al., 2015; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Although there has been a vast amount of empirical research on POS, two gaps remain underexplored. First, there has been an overreliance on cross-sectional designs when investigating POS; that is, these studies take a snapshot of POS at one point in time. Such approaches assume that the constructs being studied are stable over time and/or, if studied at more than one time point, treat within-person variation as error (Ilies & Judge,

2002). This is problematic because job attitudes, like POS, are theorized to have both stable qualities, which cross-sectional studies can capture, and dynamic qualities, which cross-sectional studies cannot capture (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012). However, because of the overreliance on looking at POS at a single point in time, we do not understand the extent to which POS is malleable versus stable in the short-term (i.e., the dynamic qualities).

There are many calls for understanding change in attitudes and behaviors over time and incorporating such an understanding into theory (e.g., Antonakis, 2017; Dalal, Bhawe, & Fiset, 2014; Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012). It is important to explore the short-term malleability/stability of POS to better understand the relationships between POS and its theoretically proposed antecedents. As Dalal and colleagues (2014) discuss, relationships within-persons may differ (e.g., in sign, magnitude, etc.) from relationships at the between-person level and may provide important theoretical insights. It could be possible that, in the short-term, that the theoretical antecedents might not predict POS at all. As such, one goal of the current study is to advance organizational support theory, the primary theoretical framework used to explain the development, nature, and outcomes of POS (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Baran, Shanock, Miller, 2012; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), by enhancing our understanding of POS's malleability over time. That is, I explore the extent to which there is within-person variation in POS on a short-term basis.

Second, there has been little attention within organizational support theory regarding the role of affect in relation to POS. Job attitudes, such as POS, are evaluations about some aspect of work, whether it be one's job or organization, and are influenced by

both the beliefs we hold about the object, as well as our affective reactions to it (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012; Judge, Weiss, Kammeyer-Mueller, & Hulin, 2017; Weiss, 2002). Affect refers to a broad conceptualization of the various feelings that individuals experience, like emotions and moods (Barsade & Gibson, 2007; Fisher, 2002; Fuller et al., 2003). Emotions, such as anger, joy, pride and guilt, are intense, short-term, reactions to events, people or things (e.g., Fisher, 2000; Fisher 2002; Lazarus, 1991c; Weiss, Nicholas, & Daus, 1999). While emotions are usually attributable to a specific cause, individuals can experience moods long after an event occurs, and likely do not attribute the mood to any particular cause (Barsade & Gibson, 2007; Fuller et al., 2003).

Theoretically, POS signals caring and warmth from the organization; thus, it is probable that POS is an emotion-laden job attitude affected by emotion-laden events at work.

Based on the current literature, though, it is unclear how affect is related to POS.

Previous research has indirectly investigated affect in relation to POS via the discussion of socioemotional need fulfillment and attachment to the organization (affective commitment to the organization; e.g., Armeli, Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Lynch, 1998; Rhoades, Eisenberger & Armeli, 2001). Given that POS signals caring and warmth from the organization, it is important to understand the role that emotion plays in employees' overall perceptions of organizational support.

Thus, a second goal of the current study is to understand how events that employees experience at work can elicit emotional reactions, and how such reactions influence POS on a daily basis (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Consequently, it advances organizational support theory by integrating it with Affective Events Theory (AET) to consider the role of affect, and emotions in particular, that is elicited by workplace

events, in the maintenance of POS. I focus on emotions specifically (as opposed to mood or general affect) because emotions are transient and develop in response to particular events or situations (Fisher 2000; Weiss et al., 1999a), which fits theoretically given the emphasis in the current study on within-person fluctuations in POS in the short-term. In addition to the call to understand attitudes and behaviors over time, there has also been a recent emphasis on understanding affect at work, specifically with regard to job attitudes (e.g., Ashton-James & Ashkanasy, 2005; Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012; Judge et al., 2017). To accomplish these goals, I draw upon AET, which suggests that the events that employees experience at work elicit emotional reactions, which has implications for job attitudes.

Organizational Support Theory

According to organizational support theory, employees develop POS to determine the organization's readiness to reward increased effort that employees make on its behalf and to fulfill socioemotional needs, like the need for approval and the need for emotional support (Baran, et al., 2012; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). This process is facilitated by the fact that employees assign humanlike characteristics to their work organization, and thus view treatment from agents of the organization (such as supervisors) as treatment from the organization itself (Levinson, 1965; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997). Moreover, organizational support theory, which is grounded in the norm of reciprocity and social exchange theory, argues that when employees feel they are supported by the organization, they feel obligated to reciprocate such support with something of value to the organization (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). This felt obligation is particularly strong if employees perceive the treatment from the

organization as discretionary (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Employees will consequently increase their effort (in terms of job performance, for example) and dedication to their organization in exchange for POS. In addition, because support from the organization fulfills important socioemotional needs that employees have, employees will feel affectively attached and committed to the organization (Rhoades et al., 2001). That is, employees will incorporate organizational membership into their identity and feel concerned for the organization's well-being.

The extensive extant research on POS has primarily focused on identifying the antecedents and consequences of POS. Previous findings suggest that employees develop POS when they feel they have been treated fairly, they feel supported by their supervisors (because they are viewed as agents of the organization), and when they have a say in decision making (Kurtessis et al., 2015; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Organizational rewards, such as pay, promotions, and bonuses, certain job characteristics (e.g., job security, role clarity, and autonomy), and various human resource practices (e.g., supportive work-family policies) also signal to the employee that the organization is supportive. Perceptions of support from the organization also have important consequences for both the employee and the organization (Kurtessis et al., 2015; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). From the employee's perspective, POS decreases stress and strain, increases positive mood at work, and fosters other job attitudes, like commitment to the organization (Rhoades et al., 2001). There are also beneficial implications for the organization; employees who feel supported are more likely to work harder (i.e., higher task performance), perform duties that go beyond their role expectations (i.e., increased

citizenship behaviors), and are less likely to leave the organization (Kurtessis et al., 2015; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

The Stability versus Malleability of POS

While the above cited studies are instrumental in understanding the development of POS and its implications, it is important both theoretically (Judge et al., 2017) and practically (Antonakis, 2017) to consider the extent to which POS fluctuates, if at all, on a short-term basis. Considering variation in POS is an important because it could potentially provide information about the development and maintenance of POS. That is, if POS is found to be relatively stable, it might indicate that POS is mostly developed in newcomers during the socialization process and/or is due to individual differences such as a person's agreeableness. In addition, it would be important to determine what, if anything, can change levels of POS once they have been set (e.g., an intense event, or a 'shock', such as layoffs). On the other hand, if it is found that POS fluctuates in response to fairly regularly occurring affective events experienced by employees, it is important to understand the implications of such variation. For example, does high variation or fluctuation in POS predict important outcomes, like fluctuations in job performance or turnover intentions? That is, do people who tend to have fluctuating levels of POS also have higher turnover or lower performance, or vice versa? Previous research on POS has not permitted answers to these questions because most research has investigated the construct at one point in time, or only at two or three points in time (e.g., Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Rhoades, 2002; Rhoades et al., 2001), ignoring potential within-person variation in the construct. Thus, it is unclear if and/or to what extent POS is stable versus malleable in the short-term.

There is reason to believe that POS is stable. POS represents a global evaluation that employees make about their work organization (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Consequently, Wayne and colleagues (1997) suggest that, when determining whether the organization supports them, employees consider a history of treatment from the organization and its decisions, like pay raises or developmental opportunities. Such an argument suggests that an employee's POS is not likely to fluctuate. The few studies that have explored POS at more than one point in time tend to support the stability argument as well. For example, Rhoades et al. (2001) employed a cross-lagged panel design in their investigation of the contribution of POS to affective commitment. Their results showed that the correlation between POS at Time 1 and POS at Time 2 (measured two and three years later) was .61 and .45, respectively. Similarly, Eisenberger et al. (2002) found that POS at Time 1 was significantly related to POS three months later ($r = .65$). It is likely that the length of time between the measurement of POS in Rhoades et al.'s (2001) and Eisenberger et al.'s (2002) studies was too large to capture daily fluctuations (in part, because within-person variation was not the purpose of either study).

However, research has found that some constructs that are typically considered to be stable, like personality, can actually show considerable levels of variability, even within a single day (e.g., Fleeson, 2001; Fleeson, 2004). For instance, Tett and Guterman (2000) found that variability in personality is attributable to different situations that individuals encounter. Certain situations require different behaviors, and thus may activate a particular personality trait compared to a different situation (e.g., Tett & Burnett, 2003). Like the literature on personality, recent research on job attitudes is beginning to consider the dynamic, state-like aspects of job attitudes to help shed light on

the process underlying the relationships between constructs (Dalal et al., 2014; Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012). In fact, past research suggests that one-third to one-half of variation in job satisfaction is within-person (e.g., Ilies & Judge 2002; Miner, Glomb & Hulin, 2005; Weiss et al. 1999a). In addition, these results also suggest that variation in affect is a significant predictor of job satisfaction.

One likely source of variation in job attitudes is the events that employees experience at work. AET provides a theoretical framework that draws attention to momentary fluctuations in employees' evaluations at work based on their affective states, which are highly variable (Dalal, Lam, Weiss, Welch, & Hulin 2009; Lazarus, 1991c); AET argues that employees develop affective reactions to events at work, which can influence variation in the evaluations that one makes about their job or organization, like POS. Because affective states are thought to have a significant influence on job attitudes (e.g., Miner et al., 2005; Weiss, 2002), it is likely that momentary variations in affect, emotions in particular, influence potential within-person variation in POS. Therefore, it is possible that POS is better positioned as a within-person phenomenon. Similar to Dalal et al.'s (2014) discussion of organizational justice, POS can be viewed as an appraisal of events that happen at work that elicit transient emotional reactions that vary from moment to moment (e.g., Dalal et al., 2009). Such appraisals and reactions to events potentially convey information about whether the organization supports its employees or not, which has implications for POS. As such, I hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 1: POS will fluctuate within-person on a short-term basis.

Mechanisms of Variability in POS

Assuming that POS fluctuates to some degree over time, it is important to begin to understand why and the mechanisms behind such fluctuations. As mentioned previously, AET suggests that events cause momentary changes in emotions, which have implications for job attitudes, like POS (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Although AET has not been investigated in relation to POS, organizational support theory fits naturally with AET; many of the factors that convey support to employees, such as the antecedents of POS described above, are likely to be considered affective events under AET (and thus, influence job attitudes like POS). Affective events can originate inside the organization or as part of the organization's external environment (Ashton-James & Ashkanasy, 2005). Examples include attaining a goal, receiving praise from a coworker or supervisor, interpersonal conflicts, task ambiguity, or technological difficulties (Ohly & Schmitt, 2013). In addition, more uncommon events, such as downsizing, mergers and acquisitions, legal and political changes, and organizational restructuring, can elicit affective reactions as well (Ashton-James & Ashkanasy, 2005).

According to organizational support theory, factors like role ambiguity, organizational justice perceptions, or pay and promotions, contribute to an employee's perception of whether or not the organization is supportive (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). When such information is conveyed, the communication process or the associated interaction can be considered an event that can elicit affective reactions, and thus it is likely that the vast majority of affective events that have been identified in previous research are relevant to POS. Even interpersonal interaction events might influence POS (Kurtessis, et al., 2015). Employees view supervisors and other high-ranking officials as

agents of the organization, and thus accredit treatment from the supervisor as indicative of the organization's intentions (e.g., Eisenberger et al., 1986; Levinson, 1965). For example, when an employee learns about receiving a raise, that information probably came from an interaction with their supervisor. The act of receiving the information about the raise is likely to change what the employee is currently experiencing, which Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) define as an event. When the employee experiences an event like the one described above, he or she is likely to feel happy as a result, making the event, by definition, an *affective* event (Gross et al., 2011; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). The employee is also likely to assume that the raise is representative of treatment from the organization, rather than of the supervisor's own volition. Consequently, even interpersonal interactions are relevant for POS, as interactions with organizational members are significantly related to POS (Kurtessis et al., 2015).

In the following sections, I argue that events elicit emotional reactions, a relationship that has been established before (e.g., Ashton-James & Ashkanasy, 2005), and more originally, that emotional reactions provide information about the extent to which the organization supports its employees.

Events and Emotion

Previous research on AET has examined both mood and emotions in response to events (e.g., Diefendorff, Richard, & Yang, 2008; Micgnonac & Herrbach, 2004; Zohar, Tzischinski, & Epstein, 2003). Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) argue that not all events will result in significant changes in an employee's affect. Instead, emotional responses are the result of a two-step cognitive appraisal process (Ashton-James & Ashkanasy, 2005; Frijda, 1993; Gooty, Gavin, & Ashkanasy, 2009; Guenter, van Emmerik, &

Schreurs, 2014; Lazarus, 1991c; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996); thus, emotions (as opposed to moods) are the focus of the current study. In the first step of the appraisal process (i.e., primary appraisal), people determine how important the event is to one's goals and personal well-being (Lazarus, 1991a; 1991b; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). If the event is not relevant, it will be ignored and the cognitive appraisal process ends. For example, if an employee of a retail company receives an email that communicates the expectations for long holiday hours in stores, the email is likely to only elicit an affective reaction for those employees who work in stores. The hours are unlikely to change for employees who work in corporate headquarters, thus the event is irrelevant for them and will be ignored.

In the second step (i.e., secondary appraisal), employees assign meaning to the event and, consequently, discrete emotions (as opposed to moods) are elicited (Lazarus, 1991a; 1991b; 1991c; Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996). Only events that are deemed relevant in the primary appraisal will elicit emotions, and hence are labeled as *affective* events (Lazarus, 1991b; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). In general, affective events tend to be threatening, goal-hindering, goal facilitating, stressful, aversive, etc. (Ashton-James & Ashkanasy, 2005; Mignonac & Herrbach, 2004). In the process of assigning meaning, employees decide who/what is accountable for and in control of the event (i.e., assigning blame or credit), the potential to cope with the event, and how favorable the future is in light of the event (Lazarus 1991a; 1991b; 1991c). The discrete emotions (e.g., happiness, anger, sadness, love) that are elicited in response to workplace events depend on the outcomes of such decisions (Lazarus, 1991c). It is possible that transient emotions may later influence moods that can last for a few days (Schwarz & Clore, 2003).

Empirical evidence on AET tends to support the relationship between workplace affective events and affect. Some studies focus on a single type of recurring event, such as psychological contract breaches (Conway & Briner, 2002), workplace interactions (Dimotakis, Scott, & Koopman, 2011), or task accomplishments (Gabriel, Diefendorff, & Erickson, 2011). The findings from these studies suggest that each time employees experience an event, they have emotional responses. Other studies, such as Mignonach and Herrbach (2004) and Miner et al. (2005), found similar results when examining a wide variety of both positive and negative events. For example, Miner et al. (2005) found that when participants reported a positive or negative event, they were generally in a positive and negative mood, respectively.

Extending these arguments to discrete emotions—anger (a negative emotion) and joy/happiness (a positive emotion; called happiness henceforth), in particular—should produce similar patterns of relationships. I focus on anger and happiness because they are two of the most basic emotions and are widely applicable and often experienced in work settings (e.g., Gooty, Gavin, Ashkanasy, Thomas, 2014; Spencer & Rupp, 2009; Weiss, Suckow, & Cropanzano, 1999). According to the cognitive appraisal process, negative events, such as a poor interaction with a supervisor or a demotion should elicit anger. That is, the event threatens the employees' well-being and can be attributable to an external entity (e.g., the supervisor or the organization). Consequently, anger should be elicited. In contrast, positive events, such as a raise or fair treatment, should elicit happiness. Such events are likely to facilitate goals and enhance the employee's well-being in the future. Thus, employees should experience happiness according to the

cognitive appraisal process. Taking these arguments and previous findings together, I propose the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 2a: The degree of positivity of workplace affective events will be negatively related to anger.

Hypothesis 2b: The degree of positivity of workplace affective events will be positively related to happiness.

Emotions and POS

The secondary appraisal process is particularly relevant for POS, as it integrates well with the premise in organizational support theory that employees judge the discretionary nature of treatment. Such discretionary treatment has been theorized and found to have a stronger influence on POS than treatment that is viewed as outside the control of the organization. As mentioned earlier and as argued by social exchange theory, actions are particularly powerful in terms of the obligation to reciprocate they produce if the actions are perceived to be at the volition of the benefactor (or harmer; Blau, 1964; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Thus, if the event is perceived to be attributed to the organization and under its control, like voluntary downsizing, it is more likely that the employee will experience an emotional reaction to the event than if the event was out of the organization's control. Such discretionary events may be particularly relevant for POS. On the other hand, if an employee receives recognition for their hard work from an outside agency, they may feel pride because they attribute the event to their own actions, which may not influence POS at all.

AET suggests that the emotions that result from the cognitive appraisal process in response to workplace events have implications for job attitudes, such as POS (Weiss &

Cropanzano, 1996). Feelings-as-information theory suggests that emotions provide information about an individual's environment (e.g., Carlson, Kacmar, Zivnuska, Ferguson, & Whitten, 2011; Dimotakis et al., 2011; Gohm & Clore, 2002; Schwarz, 2011; Schwarz & Clore, 2003). More specifically, Schwarz (2011) argues that an individual's momentary feelings supply them with information about their response to the environment or the target. In addition, he argues that individuals will only attend to the information provided by emotions if it is relevant to the situation. If an individual experiences an unfavorable emotion, it signals that the situation is problematic or unfavorable (Schwarz, 2011). In contrast, more positive discrete emotions may indicate that a situation is favorable and free of problems (Carlson et al., 2011). The information that feelings provide can influence cognitive processes and the formation of judgments (Schwarz, 2011). The feelings-as-information framework has received considerable empirical support when studied in relation to job attitudes like job satisfaction (e.g., Carlson et al., 2011; Fisher, 2000; Ilies & Judge, 2002; Judge & Ilies, 2004; Weiss et al., 1999a)

To understand how emotion can influence POS in particular, I integrate the feelings-as-information framework with organizational support theory. The few studies on POS that have investigated affect have examined positive mood, specifically, and treated it as an outcome of POS (e.g., Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). While feeling supported by the organization is likely to put employees in a positive mood which lasts a while, it is important to consider the role of transient emotions in the development of POS. That is, according to the feelings-as-information framework, it is likely that such perceptions of support are informed by the emotions elicited from events at work;

emotions can provide information to employees about the extent to which the organization supports them. In the paragraphs that follow, I illustrate this argument using the two basic discrete emotions from above: anger and happiness.

According to the cognitive appraisal process, anger is elicited when an event creates goal incongruence (i.e., there is a threat or harm) and an entity (in this case, likely the organization) is accountable for the event and could have controlled it (Lazarus, 1991c). The outcomes of the appraisal process that elicit anger provide rich information relevant to POS. In particular, as argued earlier, POS is based on social exchange theory and the norm of reciprocity, which suggests that favors (or disservices) that are discretionary are particularly strong indicators of benefaction (or ill will; Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960). Because anger is elicited when there is accountability for and control over the appraised event, the emotion is a particularly relevant piece of information for POS, as it signals to employees that the organization could have prevented the negative event from occurring. Moreover, goal incongruence can take on many forms. For example, it could be the result of failure to obtain tangible resources, such as pay raises or promotions, or it could be the result of failure to fulfill socioemotional needs. Both cases are important in organizational support theory to signal to employees that the organization supports them (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Because anger suggests to employees that the organization has failed to provide tangible resources or fulfill socioemotional needs, for example, it is likely that levels of POS will decrease.

Happiness, on the other hand, may suggest to employees that the organization cares about them and their well-being. Happiness is elicited when the appraised event is

congruent with goals that the employee has and indicates that expectations for the future are positive (Lazarus, 1991c). For example, a pay raise is congruent with goals related to obtaining more tangible resources as well as important socioemotional needs like the need for esteem or approval. In addition, positive interactions with one's supervisor may fulfill other socioemotional needs, such as the need for affiliation. Consequently, happiness that results from particular events each day is likely to signal to the employee that the organization as their best interest in mind and thus result in daily fluctuations in POS. In sum, I propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3a: Anger will be negatively related to POS.

Hypothesis 3b: Happiness will be positively related to POS.

The Moderating Role of Socioemotional Needs

It is likely that emotions are particularly informative for POS in employees with high socioemotional needs. Socioemotional needs include the need for esteem (e.g., praise and recognition), the need for affiliation, the need for emotional support, and the need for approval (e.g., favorable evaluations; Armeli et al., 1998; Hill, 1987). People vary in the strength of the socioemotional needs that they have. Organizational support theory argues that employees develop POS, in part, to the extent that the organization fulfills socioemotional needs (e.g., Armeli et al., 1998; Eisenberger, et al., 1986; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Treatment from the organization, such as a promotion, can fulfill employees' socioemotional needs, like the needs for esteem or approval, just as they would in everyday social interactions (Armeli, et al., 1998). However, employees who have higher socioemotional needs than others may be more sensitive to or proactively look for cues that their needs are being fulfilled. The information that

emotion conveys about a particular situation or event may be particularly revealing in determining whether the organization supports them for those employees with high socioemotional needs. Employees who do not have strong needs, on the other hand, may not be as concerned with fulfilling such needs and thus may not be as attentive to their mood as providing information about support from the organization. Consequently, I propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4: The relationships between discrete emotions and POS will be moderated by the strength of socioemotional needs such that the relationships between discrete emotions and POS will be stronger (i.e., more negative and more positive for anger and happiness, respectively) in employees with stronger socioemotional needs.

METHOD

Sample

Participants for the current study included 56 working adults. Because I employed a within-person design, smaller sample sizes (i.e., a minimum of 30) are acceptable to have adequate statistical power to detect effects (Scherbaum & Ferreter, 2009). Previous research using within-person approaches to AET have had sample sizes around 50 participants (e.g., Dimotakis et al., 2011; Gabriel et al., 2011; Judge & Ilies, 2004; Miner et al., 2005). To be eligible for the current study, participants had to 1) work full-time; 2) work in the office more than 50% of the time; 3) have fairly consistent work hours day-to-day; and 4) have access to a computer, phone or tablet during the workday.

Participants were recruited via social media; information about the study was posted to Facebook and Nextdoor.com, an online community for neighborhoods. In addition, a handful of participants were recruited via a snowball technique where previous participants referred others to participate.

The sample was 77% female and was, on average, 32.88 years old ($SD = 9.42$). 89% of the participants were white, 5% were black, 5% Latino/a or Hispanic, and 2% Asian (participants were able to select more than one race/ethnicity). A majority of the sample had a 4-year college degree (51.8%), though 10.8% had a 2-year degree or less while 37.6% had a more advanced degree (e.g., master's degree doctoral degree or professional degree). Using the Occupational Information Network (O*Net) classification of industries and careers (<http://www.onetonline.org/find/>), the participants represented a wide variety of industries and careers. Fourteen of 21 industry categories were represented, with Healthcare and Social Assistance (25%), Educational Services (23%),

and Professional, Scientific, and Technical Services represented most heavily. Eleven of the 16 categories of career clusters were represented. Business Management and Administration, Human Services, and Education and Training had the highest frequency, representing 21.4%, 21.4% and 17.9% of the sample respectively. Thus, the sample was representative of a wide range of jobs and not one particular organization. The participants had been with their organization for approximately 4.27 years ($SD = 5.47$). In addition, the sample included individuals from a wide range of salary categories. For example, some participants (4%) indicated they made less than \$20,000; others (16%) indicated they made more than \$90,000. The most represented salary category was \$30,000-\$39,999 (27% of the sample). Although the sample was dominated by white participants and female participants, there were no differences between races or gender on the focal variables (i.e., ratings of affective events, emotions, POS or socioemotional needs) according to t-tests (white v. minority, male v. female).

Procedure and Sample

Because AET concerns momentary variations in affect in response to workplace events, it is appropriate to assess events, affect and its outcomes in real-time (Ashkanasy & Humphrey, 2011). Thus, the current study employed a diary study methodology where participants responded to multiple surveys per day for an extended period of time. Diary studies are beneficial for a number of reasons (Beal, 2015). They allow researchers to investigate participants how they naturally occur, in part because it captures experiences essentially in real-time. Diary study designs address problems with retrospective reporting of experiences that are more transient, like emotions and potentially POS. In particular, memory influences the recall of information and people do not report

variability very well retrospectively, which is a central part of the current study (Fisher & To, 2012). Thus, diary study methods are very useful in investigating dynamic-within person processes involving variability, such as the current study (Fisher & To, 2012).

The data collection procedure was divided into four phases. First, participants were initially invited to participate in a baseline survey. This survey captured demographic information and information about the participants' jobs and organizations, which was used to determine eligibility for the diary study. Participants also completed trait-like measures, like socioemotional needs, which are assumed to be stable. At the end of the baseline survey, participants were given information about the diary study. They indicated whether they were interested in receiving more information. A total of 203 email invitations were sent for the baseline survey; 177 participants completed the survey for a response rate of 87%.

Second, eligible participants who indicated they were interested in the diary study were invited to participate. An email was sent containing more information about the diary study as well as a link to sign up. Using the link, participants gave their informed consent to participate in the diary study data collection. They also provided the email address they were most likely to check at work, whether they would like to receive text message reminders about the surveys during the work day, and indicated whether they planned to be out of the office a significant portion of the upcoming weeks (defined as more than two days). Of the 177 number of people who completed the baseline survey, 103 were interested in participating in the diary study, though only 81 (46% of completed baseline surveys) were eligible for in the diary study portion based on the eligibility criteria described earlier. Of those eligible and interested in the diary study, 69%

provided their informed consent and were enrolled in the diary study. Thus, the final sample size was 56 participants.

Third, after enrolling in the diary study, participants received a training document that explained the diary study and outlined the expectations of the data collection. The document included a definition of an affective event and examples of various events in order to increase participants' ability to identify an event. In addition, the training document included a link to a video that walked participants through the process of accessing and filling out the surveys. See Appendix A for the written training materials.

Fourth and finally, participants completed the diary study portion where they responded to three surveys per day for two weeks (weekdays only). Researchers suggest that two weeks is an appropriate period to capture a generalizable snapshot of a person's everyday life (e.g., Dimotakis et al., 2011; Wheeler & Reis, 1991); studies longer than two weeks may become an inconvenience for participants, thereby reducing response rates for later time points (Fuller et al., 2003). The current study was a signal-contingent study; participants received an email (and text message reminder, if requested) containing a link to respond to the online surveys (Beal, 2015; Beal & Weiss, 2003). Because the participants started and ended their workdays at different times and worked a different number of hours, the timing of the surveys varied across participants. In general, the first survey was sent about an hour before the participants' workday began, and the last survey was sent about an hour before the participants' workday ended. This timing was purposeful to avoid the emails being sent while participants were in transit to their job. The second survey was sent in the halfway between the first and second surveys. Before beginning the diary study, participants had an opportunity to review and change the

timing of the surveys if there was a standing conflict that would prevent them from responding. Participants had two hours to respond to each survey before the link expired. The response rate for each time point ranged from 63% to 89%. 43 participants completed at least 70% of the time points.

Before beginning data collection, the above procedure was pilot tested for one week with a sample of seven working adults. The purpose of the pilot test was to gauge participant fatigue associated with answering three surveys per day during their workday. One difference between the pilot procedure and the final procedure is that pilot participants did not receive text message reminders to check their email for the survey link. At the end of the last survey, participants were asked to provide some feedback about their experience with the diary study and to suggest any changes to the procedure. A handful of participants mentioned that they forgot to check their emails; to address this concern, I allowed participants in the final sample to decide if they wanted text message reminders. Except for those participants forgetting to take the surveys, the feedback regarding the diary studies was generally positive. For example, one participant said “The number of surveys, length and timing between each was perfect!” Another participant stated “When I did get a chance and remembered I had to complete the survey, they were quick and easy to answer. These were quality questions and made me think about the company I work for.” Following the positive feedback from pilot participants, I was confident that three (as opposed to two, or even one) surveys per day was reasonable to ask of participants.

Given the intensive nature of the data collection, participants were compensated for their time by being entered into a series of random gift card drawings. For completing

the baseline measure, participants were entered into a random drawing to win a \$25 gift card (regardless of their interest in the diary study portion). After the first week of the diary study, participants were entered to win one of four \$25 gift cards. After the second week, participants were entered into a separate drawing to win one of four \$25 gift cards. In addition, participants who completed more than 70% of the total time points across the two weeks were entered to win an additional \$75 gift card. Participants who won one gift card were not precluded from winning subsequent gift cards.

Measures

All study measures, including items and response scales are presented in Appendix B.

Socioemotional needs. Socioemotional needs (i.e., need for affiliation, esteem, emotional support, and social approval) were measured in the baseline survey with 22 items used by Armeli et al. (1998), which were borrowed from Hill (1987) and Martin (1984). The response scale for all items ranged from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*. Need for affiliation was measured with 5 items. A sample item includes “I feel like I have really accomplished something valuable when I am able to get close to someone.” The internal consistency for these items was .88. Need for esteem was measured with 6 items, where “I mainly like to be around others who think I am an important, exciting person” represents a sample item. The internal consistency for these items was .86. The need for emotional support was measured with 6 items as well. A sample item includes “One of my greatest sources of comfort when things get rough is being with other people.” The internal consistency for these items was .91. Finally, need for social approval was measured with 5 items. A sample item includes, “In order to get

along and be liked, I tend to be what people expect me to be.” The internal consistency for these items was .75.

Prior research using the above measures of socioemotional needs have found that the four needs scales represented unique constructs (e.g., Armeli et al., 1998). To examine whether the socioemotional needs are best represented by four distinct factors or by an overall factor in the current data, I conducted a series of confirmatory factor analyses. In line with Armeli et al. (1998), I found that the four-factor model, where each need represented its own factor, fit the data better (CFI = .84; TLI = .81; RMSEA = .10; $\chi^2 = 321.65$) than a one-factor model, where all four needs were treated as a single factor (CFI = .37; TLI = .30; RMSEA = .20; $\chi^2 = 666.80$). Therefore, I calculated scale composites for each socioemotional need separately by taking the mean of the respective items.

Perceived organizational support. POS was measured at baseline using the 6-item, version of the Survey of Perceived Organizational Support (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). A sample item includes “My work organization really cares about my well-being” Response options range from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*. The internal consistency (Cronbach’s alpha) of the baseline administration of POS was .92.

POS was also measured during the diary study in the morning, midday and in the afternoon. For this measure, both the instructions and the items were adapted to prime the participant to consider their current perceptions of support. In particular, the instructions read “Using the scale provided, please indicate the extent to which you agree that each statement describes your beliefs about *your work organization right now*.” A sample item

includes “I currently feel my company really cares about my well-being.” The adapted measure was administered to 52 working adults prior to administration in the diary study. The internal consistency (Cronbach’s alpha) of the items in that sample was .90. In the diary study, Cronbach’s alpha for Time 1 was .92 (first administration) and .97 for Time 30 (last administration). The test-retest reliability for the adapted measure was .82 (from first administration to last).

To draw meaningful inferences, it is necessary to show that the adapted items represent the construct (POS) in the same way across time; that is, to show that the measure is invariant over time (Vandenberg & Lance, 2000). Measurement equivalence is determined by looking at the goodness-of-fit indices of a series of increasingly constrained confirmatory factor models (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002). If the measures are invariant, the models should not fit the data any worse as they become more constrained. I attempted to address measurement invariance by conducting a series of Confirmatory Factor Analyses to examine whether the POS measure at Time 1 was invariant from the POS measure at Time 30 (at the end of data collection). However, it should be noted that the sample size of 56 for the current study is below the recommended sample size of 200 or greater for CFAs (Vandenberg & Lance, 2000); consequently, great fit is not expected for any model. The results of the measurement invariant analyses for POS are illustrated in Table 1. From these results, POS at Time 1 is invariant from POS at Time 30. That is, the model fits the data reasonably well and the additional restrictions do not lead to a significant reduction in fit, despite the low sample size.

Discrete emotions. Anger and happiness were measured in each of the daily surveys (morning, midday, afternoon) using an adaptation of the scale developed by

Weiss et al. (1999b), which is based on the work by Shaver, Schwartz, Kirson, and O'Connor (1987) and used in subsequent research (e.g., Gooty et al., 2014; Spencer & Rupp, 2009). In this measure, respondents are presented with a list of emotion adjectives – nine anger adjectives (anger, rage, outrage, wrath, fury, bitterness, hostility, hate, and ferocity) and 12 happiness adjectives (joy, delight, enjoyment, happy, glad, elation, jubilant, ecstasy, euphoric, jovial, jolly, and gleeful). However, to lessen the time burden on participants, the number of adjectives was reduced to 10 (five anger and five happiness). This reduction task accomplished by asking 52 working adults to indicate how often they experience each of the 21 adjectives while at work (1 = *never* to 5 = *always*). I calculated the mean rating for each adjective and retained the top five adjectives for each emotion. The final anger adjectives were as follows: anger, outrage, bitterness, hostility, hate. The final happiness adjectives were as follows: joy, delight, enjoyment, happy, glad.

Diary study participants were instructed to “using the scale provided, please indicate the extent to which you agree with that each adjective describes *your feelings right now*.” Response options ranged from 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*very much*). As mentioned previously, as participants recall the affective events, they should experience the same emotions as when the event occurred.

Like POS, it was also necessary to show that the discrete emotions measures were invariant over time. The results for happiness, comparing Time 1 to Time 30, are illustrated in Table 2. Like POS, the results suggest that the measure is invariant over time, despite the low sample size. While the goodness-of-fit measures decline very slightly as the models become more constrained, in general, there is not a significant

reduction in fit and each of the models fit the data very well. The measurement equivalence/invariance models for anger would not converge; after examining descriptive information for anger, the lack of convergence is likely due to the low amount of variance in the variable. Consequently, we do not have information about the measurement equivalence/invariance of anger over time.

Affective events. Affective events were measured using a qualitative approach in the daily midday and afternoon surveys. More specifically, participants were asked to “briefly describe one event that influenced you most at work” since arriving in the morning (for the midday survey) or since the last survey (for the afternoon survey). They were also given the following reminder: “An event can be something little, like an interaction with a co-worker or supervisor. Or, it can be something bigger, like a raise or promotion. It can also be positive or negative.” This method is chosen over using a closed-ended scale of workplace events because a) it allows participants to produce the events that were meaningful to them, and b) previous research has shown that, when recounting events, individuals experience the emotions they felt at the time the event occurred (Amabile, Barsade, Mueller & Staw, 2005; Kahneman Krueger, Schkade, Schwarz, & Stone, 2004). From the perspective of cognitive appraisal theories (e.g., Lazarus, 1991c), it is assumed that if participants indicate that they experienced an event, it is likely that they have already appraised the event as relevant (i.e., primary appraisal).

Participants then indicated what effect the event had on them (1 = *very negative* to 5 = *very positive*) and the extent to which they felt their organization had control over the event they described (1 = *not at all* to 4 = *to a great extent*). Because discretionary treatment from the organization influences POS more than non-discretionary treatment, I

focused on events that were viewed as under the control of the organization (rated as a 3 [*somewhat*] or 4 [*to a great extent*]; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Finally, participants were asked to estimate how many other affective events they had experienced since arriving at work (for the midday survey) or since the last survey (for the afternoon survey). The qualitative data on affective events was not explicitly used in the current study; rather, the quantitative operationalization of the valence of the event was used in analyses.

Control variables. Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) suggest that dispositional affect can have an influence on the perception of events as well as their affect throughout the day. As such, I controlled for positive and negative affectivity, which captures the participants' general tendencies to view the world in a positive or negative manner. Positive and negative affectivity was assessed in the baseline survey using the PANAS developed by Watson, Clark and Tellegen (1988). Participants responded to 20 adjectives that describe various feelings (10 positive [e.g., "interested", "excited"; Cronbach's $\alpha = .87$] and 10 negative [e.g., "hostile", "nervous"]; Cronbach's $\alpha = .62$). Respondents indicated the extent to which they feel that way on a normal day using a 5-point Likert scale ($1 = \textit{not at all}$ to $5 = \textit{extremely}$). In addition, I controlled for locus of control because it, like positive and negative affectivity, may influence an individual's appraisal process. More specifically, if an individual has an external locus of control, they may have a tendency to blame the others (e.g., the organization) for the events that occur, regardless of whether the party is actually responsible. Such attributions may have implications for the emotions that one experiences, as well as for perceptions of organizational support. Locus of control was measured in the baseline survey with Sapp

and Harrod's (1993) 9-item scale; the internal consistency of the scale was .73. I also controlled for whether the participant was working from home on any particular day because it could influence the number and types of affective events that they experience (e.g., supervisor interactions probably are not as likely to be salient in non-face-to-face situations).

RESULTS

Means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations for study variables are included in Table 3, Table 4, and Table 5. Table 3 provides the descriptive statistics and intercorrelations for the between-person (Level 2) variables. The descriptive statistics and intercorrelations for the within-person correlations on the full dataset are illustrated in Table 4. Finally, Table 5 contains the descriptive statistics and intercorrelations for the within-person correlations associated with discretionary events only. When screening out data not associated with discretionary events and removing missing data, two people were dropped from analyses. One participant did not report any discretionary events over the two weeks and the other participant had missing data on control variables. Thus, the final sample size was 54.

Affective Events

To provide context for the results of the hypothesized relationships, it is helpful to understand the affective events that employees generated in their daily surveys. Looking at the frequency of words used in the qualitative responses, it most of the events that participants described dealt with two types of events. The first involved interactions with other organizational members (the most frequently used words include “boss”, “coworker”, “supervisor”, “conversation”). For example, one participant said, “I was in the middle of one task when my superior called and started rattling off instructions on a completely separate task with no regard to what she had interrupted.” The second deals with more task-based events (the most frequently used words include “project”, “completed”, “training”, “plan”). For instance, one participant described, “I finished and

submitted a report which always feels like a weight off.” Although task-based and interaction-based events were the most frequently described, participants certainly wrote about other events (e.g., promotions, technological issues, customer issues). In addition, some participants were more long-winded in their description than others.

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 predicted that there would be variability in POS over time. I tested this hypothesis in a few different ways. First, simple descriptive statistics provided information about the variability in POS. I calculated the standard deviation of POS for each person across time (e.g., Fleeson, Malanos, & Achille, 2002). The mean standard deviation of POS for each person across the time points was .45, which indicates that, on average, participants’ POS varied by a half a point on a 7-point scale. The minimum value was .09, suggesting that, for some people, POS hardly varied at all over time. The maximum value was 1.18, which suggests that, for others, POS varied a reasonable amount (i.e., more than one point on a 7-point scale). Second, I plotted the POS ratings across the 30 time points for a random sample of 5 participants to visually illustrate the individual (within-person) variability in POS across time (see Figure 1). Though the magnitude of the fluctuations in POS over time are not substantial, the plot shows that there is some variability in the amount that participants perceived that their organizations were supportive. Table 6 displays the correlations between POS assessments at selected time points. Across all 30 time points, correlations between POS assessments ranged from .67 to .98, and the average correlation was .86.

Third, I calculated the intraclass correlation (ICC[1]) of POS ratings across the 30 time points; the ICC indicates the amount of within-person variance and between-person

variance there is in the focal variable. The ICC(1) value of POS was .85, which suggests that approximately 85% of the variance in POS is due to between-level (person-level; e.g., socioemotional needs) factors, while 15% is due to within-level (within-person) variables, like discrete emotions. Together with the plot and the descriptive information, the ICC(1) value suggest that there is some within-person variability in POS, though it is mostly explained by more stable, between-person factors.

Hypotheses 2-3

Because I employed a diary study methodology, the resulting data structure is what is referred to as “nested”. That is, each person responded to surveys that assess multiple variables (e.g., emotions, POS) three times daily for 10 days; thus, each person has a maximum of 30 possible data points, making days/occasions (within-person) nested within people. Due to the nested nature of the data (i.e., days nested within persons), I conducted multilevel path modeling to test Hypotheses 2-4 (Beal, 2015; Preacher, Zhang & Zyphur, 2011) using the multilevel and nmle packages in R (Bliese, 2016).

Multilevel modeling is advantageous over repeated measures analysis of variance or ordinary least squares regression to analyze data nested within-persons for several reasons (Schonfeld & Ringskopf, 2007). First, ANOVA/OLS assumes independence of errors, which suggests that residuals are uncorrelated (Kenny, Kashy, & Cook, 2006; Ployhart & Vandenberg, 2010). This assumption is violated with nested data because each data point is provided by a single person, rendering them dependent. In addition, multilevel modeling partitions the variance into Level 1 (within-person) and Level 2 (between-person) components (Beal & Weiss, 2003). The Level 1 (within-person) component involves the measures of POS, emotions, and affective events taken over

time. The Level 2 (individual) component involves the more stable measures such as positive and negative affectivity and socioemotional needs, for example. Furthermore, multilevel modeling is flexible in handling unbalanced data. It is the case that some participants did not experience an affective event or may miss one or more time points.

Before beginning with multilevel modeling, it is necessary to investigate whether there is systematic within-person and between-person variance on the focal outcome variables. Estimating a null model allows me to calculate the intraclass correlation (ICC[1]). In this context, the ICC(1) indicates how much within-person variance there is in the Level 1 variables to be used as outcomes in the proposed model (i.e., POS and emotion) and how much between-person variance there is in the Level 1 outcome variables that could be explained by individual-level factors such as socioemotional needs.

Looking at only the data associated with discretionary events, the ICC(1) value for POS is .81, suggesting that approximately 81% of the variance in POS is due to between-person variables and 19% is due to within-person factors. The ICC(1) for happiness and anger is .49 and .23 respectively, which suggests that 49% and 23% of the variance in happiness and anger are due to Level 2 variables. In all three cases, there is substantial variance at both Level 1 and Level 2. That is, there is variation in POS, happiness, and anger both between employees and over time. These results suggest that the nested nature of the data matters, and thus multilevel modeling is appropriate. In addition, there is significant variance in the intercepts and slopes; as an illustrative example, Figure 2 displays individual participants' intercepts and slopes between the degree of positivity of affective events and discrete emotions, while Figure 3 displays

individual participants' intercepts and slopes between discrete emotions and POS. From these figures, it is clear that both the intercepts and slopes differ by person.

To test Hypotheses 2 and 3, I estimated a set of intercepts-as-outcomes equations, which allow for prediction of the intercept (the group mean) of the Level 1 outcome from Level 1 and/or Level 2 predictors. The results of these analyses are illustrated in Figure 4. Hypothesis 2 predicted that the degree of positivity of affective events would be negatively related to anger (Hypothesis 2a) and positively related to happiness (Hypothesis 2b). To test Hypotheses 2a and 2b, I regressed each discrete emotion onto ratings of affective events, controlling for positive and negative affectivity, locus of control, and work from home status. The degree of positivity of affective events was negatively related to anger and positively related to happiness, supporting both Hypothesis 2a and 2b. As for the control variables, positive affectivity was significantly related to happiness ($b = .42$), locus of control was significantly related to anger ($b = .92$). The pseudo r -squared was .57 for anger and .47 for happiness. This suggests that approximately 50% - 60% of the within-person variation in anger and happiness is explained by ratings of affective events.

To test Hypothesis 3, I regressed POS onto discrete emotions, controlling for positive and negative affectivity, locus of control, and work from home status. Hypothesis 3 predicted that anger (Hypothesis 3a) and happiness (Hypothesis 3b) would be negatively and positively related to POS, respectively. Both Hypotheses 3a and 3b were supported; that is, anger is significantly negatively related to POS, while happiness is significantly and positively related to POS, though the magnitude of the relationship is stronger for anger than for happiness. These relationships are also presented in Figure 4.

All relationships with control variables were not significant except and positive affectivity was significantly related to POS ($b = .68$). The pseudo r -squared value for the anger – POS relationship was .46, while the value for the happiness relationship was .33.

To test the significance of the indirect effects of affective events on POS through discrete emotions, I used the z prime (z') method. The available bootstrapping packages in R do not take into account the nestedness of the data and the random nature of the slopes (they vary across people). However, like bootstrapping, the z' method addresses criticisms of the Sobel test (i.e., the need to account for the non-normal distribution of indirect effects). The z' method does so by adjusting the critical value of statistical significance for the indirect effect (from 1.96 to .97; MacKinnon Lockwood, Hoffman, West, & Sheets, 2002). Using the z' method, anger mediates the relationship between affective events and POS (indirect effect = .23; $z' = 4.49$, $p < .05$). Similarly, the indirect effect with happiness as a mediator is also significant (indirect effect = .20; $z' = 5.99$; $p < .05$).

I also tested alternative models in which direct paths of affective events to POS were specified (partial mediation model). The direct paths were statistically significant, providing evidence of partial mediation. That is, there are other potential mediators of the affective events – POS relation.

Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis 4 proposed that the strength of socioemotional needs would moderate the relationship between discrete emotions and POS. To test Hypothesis 4, I estimated a slopes-as-outcome model because I am interested in understanding the extent to which the Level 1 relationship (i.e., slope) between discrete emotions and POS depends on the

level of the participants' socioemotional needs (Level 2). I regressed POS on discrete emotions at Level 1, and treated each socioemotional need as a cross-level moderator, controlling for positive and negative affectivity, locus of control, and whether participants worked from home or in the office. The results of these analyses are displayed in Figure 5.

Of the four socioemotional needs, only the need for esteem was a significant cross-level moderator of the discrete emotions – POS relation (pseudo r -square = .008 for anger; .002 for happiness)¹. All relationships with control variables were not significant except PA was significantly related to POS ($b = .69$) in the anger x need for esteem interaction model. To aid in interpretation, the relationships between discrete emotions and POS was plotted at one standard deviation above and below the mean of need for esteem. The resulting graph for happiness is illustrated in Figure 6 and for anger in Figure 7. The happiness x need for esteem interaction is consistent with Hypothesis 4; when the need for esteem is high, the relationship between happiness and POS is stronger (i.e., more positive) than when the need for esteem is low. It is also interesting to note that POS is lowest when the need for esteem is high and happiness is low. Lower levels of happiness are not desired; consequently, low levels of happiness seem to signal to people with a high need for esteem that they are not supported by their organization to a greater extent than people with a low need for esteem. However, when happiness is high, POS levels are almost identical regardless of the strength of the need for esteem. This suggests

¹ Though there is not a clear consensus, some scholars argue that Level 1 predictors should be group-mean centered when testing cross-level interactions (e.g., Bliese, 2016; Bryk and Raudenbush, 1992; Hofmann & Gavin, 1998). Group-mean centering did not change the results or the interpretation of the cross-level interactions tested in the current study.

that high amounts of happiness might wash out the differences in POS based on the need for esteem.

Also consistent with Hypothesis 4, the relationship between anger and POS is stronger (i.e., more negative) when the need for esteem is high than when the need for esteem is low. POS is lowest when both anger and the need for esteem are high. In contrast to happiness, higher levels of anger are not desired. Thus, it follows that when anger is high, people with a high need for esteem have lower levels of POS than people with low levels of anger because high anger may signal to a greater extent that they are not supported by their organization. However, the differences in POS due to the strength of the need for esteem washes out at low levels of anger. In both of the significant interactions, it appears that socioemotional needs exacerbate the effects of discrete emotions on POS, as hypothesized. Thus, Hypothesis 4 was partially supported.

Additional Analyses

To further examine the variability in POS, I conducted a split-half analysis where time points were randomly assigned to two groups (Fleeson, 2001). The mean and standard deviations of POS across time points were calculated for each individual within each half of the data. The means of the two sets of data points were then correlated, as were the two standard deviations. I only included participants who completed more than 70% of the time points to reduce the amount of missing data, which could unnecessarily skew the correlations. The correlation between the means was .97, suggesting that the mean level of POS is relatively stable across time points, and thus that an individual's level of POS is fairly predictable. That is, the mean level of POS at one point is very similar to POS at another time point. The correlation between the standard deviations of

the two groups was .66. This correlation suggests that the amount of variability in POS, or in other words, how much POS changes, is not necessarily stable across time points. Together, the split-half analysis provides further evidence for the conclusions made above; although the mean level of POS is fairly stable across time, there is variability in POS over time.

I also further explored Hypotheses 2 and 3, which centered around the relationships between affective events, discrete emotions, and POS. From a theoretical standpoint, one would expect AET to unfold as hypothesized; that is, that affective events lead to discrete emotions, which in turn lead to POS (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Previous theorizing has argued that the process unfolds fairly quickly after experiencing an affective event. As such, the above hypothesized relationships were tested using variables collected at same time point throughout the day because, as participants recall the events via a qualitative approach, their subsequent ratings of discrete emotions and POS should reflect the feelings and perceptions they experienced when the event actually occurred (e.g., Kahneman et al., 2004).

It would be interesting, however, to examine the potential lasting effects of affective events and associated discrete emotions. As such, I ran a couple of additional models. First, I examined the effect of the positivity of affective events and discrete emotions and their effects on POS ratings made the following morning. The results of these analyses are presented in Figure 8. The results suggest that discrete emotions are not significantly related to next morning POS. More specifically, the effects of affective events and emotional reactions on POS are short-lived. While the relationship between happiness and next morning POS is almost zero, the relationship between anger and next

morning POS is slightly larger (though still not statistically significant). It is also interesting to note the direction of the relationship between anger and next morning POS; the results suggest as anger increases, perceptions of support from the organization the next morning also increase.

Second, I ran a model where affective events and discrete emotions were separated from POS in time, but by less of a margin. That is, I examined the effect of affective event ratings and emotional reactions at the midday time point on POS at the afternoon time point (i.e., separated by about four to five hours). The results of these analyses are presented in Figure 9. The pattern of results is similar to those found during hypothesis testing; affective events are negatively and positively related to anger and happiness respectively. In turn, anger is negatively related to POS (though not statistically significant), and happiness is positively related to POS (pseudo r-square = .17; indirect effect = .12; $z' = 3.46$, $p < .05$).

DISCUSSION

The purpose of the current study was twofold. First, it was intended to examine the extent to which POS fluctuates on a daily basis. Previous research has focused only on the between-person variation in POS, ignoring a potentially important source of variation (i.e., within-person) that can help to better explain the nature of POS and potential daily influences of its antecedents (e.g., Antonakis, 2017; Dalal et al., 2014). In particular, the current study found that POS has both stable and dynamic qualities, as previous theorizing about other job attitudes has suggested (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012). While a large percent of the variance in POS is due to between-level factors, suggesting that POS has a stable quality, there is still a sizeable percentage that is due to within-person factors, which suggests that POS also has a dynamic quality. In addition, looking at the individual plots of POS across time (Figure 1), it is clear to see that POS does fluctuate to some degree in the short-term. Together, these results suggest that POS represents a rather stable global evaluation of the organization, though the daily experiences of employees can generate fluctuations in perceptions of support from their organization.

Second, the current study also considered the role of affect as related to POS. Although job attitudes have both cognitive and affective components, the majority of the research on POS has not focused on the affective component. Drawing from Affective Events Theory (AET) and integrating it with organizational support theory, I examined the extent to which events that employees experience at work elicit discrete emotions, which in turn influence POS. The results provide support for the model, particularly looking at the discrete emotions of anger and happiness. In particular, as affective events

are stronger and more positive, the levels of anger decrease and the levels of happiness increase. Furthermore, as levels of anger and happiness increase, POS decreases and increases, respectively. The pattern of results changes when examining the effect of affective events and discrete emotions on more distal POS the following morning. That is, there is a very small (almost nil) relationship between discrete emotions and POS when separated in time.

As a final investigation, I also examined the extent to which the relationship between discrete emotions and POS are dependent upon characteristics about the individual. More specifically, I explored the moderating role of socioemotional needs in the relationship between discrete emotions and POS. The results suggest that the relationship between discrete emotions and POS only depends on the strength of one of the four socioemotional needs – in particular, the need for esteem. Because this finding was robust across the two discrete emotions, it might seem as if esteem is important to the development and/or maintenance of POS. More specifically, as argued in the introduction, people high in the need for esteem may look proactively for cues as to whether or not their need for esteem is being met (which POS provides).

Theoretical Implications

The current study contributes to the literature in several ways. First, by considering the dynamic, within-person qualities of POS, the results from this study advance organizational support theory. More specifically, the results affirm previous theorizing that POS is a global evaluation of employees' organization; such a perspective suggests that POS is relatively stable. The results from the ICC(1) values suggest that approximately a little over three fourths of the variance in POS is between-person.

However, and more novel, the results also identify within-level factors as another sizeable source of variation in POS. That is, employees' perceptions of support from their organization fluctuate in the short-term. The implication for organizational support theory is that theoretically relevant antecedents of POS may influence POS very quickly on a day to day basis; however, the effects of such day to day fluctuations due to events does not seem to affect POS for long.

These results are fairly similar to those found in the job satisfaction literature. For example, past research suggests that one-third to one-half of variation in job satisfaction is within-person (e.g., Ilies & Judge 2002; Miner, et al., 2005; Weiss et al. 1999a). In the current study, about 15% of the variation in POS is due to within-person factors. The similarity in within-person variability across job satisfaction and POS is logical because both are rather global evaluations of an employee's work environment (i.e., one's job versus their organization). Consequently, it not surprising that a majority of the variation is between-person. It should be noted, however, that there is a sizeable percentage of variance in both job satisfaction and POS that is within-person and should not be ignored.

Future research can continue to advance organizational support theory by examining both predictors and outcomes of such within-person variation. While the current study examined affective events and discrete emotions as one set of predictors, other variables that are theoretically relevant antecedents of POS, such as momentary satisfaction with one's leader or perceptions of organizational justice, may also predict fluctuations in POS. In addition, to more holistically understand POS, it would be important to understand the outcome of such fluctuations. Because POS is based on a social exchange relationship (e.g., Eisenberger et al., 1986), it is likely that when

employees feel they are currently supported by their organization, they might be more willing to help a co-worker if asked, for example. Conversely, if an employee experiences an event that causes their POS to decrease, they may be more likely to shirk their duties or, as another example, cyber loaf.

It is also important to explore what types of events and experiences can cause larger fluctuations in POS (i.e., what causes POS to plummet or to skyrocket?) and which events cause more permanent changes. In the current study, although I found that POS fluctuates, the magnitude of the fluctuations was relatively small in nature (about a half a point on a 7-point scale). However, it is likely that participants did not experience any ‘shocking’ events in the 10-day period. While methodologically complicated, it would be informative and interesting to capture events that cause people who initially felt supported by the organization to feel unsupported, and vice versa.

Second, the current study advances organizational support theory by considering the role of affect. Although POS indicates caring and warmth from the organization, the extant literature has not directly investigated the relationship between affect and POS. Instead, previous research has examined the role of affect through the discussion of socioemotional need fulfillment, positive mood as an outcome of POS, and affective organizational commitment, which captures employees’ emotional bond and attachment to the organization (e.g., Armeli, et al., 1998; Rhoades, Eisenberger & Armeli, 2001). While these investigations have been crucial in understanding POS and its correlates, there has been a lack of studies attempting to understand how emotions, which are transient, may influence POS momentarily.

As such, the current study integrates organizational support theory with AET to begin to build a framework to understand how affect (discrete emotions, in particular) may influence POS in the short-term. The results support and extend the basic notion of AET (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) to include POS as an outcome. More specifically, the findings from the study suggest that events that employees experience at work elicit emotional reactions. Such emotional reactions are related to POS, as they likely provide pieces of information about the extent to which the organization supports its employees. These findings advance organizational support theory by demonstrating that affect, discrete, transient emotions specifically, is directly related to POS. The results underscore the importance of affect as it relates to POS. In addition, the results contribute to organizational support theory further, as well as to the above results, regarding fluctuations in POS by providing an explanation for the short-term variability in POS. More specifically, momentary changes in affect play a role in fluctuations of POS.

It is interesting to note that the magnitude of the relationship between anger and POS was larger than the relationship between happiness and POS. Previous research has shown that negative events and emotions have stronger implications than positive ones (Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Finkenauer, & Vohs, 2001; Taylor, 1991; Vaish, Grossman, & Woodward, 2008). Negative stimuli are thought to hold much more information and are processed more thoroughly than positive stimuli. In the current sample, the average participant felt relatively supported by their organization. It is likely that happiness was more of a ‘maintenance’ emotion; that is, for employees that already feel supported by their organization, happiness would signal to employees that they are continuing to feel

supported. Anger, on the other hand, would suggest that something is awry, and therefore may have more of an effect on POS.

It is also interesting that the relationship between discrete emotions and POS is very weak when POS is removed in time (i.e., the following morning). Moreover, the relationship between anger and POS is slightly positive when looking at ratings of POS made the following morning, which is the opposite of what theory would suggest. There are a few explanations for these findings. First, it is possible that POS is a global evaluation and any effects from discrete emotions are simply short-lived. For example, employees may temporarily get angry with a temporary decrease in POS but later consider the entire history of their treatment from the organization and consequently, their POS the next morning increases or rebounds. Second, employees may experience a subsequent event before the next morning that may change the emotions they feel and consequently, redeem their POS. Finally, employees may receive support in their non-work life that provides resources to deal with the events experienced during the day (Eby, Maher, & Butts, 2010).

Although not the focus of the current study, it is possible that POS and affect have a reciprocal, reinforcing relationship. That is, affect may provide information about the extent to which organizations are supportive, but feeling supported (or not) may make employees feel good (or bad), thereby reinforcing those feelings of support (or lack thereof). Because the current study is one of the first to investigate affect directly, organizational support theory would benefit from future research aimed at understanding the relationship between affect and POS further.

There are some findings from the current study that warrant additional discussion. For example, the mediation results provide evidence of partial mediation, which suggests that other variables could serve as mediators in the affective events – POS relationship. It is possible that other discrete emotions, such as sadness, may be other predictors. While I chose to focus specifically on happiness and anger, the range of emotions elicited by affective events may be larger than what the current study captured. In addition, as mentioned previously, constructs like organizational justice may not only be a predictor of within-person variation in POS, but also an outcome of affective events. It is likely that the events that employees experience at work signal whether employees are being treated fairly at work. Fair practices have been shown to be related to POS (e.g., Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Furthermore, Dalal et al. (2009) suggest that organizational justice is another job attitude which may be more suitably approached with a within-person design.

In addition, the partial support for Hypothesis 4 (the moderating role of socioemotional needs) is worth mentioning. More specifically, only one (the need for esteem) of the four socioemotional needs was a significant cross level moderator of the discrete emotions – POS relationship. One explanation for these findings could be that the events that employees experience most frequently or pay the most attention to are ones that convey praise and recognition, which is important to the need for esteem (e.g., Armeli et al., 1998). From the qualitative data, it seems as if most of the events that participants described dealt with interactions and the completion (or lack thereof) of tasks. It is likely that these events can signal praise and recognition. Perhaps events that convey emotional support and affiliation are less frequent. Or, a single event may and

their associated emotional reactions not provide enough information about emotional support and affiliation; that is, these needs may only be fulfilled by looking across a conglomerate of events.

The lack of full support for Hypothesis 4 also raises questions that future research could answer. In particular, perhaps people with higher socioemotional needs do not necessarily use their emotions as cues for whether their needs are filled; or, their needs may be fulfilled, but it does not mean that emotions related more strongly to POS. It may be likely that more event-specific information, like a positive or negative interaction with a co-worker or a supervisor or receiving a raise or promotion, would provide more context to the fulfillment of socioemotional needs. I ran this potential explanation as an additional analysis and the pattern of results is similar to what was found in the main analyses; that is, the need for esteem was a significant cross-level moderator, but not the need for approval, emotional support nor affiliation. It is likely that the explanations provided in the previous paragraph regarding why the need for esteem would moderate the discrete emotions – POS relationship hold for the affective events – POS relationship as well. That is, perhaps most of the daily, commonplace events that employees experience are mostly related to praise and recognition. Nonetheless, the results regarding the moderating role of socioemotional needs provides a contribution to organizational support theory as well. While previous theorizing has discussed the importance of socioemotional needs in relation to POS (e.g., Armeli et al., 1998), the current results suggest that in the context of affective events, that the need for esteem is most influential and provides a boundary condition on the relationship between discrete emotions and POS.

To further advance organizational support theory, it would also be fruitful to explore additional individual-level factors that could moderate the discrete emotion – POS relationship. For example, emotional intelligence may help to explain variation in the relationship between discrete emotions and POS. Emotional intelligence captures, in part, the extent to which people are aware of their own emotions and can express and regulate them (Schutte et al., 1998). In other words, people high in emotional intelligence are more in tune with their emotions. The feelings-as-information theory argues that emotions provide information about one's environment (Schwarz, 2011). Thus, people who are more aware of their emotions may be more apt to use their emotions as information - in the current context, about how supportive their organization is. As such, I would argue that the relationship between discrete emotions and POS would be stronger (i.e., more positive or more negative) when emotional intelligence is high.

Practical Implications

In addition to the theoretical implications, the current study also offers practical implications. More specifically, the results of the study may suggest that, once employees develop POS, it may be difficult to change. The sample in the current study had been with their organization, on average, for a little over 4 years. Thus, it is probable that they have already developed and stabilized perceptions of the extent to which the organization supports them. Consequently, the fluctuations that occur on a daily basis are relatively small in magnitude and centered around their baseline POS. This highlights the importance of creating a positive experience for prospective employees during the recruitment and onboarding process of new hires. More specifically, employees may develop anticipatory evaluations of how supportive the organization is during the

recruitment process. Providing clear and prompt communication about the recruitment process and highlighting supportive practices and policies, for example, may convey support to prospective employees. In addition, during the socialization process, organizations may foster POS among new hires by providing training, support from their co-workers and supervisors, and clarifying roles (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). The magnitude of fluctuations in POS may be larger as they become socialized to the organization (that is, POS may be more malleable). However, if organizations can create a positive experience soon after organizational entry, employees' POS will be higher once it stabilizes, and therefore daily fluctuations should hover around the baseline level.

Future research, however, is needed to fully understand the above arguments. First, it would be necessary to understand how long after entering the organization it takes for POS to develop and become relatively stable. This time period may be different depending on the person because of individual differences, such as tolerance for ambiguity or information-seeking behaviors. For example, people high in tolerance for ambiguity might feel more comfortable with the fact that they do not have an excess of information about the organization, and therefore POS could be relatively stable from organizational entry. On the other hand, people low in tolerance for ambiguity may feel that they are not being supported if they are not given the information they deem necessary for both formal and informal means. In addition, it may also vary across organizations, depending on the type and quality of socialization tactics and practices. For instance, if organizations haphazardly put together their socialization process, new organizational members are likely to not have complete and/or accurate information to base their evaluations about support on. In addition, tactics that are more collective (i.e.,

involve other newcomers), as opposed to individual tactics which tend to be isolating, may increase newcomers' perceptions of support from the organization. Investigating the duration and substance of this period would be a crucial piece of information as organizations work to put together an onboarding process that fosters POS.

Second, once employees develop POS, it would be beneficial to understand what types of events cause large fluctuations or more permanent changes. It is likely that more commonplace events, such as interactions with co-workers for frustrations with technology, are not strong enough to shifts in perceptions of support on a large scale, nor lasting changes in the attitude. However, getting a promotion, experiencing a leadership change, or working through a merger/acquisition may cause sharp increases and decreases in POS that may be more permanent. That is, they are 'shocks' to an employees' environment. Because these events are rare, it is likely that the 10-day duration of the current study was too short (or improperly timed) to capture such events. However, understanding which events cause larger fluctuations (in either direction) would help practitioners to better manage such events and employees' perceptions associated with them.

Limitations

As with any study, there are several limitations. First, the small sample size presents potential issues when interpreting the results of the measurement equivalence/invariance analyses. Lance and Vandenberg (2000) suggest that some of the more traditional goodness-of-fit indices are susceptible to small samples sizes. While a sample size of 56 is adequate to detect effects in multilevel modeling, relatively speaking, it is not large when conducting confirmatory factor analyses. Similarly, some of the

goodness-of-fit statistics for the measurement equivalence analyses were slightly above or below traditional cutoff guidelines. In addition, a lack of variance on the anger variable prevented convergence in the measurement equivalence/invariance analyses regarding anger. As such, one should consider the small sample size when drawing conclusions from the ME/I analyses.

In addition, the method of recruitment and data collection represents both a weakness as well as a strength of the current study. Using a snowball sample and social media as a recruitment tool has its benefits; it facilitates the recruitment process and promotes a relatively diverse sample in terms of the organizations and occupations/industries represented. However, one noted disadvantage of snowball sampling is that people tend to refer friends that are similar to them (e.g., in terms of gender, race/ethnicity, etc.). The current sample is predominantly female and mostly white; thus, it raises concerns about the generalizability of the results, as females may experience emotions different from males and both females and minorities may experience different, more powerful events (e.g., based on biases, stereotypes) than whites and males. It is important to reiterate, however, that there are no significant differences on the focal variables based on race and gender in the current study. In addition, participants self-selected into the study. Therefore, they may be more prosocial or more research-minded, which may have influenced their experience with the study.

Finally, although the automated nature of the data collection facilitated data management and analysis, it automatically restricted the sample to participants. That is, to be eligible for the study, participants must have a) had access to the internet and b) had jobs where accessing the internet during work hours was acceptable. It is possible that

certain jobs and industries (e.g., construction workers or factory workers) were screened out due to the nature of the data collection. Again, this raises questions about the generalizability of the sample. Nonetheless, the sample in the current study is fairly representative of a professional working population (e.g., slightly more educated than the general population).

Conclusion

The current study addressed two prominent gaps in the literature on POS; mainly, it investigated the dynamic and affective components of POS. The results suggest that while POS is a relatively stable job attitude, there is some within-person variation. In addition, that within-person variation can be explained by discrete emotions that employees experience in response to workplace events. The findings also suggest that the relationship between discrete emotions and POS depends on the strength of only the need for esteem, and not other socioemotional needs. The current study sets the stage for future research to examine additional predictors and outcomes of within-person variation in POS as well as conditions and experiences that cause intense declines or increases in POS. Such information is useful for practitioners and organizations as they continue to develop ways to foster POS amongst their employees.

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Table 1. Results of Measurement Equivalence/Invariance Analyses for Perceived Organizational Support at Time 1 v. Time 30

Model	<i>df</i>	χ^2	RMSEA	CFI	Δdf	$\Delta\chi^2$
1. Configural Invariance	47	73.47	0.14	0.95		
2. Metric Invariance	52	78.47	0.13	0.95		
1 vs. 2					5	5.00
3. Scalar Invariance	57	83.27	0.12	0.95		
2 vs. 3					5	4.81
4. Invariant Uniquenesses	58	83.46	0.12	0.96		
3 vs. 4					1	0.19

Note. $N = 56$.

Table 2. Results of Measurement Equivalence/Invariance Analyses for Happiness at Time 1 v. Time 30

Model	<i>df</i>	χ^2	RMSEA	CFI	Δdf	$\Delta\chi^2$
1. Configural Invariance	29	30.34	0.04	1.00		
2. Metric Invariance	33	34.15	0.03	1.00		
1 vs. 2					4	3.81
3. Scalar Invariance	37	36.88	0.00	1.00		
2 vs. 3					4	2.73
4. Invariant Uniquenesses	38	43.11	0.07	0.99		
3 vs. 4					1	6.23*

Note. $N = 56$. * $p < .01$

Table 3. Means, Standard Deviations and Intercorrelations of Between-Person (Level 2) Variables

	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.
1. Need for Emotional Support	4.86	1.41							
2. Need for Approval	3.01	1.01	0.23						
3. Need for Esteem	2.94	1.24	0.20	0.32*					
4. Need for Affiliation	5.20	1.22	0.40**	-0.05	0.03				
5. Positive Affectivity	3.39	0.63	-0.08	0.14	-0.02	-0.13			
6. Negative Affectivity	1.50	0.32	0.07	0.22	0.28*	0.09	-0.30*		
7. Locus of Control	2.22	0.49	0.07	0.30*	0.07	0.07	-0.06	0.30*	
8. Baseline POS	5.10	1.27	-0.13	-0.17	-0.03	-0.33*	0.33*	-0.23	-0.30*

Note. $N = 56$. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

Table 4. Means, Standard Deviations and Intercorrelations of Within-Person (Level 1) Variables on the Full Dataset

	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.
1. Event Impact	2.87	0.90							
2. Org Control	2.73	1.08	-0.01						
3. POS	4.83	1.40	0.23**	0.14**					
4. Anger	1.23	0.47	-0.54**	0.08*	-0.37**				
5. Happiness	2.55	1.11	0.56**	-0.05	0.36**	-0.34**			
6. Next Morning POS	4.88	1.31	0.11**	0.16**	0.90**	-0.26**	0.31**		
7. Work Status - Home	0.05	0.22	-0.06	0.03	0.09*	0.01	0.01	0.05	
8. Work Status - Took off	0.06	0.24	0.03	-0.08*	-0.11**	-0.03	0.03	-0.04	-0.06

Note. N = 56. Number of observations for pairwise correlations range from 872 to 1070. The correlations with next morning POS are based on 820 observations. * $p < .05$; * $p < .01$.; Work from Home Status was dummy coded; working in the office was the reference group.

Table 5. Means, Standard Deviations and Intercorrelations of Within-Person (Level 1) Variables with Discretionary Events Only

	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.
1. Event Impact	2.87	0.90						
2. Org Control	3.48	0.50	-0.01					
3. POS	4.97	1.31	0.45*	-0.01				
4. Anger	1.25	0.50	-0.60*	0.10*	-0.53*			
5. Happiness	2.51	1.11	0.58*	0.01	0.51*	-0.36*		
6. Next Morning POS	5.04	1.18	0.32*	0.02	0.87*	-0.38*	0.47*	
7. Work Status - Home	0.05	0.23	-0.06	-0.03	0.04	0.03	0.00	0.02

Note. $N = 54$. Number of observations for pairwise correlations range from 539 to 541. Correlations with next morning POS are based on 439 observations. * $p \leq .01$. Work Status was dummy coded; 1 = working from home; 0 = working in the office.

Table 6. Means, Standard Deviations and Intercorrelations between Baseline Perceived Organizational Support and Perceived Organizational Support at Selected Time points

	Mean	SD	Baseline	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T14	T15	T16	T17	T25	T26	T27	T28	T29
Baseline	5.10	1.27															
Time 1	5.06	1.25	0.86														
Time 2	4.88	1.07	0.78	0.83													
Time 3	4.80	1.37	0.85	0.85	0.88												
Time 4	4.93	1.28	0.80	0.76	0.76	0.85											
Time 5	4.80	1.27	0.78	0.73	0.80	0.73	0.83										
Time 14	5.00	1.36	0.81	0.81	0.77	0.73	0.77	0.88									
Time 15	5.03	1.52	0.79	0.86	0.80	0.73	0.73	0.79	0.93								
Time 16	4.76	1.31	0.83	0.86	0.78	0.76	0.74	0.84	0.96	0.96							
Time 17	4.92	1.35	0.84	0.86	0.74	0.77	0.75	0.70	0.88	0.89	0.93						
Time 25	4.77	1.40	0.82	0.87	0.80	0.77	0.77	0.78	0.97	0.93	0.97	0.96					
Time 26	4.74	1.63	0.72	0.72	0.70	0.71	0.77	0.71	0.78	0.73	0.78	0.85	0.91				
Time 27	4.84	1.47	0.80	0.77	0.76	0.75	0.83	0.83	0.94	0.86	0.90	0.89	0.96	0.92			
Time 28	4.95	1.34	0.79	0.81	0.76	0.79	0.76	0.76	0.91	0.91	0.93	0.91	0.97	0.89	0.98		
Time 29	4.88	1.49	0.86	0.86	0.80	0.80	0.90	0.85	0.87	0.87	0.91	0.92	0.91	0.77	0.88	0.91	
Time 30	4.89	1.55	0.88	0.85	0.80	0.79	0.87	0.70	0.95	0.85	0.87	0.87	0.94	0.91	0.97	0.95	0.89

Note. *N* for each correlation ranges from 27 to 50; All correlations are significant at $p < .01$

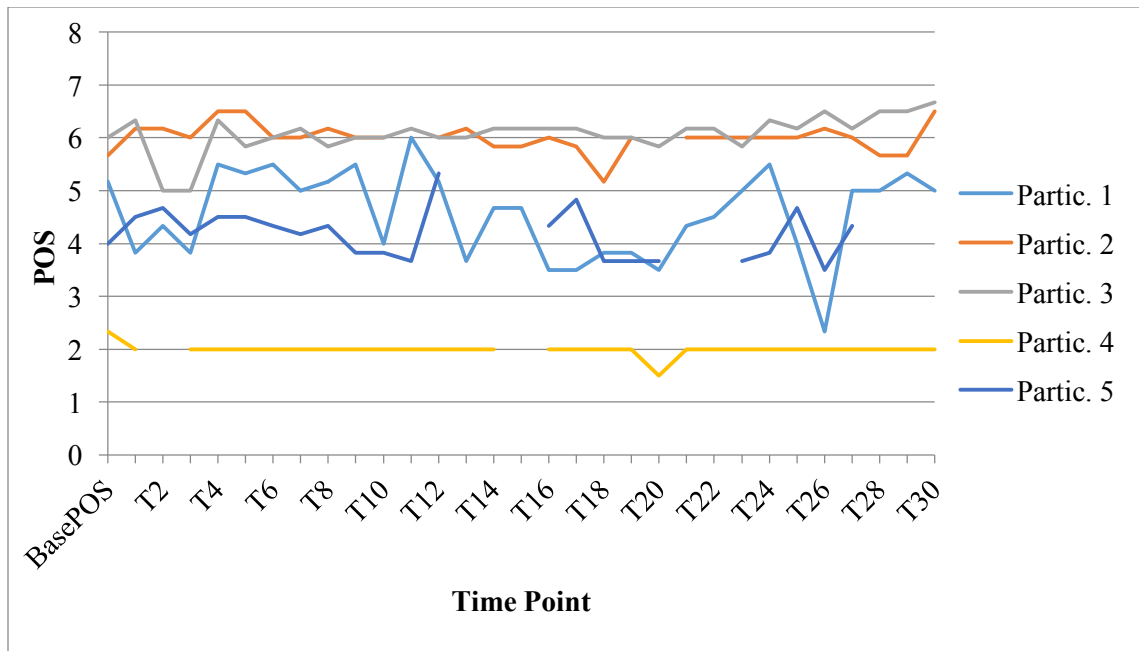


Figure 1. Plot of the variability of perceived organizational support across time points for a random sample of five participants

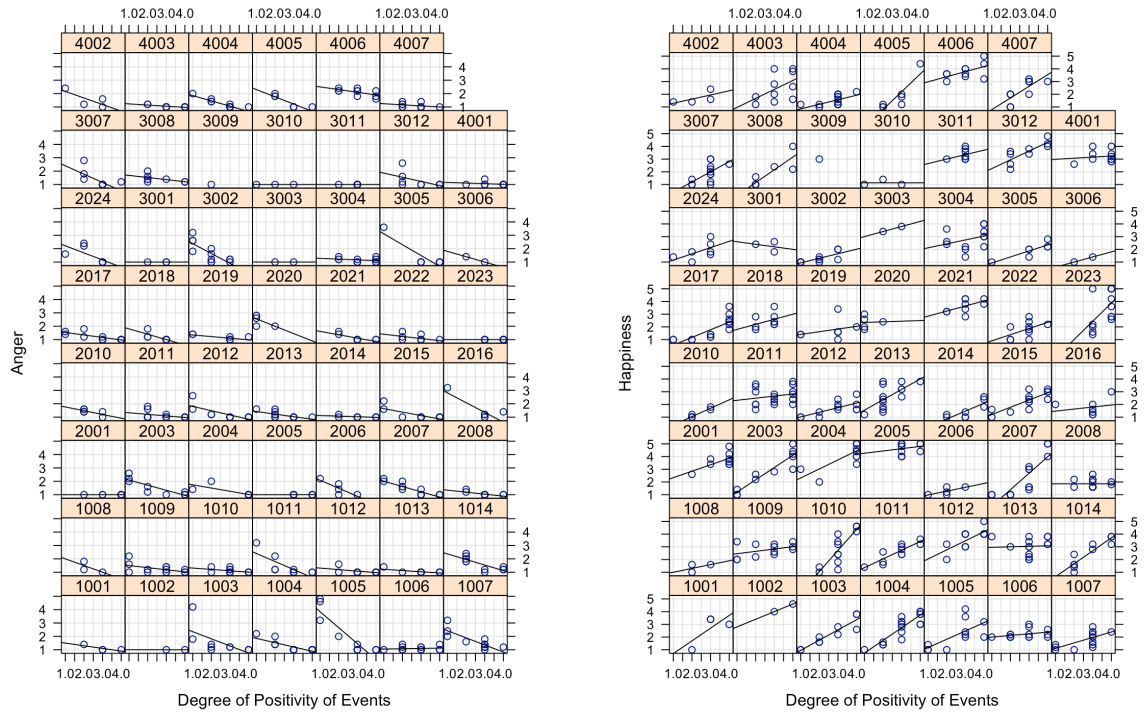


Figure 2. Variation in slopes showing the relationship between the degree of positivity of affective events and emotions (anger on the left and happiness on the right).

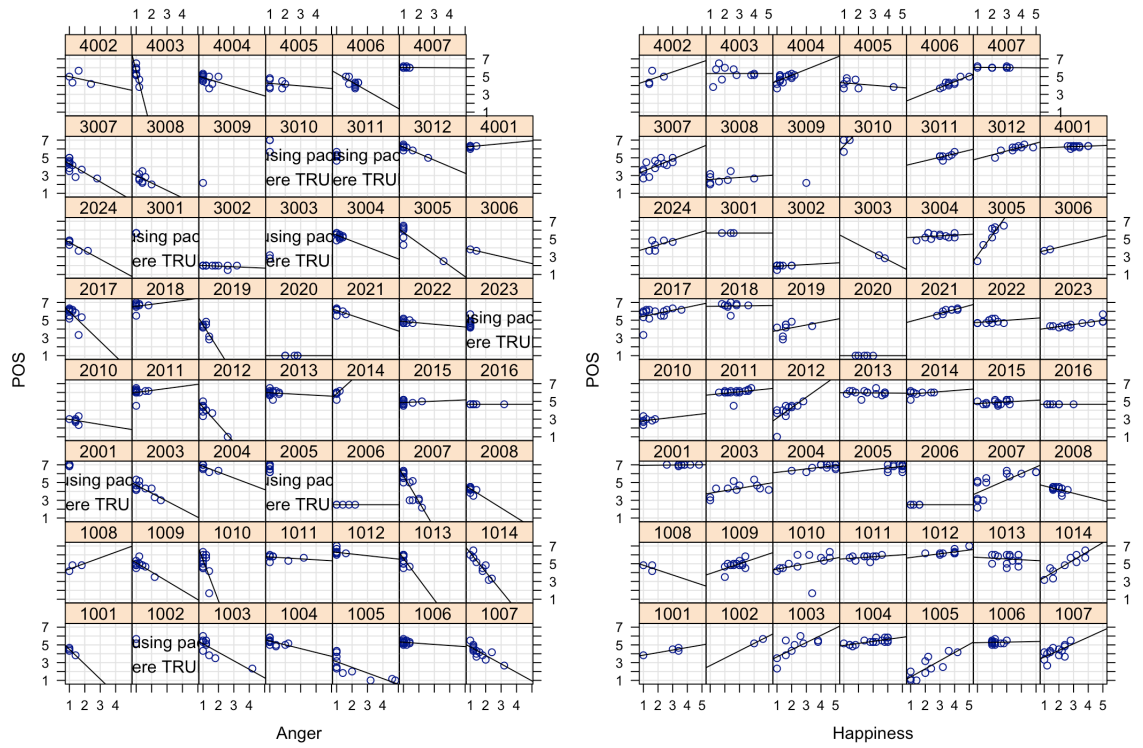


Figure 3. Variation in slopes between the discrete emotions and POS (anger on the left and happiness on the right).

Level 2: Between-person

Level 1: Within-person

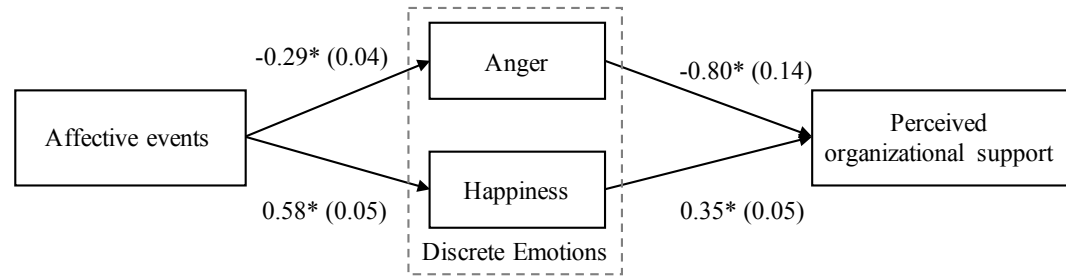


Figure 4. Results of Hypotheses 2-3 (the relationship between affective events, emotions, and perceived organizational support). $N = 54$. * $p < .01$; Standard errors are presented in parentheses. Positive and negative affectivity, locus of control, and whether participants worked from home were included as controls. All relationships with control variables were not significant except positive affectivity was significantly related to happiness ($b = .42$), locus of control was significantly related to anger ($b = .92$), and positive affectivity was significantly related to POS ($b = .68$).

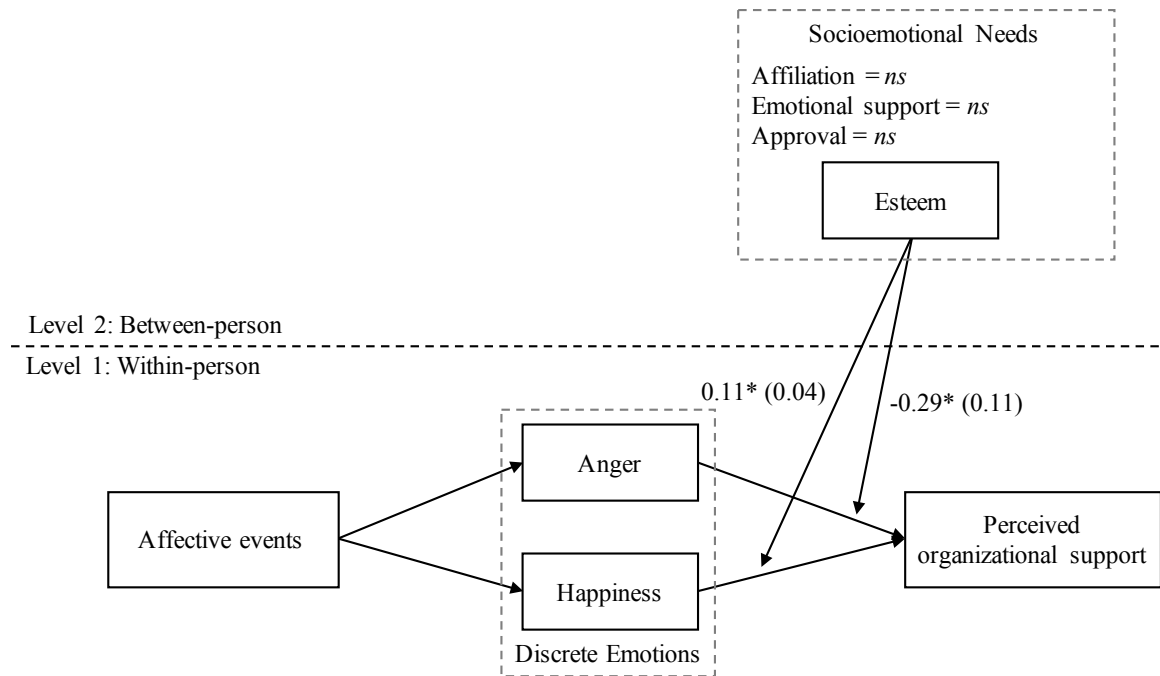


Figure 5. Results of Hypothesis 4 (moderation of socioemotional needs on the discrete emotion to POS relationships). $N = 54$. * $p < .01$; Standard errors are presented in parentheses. Predictors were group mean centered. Positive and negative affectivity, locus of control, and whether participants worked from home were included as controls. All relationships with control variables were not significant except positive affectivity was significantly related to POS with need for esteem as a moderator ($b = .6$) in the anger model.

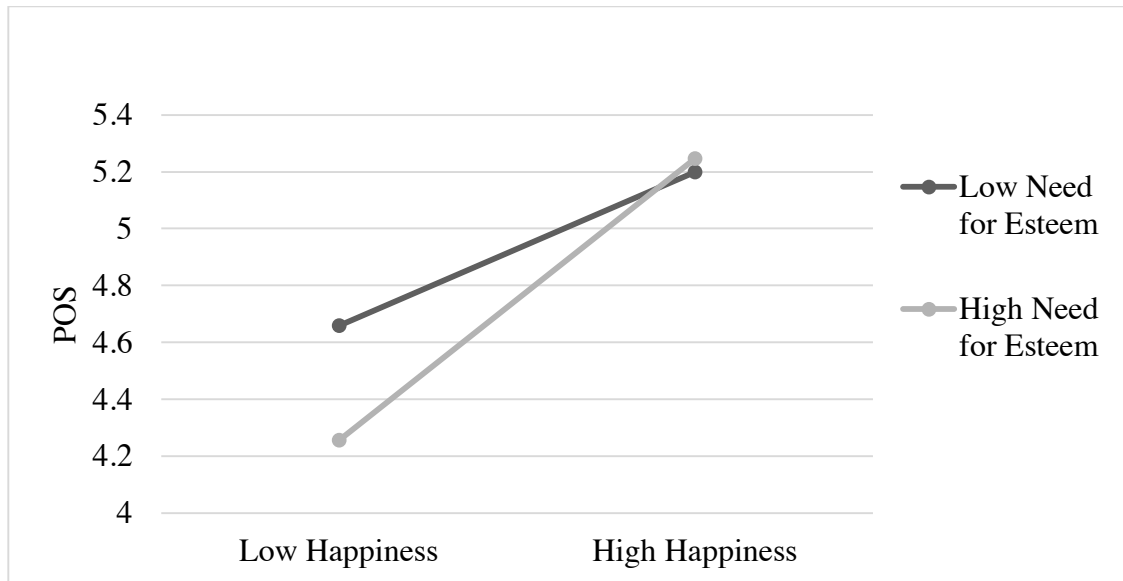


Figure 6. Plot of the cross-level interaction between happiness and the need for esteem on POS.

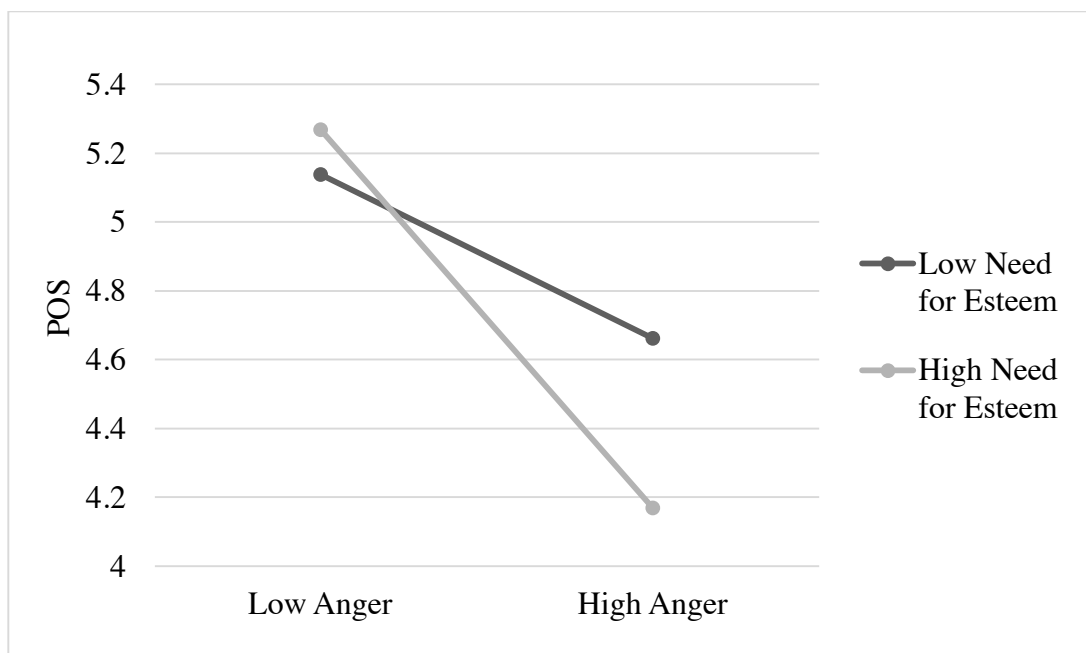


Figure 7. Plot of the cross-level interaction between anger and the need for esteem on POS.

Level 2: Between-person

Level 1: Within-person

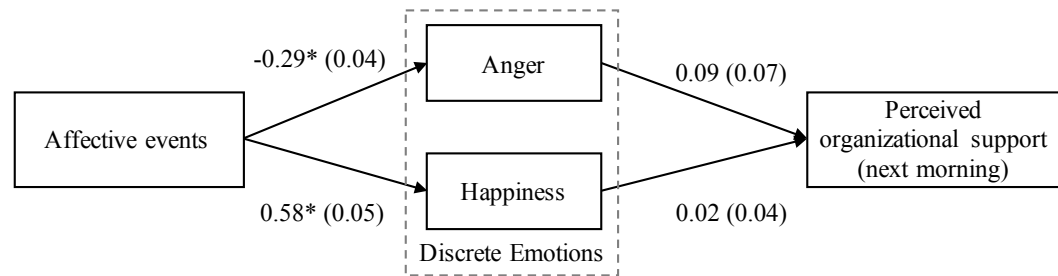


Figure 8. Results of additional analyses using affective events and discrete emotions and perceived organizational support the following morning. $N = 54$; $* p < .05$; $** p < .01$; Standard errors are presented in parentheses. Positive and negative affectivity, locus of control, and whether participants worked from home were included as controls. All relationships with control variables were not significant except positive affectivity was significantly related to happiness ($b = .42$), negative locus of control was significantly related to anger ($b = .92$), and positive affectivity was significantly related to POS ($b = .39$ in the anger model; $b = .37$ in the happiness model).

Level 2: Between-person

Level 1: Within-person

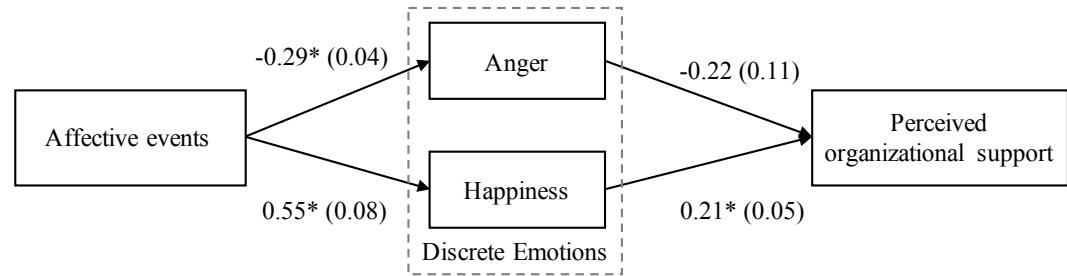


Figure 9. Results of additional analyses using affective events and discrete emotions at midday and perceived organizational support at the end of the day. $N = 54$; $*p < .01$; Standard errors are presented in parentheses. Positive and negative affectivity, locus of control, and whether participants worked from home were included as controls. All relationships with control variables were not significant except positive affectivity was related to happiness ($b = .55$) and to happiness ($b = .51$).

APPENDIX A: TRAINING MATERIALS

Thank you for agreeing to participate in the Work Experiences study! This document contains all of the information that you'll need to take part in the study. Please read it carefully. Should you have any additional questions or experience any technical difficulties, please contact Haley Woznyj at hmyers11@uncc.edu.

Your participant ID number is:

0000

Please keep this number handy – you will be asked to enter it at the beginning of each survey

First, let's go over the purpose of the study:

There's a lot of research out there on the various behaviors and attitudes of employees, but there's still a lot that we don't know. The purpose of this study is to understand employees' experiences at work more in-depth. The best way to understand employees' experiences is to ask about them as they happen! We've designed this study in such a way to capture the events that you experience while at work in 'real time' to understand a) what types of events you experience and b) the influence they have on you.

Next, below are more specific details about the data collection process:

Question	Answer
1. When will the study begin?	The study will start on [insert start date here] . The last day of the survey will be on [insert end date here] .
2. How do I participate?	<p>You will receive an email that contains a link to a survey <i>three times per day</i> for two weeks (you will not receive an email on the weekends)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ The first email will be sent around 8am ▪ The second email will be sent around 12pm ▪ The third email will be sent around 4pm <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ <i>Note:</i> the link to each survey will expire <i>2 hours</i> after it is sent – please try to complete the survey within that time period <p><i>You will also receive text message reminders prompting you to check your email.</i></p>

3. How do I access and fill out the survey?	<p>The email will be sent to you <i>via email</i>. You can take the survey on the computer or on your mobile device/tablet</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Click here to view a video on how to access and fill out the survey from the link in your email. <p>The email will come from hmyers11@uncc.edu. Please make sure this address is in your contacts so the emails don't go to your spam folder.</p>
4. How long will the survey take?	<p>Each survey will take approximately 5-10 minutes or less to complete.</p>
5. What will I be asked in the surveys?	<p>In the <i>morning</i>, you will be asked about your attitudes toward the organization as well as your current feelings.</p> <p>At <i>midday</i> and in the <i>evening</i>, you will be asked to describe a notable event (see next question) that you experienced during your workday, as well as your attitudes toward the organization and your current feelings.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ The question about the event you experienced will be open ended. Please use as much detail as necessary to describe the event adequately. At least 1-2 sentences should do the trick ▪ To ensure anonymity of you and your coworkers, please try to avoid using names when describing your events. If it's necessary to use names to accurately describe your event, remember to use pseudonyms. <p>If you leave a question blank, it will ask you if you would like to answer the question or continue on without answering. You may have to scroll up on the survey to see this. It's okay to leave a question blank if you can't answer it, but we just want to make sure you didn't do it by mistake!</p>
6. What do you mean by an 'event'?	<p>An event is <i>anything that changes what you are currently experiencing</i>.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ This is a broad definition - you might only recall the events that made you feel strongly at work and that's okay <p>Here are some examples of events that you might experience and describe in the survey:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Attaining a goal (e.g., meeting a deadline, having a successful presentation) ▪ Receiving praise or recognition from supervisors or co-workers ▪ Experiencing obstacles in completing tasks or missing a deadline ▪ Conflicts with co-workers or supervisors ▪ Communication issues

-
- Technical difficulties
 - Ambiguity about tasks
-

7. When will I know when the study is over?

We'll send you a confirmation email when the two weeks is up.

After the *first week*, we will notify the 4 winners of the random drawing for a \$25 Amazon gift card drawing.

After the *second week*, we will notify the 4 winners of the second random drawing for a \$25 Amazon gift card drawing. In addition, we will also notify the winner of the random drawing for a \$75 Amazon gift card for those participants who completed at least 21 of the 30 surveys (70%).

APPENDIX B: SURVEY ITEMS

BASELINE SURVEY**Demographics**

VarName: EmployStat

Question: What is your current employment status?

- 1 = Employed full time
- 2 = Employed part time
- 3 = Unemployed looking for work
- 4 = Unemployed not looking for work
- 5 = Retired
- 6 = Student (not employed)
- 7 = Disabled
- 8 = Homemaker
- 9 = Military

VarName: WFH

Question: Do you work from home more than 50% of the time?

- 1 = Yes
- 2 = No

VarName: CompAccess

Question: Do you have access to a computer or mobile phone/tablet while at work?

- 1 = Yes
- 2 = No

VarName: WrkHrs

Question: What are your typical work hours (e.g., 9-5; 11-4; it depends on the day)

VarName:

Question: Which category best describes your race? (One or more categories may be marked)

- American Indian/Alaska Native (Race_1)
- Asian (Race_2)
- Black or African American (Race_3)
- Latino/a or Hispanic (Race_4)
- Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander (Race_5)
- White (Race_6)
- Other (Race_7)
- Prefer not to answer (Race_8)

VarName: Edu

Question: What is the highest level of education you have completed?

- 1 = Less than High School
- 2 = High School / GED
- 3 = Some College
- 4 = 2-year College Degree
- 5 = 4-year College Degree
- 6 = Masters Degree
- 7 = Doctoral Degree
- 8 = Professional Degree (JD, MD)

VarName: Salary

Question: What is your annual salary range?

- 1 = Below \$20,000
- 2 = \$20,000 - \$29,999
- 3 = \$30,000 - \$39,999
- 4 = \$40,000 - \$49,999
- 5 = \$50,000 - \$59,999
- 6 = \$60,000 - \$69,999
- 7 = \$70,000 - \$79,999
- 8 = \$80,000 - \$89,999
- 9 = \$90,000 or more
- 10 = prefer not to answer

VarName: Gender

Question: What is your gender?

- 1 = Male
- 2 = Female
- 3 = Other/Transgender

VarName: Age

Question: What is your age?

Response: open-ended

VarName: ESL

Question: Is English your native language?

- 1 = Yes
- 2 = No

VarName: JobTitle

Question: Which of the following most closely matches your job title?

- 1 = Intern
- 2 = Entry Level
- 3 = Analyst / Associate
- 4 = Manager
- 5 = Senior Manager

- 6 = Director
- 7 = Vice President
- 8 = Senior Vice President
- 9 = C level executive (CIO, CTO, COO, CMO, Etc)
- 10 = President or CEO
- 11 = Owner

VarName: Industry

Question: Which industry do you currently work in?

<i>Response Option</i>	<i>Label</i>
• Accommodation and Food Services	1
• Administrative and Support Services	2
• Agriculture, Forestry, Fishing and Hunting	3
• Arts, Entertainment, and Recreation	4
• Construction	5
• Educational Services	6
• Finance and Insurance	7
• Government	8
• Health Care and Social Assistance	9
• Information	10
• Management of Companies and Enterprises	11
• Manufacturing	12
• Mining, Quarrying, and Oil and Gas Extraction	13
• Other Services (Except Public Administration)	14
• Professional, Scientific, and Technical Services	15
• Real Estate and Rental and Leasing	16
• Retail Trade	17
• Self-Employed	18
• Transportation and Warehousing	19
• Utilities	20
• Wholesale Trade	21

*From O*NET's industry classification

VarName: Occupation

Question: Which career cluster (occupation) do you currently work in?

<i>Response Option</i>	<i>Label</i>
• Agriculture, Food and Natural Resources	1
• Architecture and Construction	2
• Arts, Audio/Video Technology & Communications	3
• Business, Management and Administration	4
• Education and Training	5
• Finance	6
• Government and Public Administration	7

• Health Science	8
• Hospitality and Tourism	9
• Human Services	10
• Information Technology	11
• Law, Public Safety, Corrections and Security	12
• Manufacturing	13
• Marketing, Sales and Service	14
• Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics	15
• Transportation, Distribution and Logistics	16

*From O*NET's occupation classification

VarName: Tenure

Question: How many **years** have you worked in your current organization?

Response: open ended

VarName: HrsWorked

Question: How many hours per week do you work on average?

Response: open ended

VarName: HrsRequired

Question: How many hours are you required to work per week?

Response: open-ended

Perceived Organizational Support

Scale: Perceived Organizational Support

Citation: Eisenberger, R., Huntington, R., Hutchison, S., & Sowa, D. (1986). Perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71, 500-507.

Instructions: Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements about your work organization in general:

Response Scale:

Value	Anchor
1	Strongly disagree
2	Disagree
3	Somewhat disagree
4	Neither agree nor disagree
5	Somewhat agree
6	Agree
7	Strongly agree

Items:

Item	Item Name
1. My organization really cares about my well-being.	POS_1
2. My organization values my contributions to its well-being.	POS_2
3. My organization is willing to help me when I need a special favor.	POS_3
4. My organization shows little concern for me. (*REVERSE*)	POS_4
5. My organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work.	POS_5
6. My organization strongly considers my goals and values.	POS_6

Positive/Negative Affectivity

Scale: PANAS

Citation: Watson, D., Clark, L. A., & Tellegen, A. (1988). Development and validation of brief measures of positive and negative affect: the PANAS scale. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 54, 1063-1070.

Instructions: The following words describe different feelings and emotions. Next to each item, indicate to what extent you feel this way on a typical day.

Response Scale:

Value	Anchor
1	Very slightly or not at all
2	A little
3	Moderately
4	Quite a bit
5	Extremely

Items:

POSITIVE MOOD	
Item	Item Name
1. Interested	PA1
2. Alert	PA2
3. Excited	PA3
4. Inspired	PA4
5. Strong	PA5
6. Determined	PA6
7. Attentive	PA7
8. Enthusiastic	PA8
9. Active	PA9
10. Proud	PA10

NEGATIVE MOOD	
Item	Item Name
11. Irritable	NA1
12. Distracted	NA2
13. Upset	NA3
14. Jittery	NA4
15. Scared	NA5
16. Ashamed	NA6
17. Hostile	NA7
18. Afraid	NA8
19. Guilty	NA9
20. Nervous	NA10

Organizational Commitment

Scale:

Citation: Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1997). *Commitment in the workplace: Theory, research, and application*. Thousand Oaks, CA, US: Sage Publications, Inc.

Instructions: Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements about your work organization in general:

Response Scale:

Value	Anchor
1	Strongly disagree
2	Disagree
3	Neither agree nor disagree
4	Agree
5	Strongly agree

Items:

Item	Item Name
1. I feel strong sense of belonging to my organization	OrgComm_1
2. I feel personally attached to my work organization	OrgComm_2
3. I am proud to tell others I work at my organization	OrgComm_3
4. Working at my organization has a great deal of personal meaning to me	OrgComm_4
5. I would be happy to work at organization until I retire	OrgComm_5
6. I really feel that problems face by my organization are also my problems	OrgComm_6

Intent to Quit

Scale: Intent to Quit

Original Citation: Parra, L. F. (1995). Development of an intention to quit scale. Unpublished manuscript, Bowling Green State University.

Published in: Rogelberg, S.G., Leach, D.J., Warr, P.B., Burnfield, J.L. (2006). "Not another meeting!" Are meeting time demands related to employee well-being? *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91, 86-96. doi: 10.1037/0021-9010.91.1.83

Instructions: Indicate your level of agreement with the following statements.

Response Scale:

Value	Anchor
1	Strongly disagree
2	Disagree
3	Neither agree nor disagree
4	Agree
5	Strongly agree

Items:

Item	Item Name
1. I may look for another job soon.	ITQ_1
2. I often think of quitting my job.	ITQ_2

<http://inn.theorizeit.org/Details/Variable/85438>

Leiter, Michael, Arla Day, and Debra Gilin Oore (2011), "The Impact of Civility Interventions on Employee Social Behavior, Distress, and Attitudes.", *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 96, 1258–1274.

Job Satisfaction

Scale:

Citation:

Instructions:

Response Scale:

Value	Anchor
1	Very dissatisfied
2	Dissatisfied
3	Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied
4	Satisfied
5	Very satisfied

Items:

Item	Item Name
1. Overall, how satisfied are you with your job?	JobSat

Socioemotional Needs

Scale:

Original Citation: Hill, C. A. (1987). Affiliation motivation: People who need people . . . but in different ways. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 52, 1008-1018.

Martin, H. J. (1984). A revised measure of approval motivation and its relationship to social desirability. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 48, 508-519.

Published in: Armeli, Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Lynch (1998). Perceived Organizational Support and Police Performance: The Moderating Influence of Socioemotional Needs. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83(2), 288-297.

Instructions: Indicate your level of agreement with the following statements about yourself in general.

Response Scale:

Value	Anchor
1	Strongly disagree
2	Disagree
3	Slightly disagree
4	Neither agree nor disagree
5	Slightly agree
6	Agree
7	Strongly agree

Items:

Item	Item Name
<i>Need for Emotional Support</i>	
1. One of my greatest sources of comfort when things get rough is being with other people.	EmoSupport1
2. When I feel unhappy or kind of depressed, I usually try to be around other people who make me feel better.	EmoSupport2
3. It seems like whenever something bad or disturbing happens to me I often just want to be with a close, reliable friend	EmoSupport3
4. During times when I have to go through something painful, I usually find that having someone with me makes it less painful.	EmoSupport4
5. When I have not done very well on something that is very important to me, I can get to feeling better simply by being around other people.	EmoSupport5
6. I usually have the greatest need to have other people around me when I feel upset about something.	EmoSupport6

<i>Need for Approval</i>	
7. I am willing to argue only if I know that my friends will back me up.	Approval1
8. In order to get along and be liked, I tend to be what people expect me to be.	Approval2
9. I find it difficult to talk about my ideas if they are contrary to group opinion.	Approval3
10. I change my opinion (or the way that I do things) in order to please someone else.	Approval4
11. I am careful at parties and social gatherings for fear that I will do or say things that others won't like.	Approval5
<i>Need for Esteem</i>	
12. I often have a strong need to be around people who are impressed with what I am and what I do.	Esteem1
13. I mainly like to be around others who think I am an important, exciting person.	Esteem2
14. I like to be around people when I am the center of attention.	Esteem3
15. I often have a strong desire to get people I am around to notice me and appreciate what I am like.	Esteem4
16. I mainly like people who seem strongly drawn to me and who seem infatuated with me.	Esteem5
17. I don't like being with people who may give me less than positive feedback about myself.	Esteem6
<i>Need for Affiliation</i>	
18. One of the most enjoyable things I can think of that I like to do is just watching people and seeing what they are like.	Affiliation1
19. I think being close to others, listening to them, and relating to them on a one-to-one level is one of my favorite and most satisfying pastimes.	Affiliation2
20. Just being around others and finding out about them is one of the most interesting things I can think of doing.	Affiliation3
21. I feel like I have really accomplished something valuable when I am able to get close to someone.	Affiliation4
22. I would find it very satisfying to be able to form new friendships with whomever I liked.	Affiliation5

***Treated as separate needs (means of each need for composite). See data analysis log for reasoning

Locus of Control

Scale:

Citation: Sapp, S. G., & Harrod, W. J. (1993). Reliability and validity of a brief version of Levenson's locus of control scale. *Psychological Reports*, 72(2), 539-550.

Instructions: Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements.

Response Scale:

Value	Anchor
1	Strongly disagree
2	Disagree
3	Neither agree nor disagree
4	Agree
5	Strongly agree

Items:

Item	Item Name
<i>Internal Locus of Control</i>	
1. My life is determined by my own actions.	Internal1
2. I am usually able to protect my personal interests.	Internal2
3. I can pretty much determine what will happen in my life.	Internal3
<i>Chance</i>	
4. To a great extent, my life is controlled by accidental happenings.	Chance1
5. Often there is no chance of protecting my personal interests from bad luck happenings.	Chance2
6. When I get what I want, it's usually because I'm lucky.	Chance3
<i>Powerful Others</i>	
7. People like myself have very little chance of protecting our personal interests where they conflict with those of strong pressure groups.	Others1
8. My life is chiefly controlled by powerful others.	Others2
9. I feel like what happens in my life is mostly determined by powerful people.	Others3

Leader-Member Exchange

Scale: Leader-Member Social Exchange Scale (LMSX)

Citation: Bernerth, J.B., Armenakis, A.A., Field, H.S., Giles, W.F., & Walker, H.J. (2007). Leader-Member Social Exchange (LMSX): Development and validation of a scale. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 28(8), 979-1003.

Instructions: Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statement.

Response Scale:

Value	Anchor
1	Strongly disagree
2	Disagree
3	Slightly disagree
4	Neither agree nor disagree
5	Slightly agree
6	Agree
7	Strongly agree

Items:

Item	Item Name
1. My manager and I have a two-way exchange relationship.	LMX_1
2. I do not have to specify the exact conditions to know my manager will return a favor.	LMX_2
3. If I do something for my manager, he or she will eventually repay me.	LMX_3
4. I have a balance of inputs and outputs with my manager.	LMX_4
5. My efforts are reciprocated by my manager.	LMX_5
6. My relationship with my manager is composed of comparable exchanges of giving and taking.	LMX_6
7. When I give effort at work, my manager will return it.	LMX_7
8. Voluntary actions on my part will be returned in some way by my manager	LMX_8

EMAIL VERBIAGE

RANDOM DRAWING

Thank you for your participation! If you'd like to be entered into a random drawing to win a \$25 VISA gift card, please enter your email below.

Email address:

INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE IN THE DIARY STUDY (AT END OF BASELINE)

We are currently looking for people to participate in a study to understand employees' experiences at work. Participants will be asked to respond to a short survey (~3 minutes long) three times per day (approximately 8am, 12pm and 4pm) for 2 weeks, excluding weekends.

At the end of the first week, you will have the opportunity to enter a random drawing to receive one of four \$25 Amazon gift cards. At the end of the second week, have the opportunity to enter a random drawing to receive one of four \$25 Amazon gift cards. In addition, if you complete at least 21 of the possible 30 surveys, you will be entered into a random drawing of a \$75 gift card. We expect to enroll only 50 participants, so your odds of winning the drawing are quite high. Also, winning one gift card does *not* preclude you from winning another!

Would you like to participate in the study? Note: expressing interest in the study does not guarantee your participation.

- Yes
 - (If selected) Please provide your name and email address so we can send you more information about the study.
- No

RECRUITMENT EMAIL FOR ELIGIBLE PARTICIPANTS FROM BASELINE:

Thank you for taking the time to participate in the survey about your experiences at work a few weeks back! At the end of that survey, you indicated that you would be interested in participating in future research with us. We are writing to give you some more information about a follow up study (see below). If you are interested in participating, you can follow the link at the bottom of the email to sign up. In exchange for participating, you will have opportunity to enter into 3 random drawings to win up to a total of \$175 in gift cards.

- The purpose of the study is to better understand your experiences at work. To do this, we'd like to know about such experiences as they happen.
- We will send you a brief (5-10 min) survey *three times per day* (around 8am, around noon, and around 4pm or some variation if you do not work 9-5 - we can adjust this timing!) for two weeks. You won't get any surveys on the weekend, so

you'd take a total of 30 surveys across the 2 weeks. In these surveys, we will ask you about what happened during your work day and your feelings and attitudes towards your experiences.

- The surveys will be sent via a link to your email and can be taken wherever internet is accessible (even on your phone or tablet).
- For participating in the first week of the survey, you will be entered into a random drawing for one [1] of four [4] \$25 Amazon gift cards. For participating in the second week of the survey, you will be entered into another random drawing for one [1] of four [4] \$25 Amazon gift cards. And finally, if you participate in at least 70% (21 of the 30 surveys), you will be entered into a random drawing to win one [1] \$75 Amazon gift card. We are only enrolling 50 people in the study, so your chances of winning the drawings are quite high. Winning one gift card does not preclude you from winning another.
- If you'd like to know the results of the study, I would be happy to share them once they are all written up!

If you are interested in participating, please click the link below to sign up. The link will ask you for your informed consent to participate as well as for your contact information. We will follow up shortly via email with a detailed information sheet about the data collection and how to access the survey. There is no obligation to participate in the follow-up study.

If you would more information before you make a decision, please email me at hmyers11@uncc.edu.

DAILY SURVEY: MORNING (8AM)

Work From Home (WFH_Morn)

Are you working in the office, working from home, or did you take off from work today?

- 1 = working in the office
- 2 = working from home
- 3 = took off from work today

Perceived Organizational Support

Scale: Perceived Organizational Support

Citation: Eisenberger, R., Huntington, R., Hutchison, S., & Sowa, D. (1986). Perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71, 500-507.

Instructions: Using the scale provided, please indicate the extent to which you agree with the extent to which each statement describes *your beliefs about your work organization right now*.

Response Scale:

Value	Anchor
1	Strongly disagree
2	Disagree
3	Somewhat disagree
4	Neither agree nor disagree
5	Somewhat agree
6	Agree
7	Strongly agree

Items:

Item	Item Name
1. I currently feel my company really cares about my well-being.	POS_Morn_1
2. I currently feel my company values my contributions to its well-being.	POS_Morn_2
3. I currently feel that my company would be willing to help me if I need a special favor.	POS_Morn_3
4. I currently feel that my company shows little concern for me. (*REVERSE*)	POS_Morn_4
5. I currently feel my company takes pride in my accomplishments at work.	POS_Morn_5
6. I currently feel like my company would strongly consider my goals and values.	POS_Morn_6

Discrete Emotions

Scale: Anger and Joy/happiness

Original Citation: Shaver, P., Schwartz, J., Kirson, D., & O'Connor, C. (1987). Emotion knowledge: further exploration of a prototype approach. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 52(6), 1061-1086.

Published in: Weiss, H. M., Suckow, K., & Cropanzano, R. (1999). Effects of justice conditions on discrete emotions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 84(5), 786-794.

Gooty, J., Gavin, M. B., Ashkanasy, N. M., & Thomas, J. S. (2014). The wisdom of letting go and performance: The moderating role of emotional intelligence and discrete emotions. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 87(2), 392-413.

Spencer, S., & Rupp, D. E. (2009). Angry, guilty, and conflicted: injustice toward coworkers heightens emotional labor through cognitive and emotional mechanisms. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94(2), 429-444.

Instructions: Using the scale provided, please indicate the extent to which you agree with that each statement describes *your feelings right now*.

Response Scale:

Value	Anchor
1	Not at all
2	A little
3	Moderately
4	Quite a bit
5	Very much

Items: (items highlighted in blue were ones retained after pilot)

Anger	
Item	Item Name
1. Anger	Emo_Morn_1
2. Rage	
3. Outrage	Emo_Morn_2
4. Wrath	
5. Fury	
6. Bitterness	Emo_Morn_3
7. Hostility	Emo_Morn_4
8. Hate	Emo_Morn_5
9. Ferocity	

Joy/Happiness	
Item	Item Name
11. Joy	Emo_Morn_6
12. Delight	Emo_Morn_7
13. Enjoyment	Emo_Morn_8
14. Happy	Emo_Morn_9
15. Glad	Emo_Morn_10
16. Elation	
17. Jubilant	
18. Ecstasy	
19. Euphoric	
20. Jovial	
21. Jolly	
22. Gleeful	

Those highlighted in Blue were included in the final diary study after 52 responses indicated that they were the most work-relevant emotions

DAILY SURVEY: NOON (12PM)

Perceived Organizational Support

Scale: Perceived Organizational Support

Citation: Eisenberger, R., Huntington, R., Hutchison, S., & Sowa, D. (1986). Perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71, 500-507.

Instructions: Using the scale provided, please indicate the extent to which you agree with the extent to which each statement describes *your beliefs about your work organization right now*.

Response Scale:

Value	Anchor
1	Strongly disagree
2	Disagree
3	Somewhat disagree
4	Neither agree nor disagree
5	Somewhat agree
6	Agree
7	Strongly agree

Items:

Item	Item Name
1. I currently feel my company really cares about my well-being.	POS_Noon_1
2. I currently feel my company values my contributions to its well-being.	POS_Noon_2
3. I currently feel that my company would be willing to help me if I need a special favor.	POS_Noon_3
4. I currently feel that my company shows little concern for me. (*REVERSE*)	POS_Noon_4
5. I currently feel my company takes pride in my accomplishments at work.	POS_Noon_5
6. I currently feel like my company would strongly consider my goals and values.	POS_Noon_6

Discrete Emotions

Scale: Anger and Joy/happiness

Original Citation: Shaver, P., Schwartz, J., Kirson, D., & O'Connor, C. (1987). Emotion knowledge: further exploration of a prototype approach. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 52(6), 1061-1086.

Published in: Weiss, H. M., Suckow, K., & Cropanzano, R. (1999). Effects of justice conditions on discrete emotions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 84(5), 786-794.

Gooty, J., Gavin, M. B., Ashkanasy, N. M., & Thomas, J. S. (2014). The wisdom of letting go and performance: The moderating role of emotional intelligence and discrete emotions. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 87(2), 392-413.

Spencer, S., & Rupp, D. E. (2009). Angry, guilty, and conflicted: injustice toward coworkers heightens emotional labor through cognitive and emotional mechanisms. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94(2), 429-444.

Instructions: Using the scale provided, please indicate the extent to which you agree with that each statement describes *your feelings right now*.

Response Scale:

Value	Anchor
1	Not at all
2	A little
3	Moderately
4	Quite a bit
5	Very much

Items: (items highlighted in blue were ones retained after pilot)

Anger		Joy/Happiness	
Item	Item Name	Item	Item Name
10. Anger	Emo_Noon_1	23. Joy	Emo_Noon_6
11. Rage		24. Delight	Emo_Noon_7
12. Outrage	Emo_Noon_2	25. Enjoyment	Emo_Noon_8
13. Wrath		26. Happy	Emo_Noon_9
14. Fury		27. Glad	Emo_Noon_10
15. Bitterness	Emo_Noon_3	28. Elation	
16. Hostility	Emo_Noon_4	29. Jubilant	
17. Hate	Emo_Noon_5	30. Ecstasy	
18. Ferocity		31. Euphoric	
		32. Jovial	
		33. Jolly	

34. Gleeful

Affective Events

VarName: AEText_Noon

1. We'd like to know a little bit about your day so far! In the box below, please briefly describe one event that influenced you most at work since you arrived this morning. Remember, an event can be something little, like an interaction with a co-worker or supervisor. Or, it can be something bigger, like a raise or promotion. It can also be positive or negative!
 - a. Open-ended

VarName: Impact_Noon

2. What effect did the event have on you?
 - i. 1 = Very negative
 - ii. 2 = Negative
 - iii. 3 = Positive
 - iv. 4 = Very positive

VarName: Control_Noon

3. To what extent do you feel that your organization had control over the event you just described?
 - a. 1 = Not at all
 - b. 2 = Very little
 - c. 3 = Somewhat
 - d. 4 = To a great extent

VarName: OtherEvents_Noon

4. How many other affective events did you experience at work since you arrived this morning?
 - a. 1 = 1
 - b. 1 = 2
 - c. 3 = 3
 - d. 4 = 4
 - e. 5 = 5
 - f. 6 = More than 5

DAILY SURVEY: EVENING (4PM)

Perceived Organizational Support

Scale: Perceived Organizational Support

Citation: Eisenberger, R., Huntington, R., Hutchison, S., & Sowa, D. (1986). Perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71, 500-507.

Instructions: Using the scale provided, please indicate the extent to which you agree with the extent to which each statement describes *your beliefs about your work organization right now*.

Response Scale:

Value	Anchor
1	Strongly disagree
2	Disagree
3	Somewhat disagree
4	Neither agree nor disagree
5	Somewhat agree
6	Agree
7	Strongly agree

Items:

Item	Item Name
1. I currently feel my company really cares about my well-being.	POS_After_1
2. I currently feel my company values my contributions to its well-being.	POS_After_2
3. I currently feel that my company would be willing to help me if I need a special favor.	POS_After_3
4. I currently feel that my company shows little concern for me. (*REVERSE*)	POS_After_4
5. I currently feel my company takes pride in my accomplishments at work.	POS_After_5
6. I currently feel like my company would strongly consider my goals and values.	POS_After_6

Discrete Emotions

Scale: Anger and Joy/happiness

Original Citation: Shaver, P., Schwartz, J., Kirson, D., & O'connor, C. (1987). Emotion knowledge: further exploration of a prototype approach. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 52(6), 1061-1086.

Published in: Weiss, H. M., Suckow, K., & Cropanzano, R. (1999). Effects of justice conditions on discrete emotions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 84(5), 786-794.

Gooty, J., Gavin, M. B., Ashkanasy, N. M., & Thomas, J. S. (2014). The wisdom of letting go and performance: The moderating role of emotional intelligence and discrete emotions. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 87(2), 392-413.

Spencer, S., & Rupp, D. E. (2009). Angry, guilty, and conflicted: injustice toward coworkers heightens emotional labor through cognitive and emotional mechanisms. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94(2), 429-444.

Instructions: Using the scale provided, please indicate the extent to which you agree with that each statement describes *your feelings right now*.

Response Scale:

Value	Anchor
1	Not at all
2	A little
3	Moderately
4	Quite a bit
5	Very much

Items: (items highlighted in blue were ones retained after pilot)

Anger		Joy/Happiness	
Item	Item Name	Item	Item Name
19. Anger	Emo_After_1	35. Joy	Emo_After_6
20. Rage		36. Delight	Emo_After_7
21. Outrage	Emo_After_2	37. Enjoyment	Emo_After_8
22. Wrath		38. Happy	Emo_After_9
23. Fury		39. Glad	Emo_After_10
24. Bitterness	Emo_After_3	40. Elation	
25. Hostility	Emo_After_4	41. Jubilant	
26. Hate	Emo_After_5	42. Ecstasy	
27. Ferocity		43. Euphoric	

44. Jovial

45. Jolly

46. Gleeful

Affective Events

VarName: AEText_After

1. We'd like to know a little bit about your day so far! In the box below, please briefly describe one event that influenced you most at work since you arrived this morning. Remember, an event can be something little, like an interaction with a co-worker or supervisor. Or, it can be something bigger, like a raise or promotion. It can also be positive or negative!
 - Open-ended

VarName: Impact_After

2. What effect did the event have on you?
 - 1 = Very negative
 - 2 = Negative
 - 3 = Positive
 - 4 = Very positive

VarName: Control_After

3. To what extent do you feel that your organization had control over the event you just described?
 - 1 = Not at all
 - 2 = Very little
 - 3 = Somewhat
 - 4 = To a great extent

VarName: OtherEvents_After

4. How many other affective events did you experience at work since you arrived this morning?
 - 1 = 1
 - 1 = 2
 - 3 = 3
 - 4 = 4
 - 5 = 5
 - 6 = More than 5