

ANTECEDENTS AND CONSEQUENCES OF SELF-CONSCIOUS EMOTIONS
IN THE WORKPLACE: GUILT, SHAME, AND PRIDE

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Abstract

Most people can readily recall powerful feelings of guilt, shame, or pride associated with specific instances of success and failure at work. Although some studies have examined these self-conscious emotions as they arise in other areas of life, little systematic research has focused on their unique profile in the workplace. This dissertation aims to address this important and overlooked topic with two studies. Study 1 used an open-ended, exploratory response format study to provide an initial framework. Over 300 employed adults provided narrative descriptions of workplace events and reactions associated with guilt, shame, and two types of pride. Three overarching domains of events associated with self-conscious emotions were task performance, social relationships, and morality. The most frequently reported emotional management strategies for both guilt and shame were approach-oriented strategies such as problem-solving and relationship repair. Exerting continuous effort for achievement, savoring, and capitalizing were the most common strategies employees used to maintain pride. Expanding the findings of Study 1, Study 2 investigated the within-person effects of self-conscious emotions on employees' stress, health, burnout, engagement, organizational citizenship behavior, creative performance, and withdrawal, using an experience sampling study with 151 employed adults. Results of multilevel modeling showed that self-conscious emotions influenced employees' daily stress, burnout, engagement, creativity, and withdrawal beyond general affective states.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Sylvia, an event planner in her thirties, was on the “outstanding, winners’ list” created by her employer until she had made her first big mistake. The mistake cost her agency a major client. Her boss’s response was to put her on the “losers’ list.” She said, “In one minute I went from being on the winner’s board to being on top of the losers’ list... I know, it’s terrible. My boss has big dry-erase boards outside of his office. One’s the winners’ list and one board is for the losers.” She said for weeks she could barely function. She lost her confidence and started missing work. Shame, anxiety, and fear took over. ... Sylvia said, “I got off the phone with my sister, cried and started working on my resume. I realized that I couldn’t work there anymore. It’s not just the word loser that throws me into shame. It’s the whole idea of believing that you’re either good or bad.

(Brown, 2007, p.72-73)

Our daily lives are filled with events that generate a sense of mastery and accomplishment, or frustration and failure that produce strong self-conscious emotions – guilt, shame, and pride (Scheff, 1988). As seen in Sylvia’s story, self-conscious emotions may especially frequently arise in our work and organizational lives, since work domains regularly require us to evaluate our progress toward our or organizational goals (Seo, Barrett, & Bartunek, 2004) and monitor our behavior against publicly observable social standards. The workplace is a social setting that produces many situations that can lead people maintain or lose a positive social image. It is therefore a uniquely powerful venue for investigating self-conscious emotions. Work situations are publicly visible performance opportunities, entailing demonstrations of competence, motivation, social acceptance, and morality. People experience enhancement or loss of social status, acceptance, or rejection in fulfilling one’s job roles or interacting with coworkers or customers.

Despite the importance of understanding these self-conscious emotions at work, this topic has been relatively overlooked. The broader literature on self-conscious emotions can help inform organizational researchers, but there are limitations. Prior research has been primarily conducted in social, clinical, and developmental psychology, designed specifically to understand the effects of self-conscious emotions on clinically relevant outcomes, or on moral and social behaviors of children and adolescents (Tangney & Dearing, 2002). When it comes to self-conscious emotions, however, the work context is notably different from other social settings. For example, the guilt one feels when one lets down a family member, or the pride one feels when helping a friend, is likely to be qualitatively different from guilt and pride in a work setting where relationships are more transactional, personal career issues are at stake, and goal progress has direct financial consequences for others. Self-conscious emotions have only recently started to capture the attention of organization and emotion researchers (see Bohns & Flynn, 2013; Creed, Hudson, Okhuysen, & Smith-Crowe, 2014; Poulson, 2000 for reviews; see Bagozzi, Verbeke, & Gavino, 2003; Grandey, Tam, & Brauburger, 2002; Salvador, Folger, & Priesemuth, 2012 for empirical studies). These researchers provide a groundwork for understanding discrete self-conscious emotions at work, but much of the work is theoretical extensions of research conducted in non-work settings, or an examination of only one self-conscious emotions in a certain occupation (e.g., service) or with highly specific samples (e.g., part-time student employees) that may be less generalizable to the broader workforce.

Because of their powerful impact on individuals, an understanding of the behaviors enacted in response to self-conscious emotions is also crucial. Research has

suggested that maintaining a positive individual self and social self are especially important in terms of self-regulation (Carver & Scheier, 1981) and goal-setting (Markus & Nurius, 1986). Self-conscious emotions thus play a significant role in regulating people's thoughts, feelings, and social behaviors (Baumeister, Stillwell, & Heatherton, 1994). These emotions motivate people to work hard and behave in moral and socially appropriate ways (Fisher & Tangney, 1995). Self-conscious emotions may also threaten one's own or others' well-being, with observed responses including depression, anxiety, aggression, and violence (Brown, 2007; Tracy, Robins, & Tangney, 2007). In the workplace, how employees manage these emotions can influence individual and organizational consequences. Until Sylvia found her constructive, resilient way out of shame, her painful feeling led to negative work attitudes and outcomes such as considering quitting and missing work.

Based on these omissions, this study focuses on investigating antecedents and consequences of three represented discrete self-conscious emotions – guilt, shame, and pride – that are considered as more impactful in the workplace compared to embarrassment. Using definitions from the established research literature, guilt and shame are aversive feelings elicited from negative self-evaluation in violation of internalized social or moral norms or failure to meet internalized goals, standards, and expectations (Tangney et al., 2007). Pride is a positive feeling emerged from appraisals that one's behavior is valued by others (Mascolo & Fischer, 1995) or one's own ego-identity is enhanced by taking credit for a valued achievement (Lazarus, 1991). These emotions are differentiated based on a focus of evaluation (specific behavior vs. self) of socially valued outcomes or norm-violations. Guilt (beta-pride) focuses on a negative

(positive) evaluation of a specific behavior a person does, whereas shame (alpha-pride) involves a negative (positive) evaluation of the global self (Tangney & Dearing, 2002; Tangney, 1990).

To generate a comprehensive understanding of self-conscious emotions in the workplace, I pursue the following research questions by integrating qualitative and quantitative methods: 1) what events are most commonly associated with guilt, shame, and pride at work? 2) how does an individual cope with or manage negative and positive self-conscious emotions? 3) how do self-conscious emotions influence an individual's health (e.g., health complaints), behavioral (e.g., OCB, withdrawal, and creative performance), as well as psychological outcomes (e.g., stress, burnout, engagement)? These questions are explored by integrating research on self (Sedikedis, ; Taylor & Brown,), self-conscious emotions (e.g., Tangney, 1991; Tangney & Dearing, 2002; Tracy et al., 2007a, 2007b), appraisal theories of emotion (Frijda, 1986; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Lazarus, 1991), and an attributional theory of motivation and emotion (Kelley & Michela, 1980; Weiner, 1985).

Due to a lack of prior theory and evidence related to events that might elicit self-conscious workplace emotions and responses to these emotions, and an interest in determining their comparative frequency, Study 1 is exploratory in nature (Edmondson & McManus, 2007), using an open-ended prompt to allow respondents to freely report types of and reactions to workplace events. As an open-ended investigation, Study 1 does not attempt to test a statistical model of the antecedents and consequences of self-conscious emotions. However, to develop typology, and to relate this study to the existing literature including attribution theory (Weiner, 1985), I provide a heuristic model in Figure 1. In

this model, self-relevant events initiate a process of attribution as has been described in the literature in other contexts (e.g., Tangey et al., 2007a; Tracy and Robins, 2006, 2007a). If the attribution concludes that the event is internally caused, the attribution process moves on to an assessment of whether the event is a property of a stable and uncontrollable feature of the self, or if the event is unstable and controllable. Each attribution process should, in turn, generate a unique emotional reaction as well as an action tendency related to this emotional response. This figure also includes a summary of major findings under the events and emotion management strategies.

To expand the findings in Study 1 and complement its shortcomings such as memory bias and lack of statistical power, Study 2 tests a model linking immediate self-conscious emotional experiences to within-person workplace outcomes. In other words, Study 2 examines the within-person relationships among self-relevant work events, self-conscious emotions, and individuals' physical, attitudinal, and behavioral outcomes at work (e.g., stress, health complaints, burnout, work engagement, coping, capitalization, organizational citizenship behavior, creativity, and work withdrawal). Figure 2 shows the theoretical model I propose in Study 2.

In addition to self-evaluative process and causal attributions regarding self-conscious emotions, behavioral action tendencies of these emotions provide a theoretical background to develop the hypotheses. Applying the findings about specific work events associated with self-conscious emotions in Study 1 to this study, I propose that self-relevant work events appraised poorly or positively on one's task performance, sociability, and morality will influence within-person variability of guilt, shame, or pride.

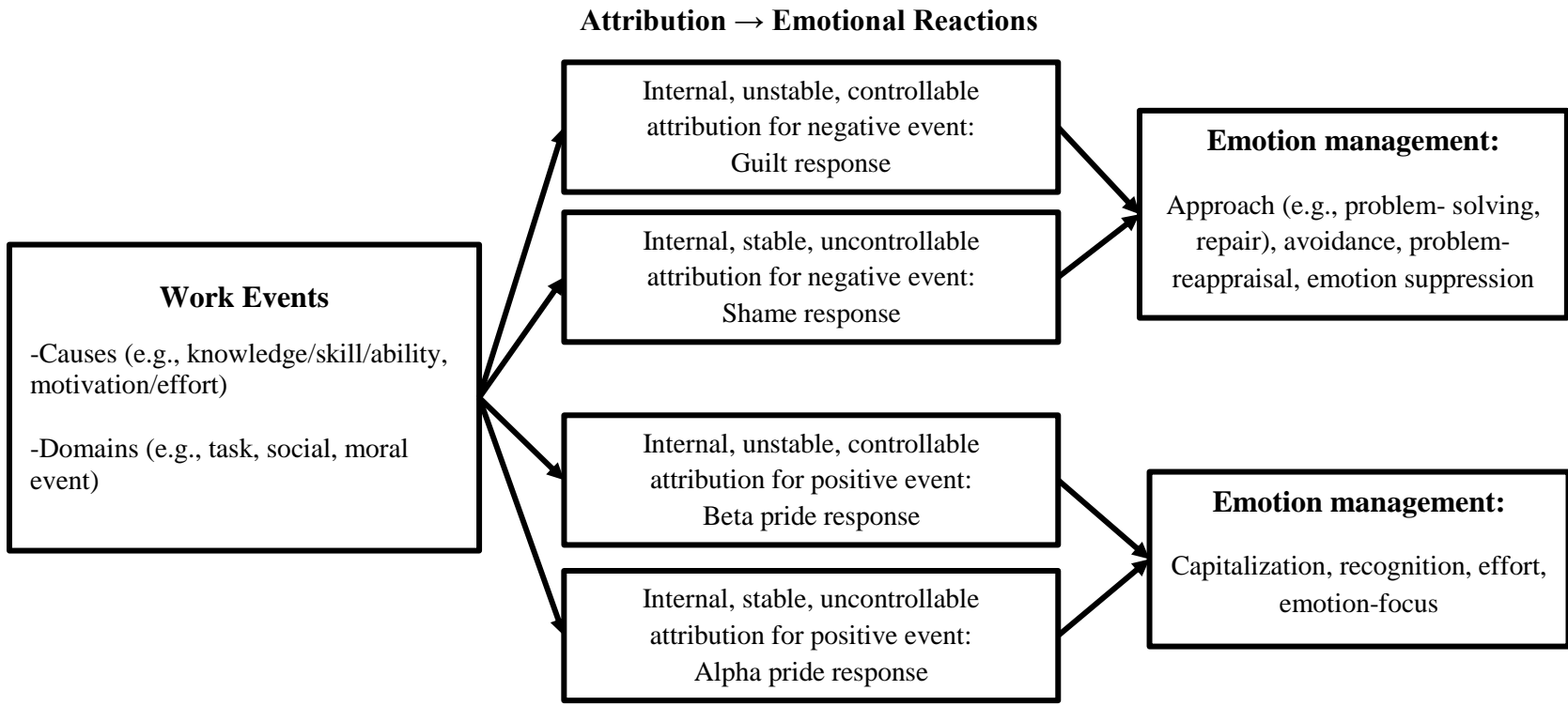


Figure 1. Summary Model of Self-Conscious Emotion Antecedents and Responses in Study 1

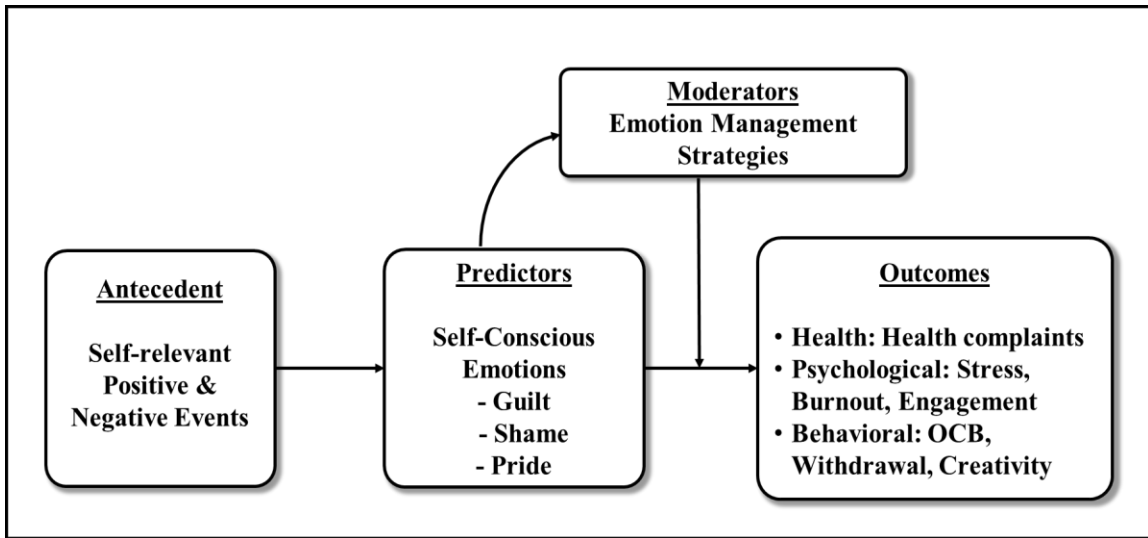


Figure 2. Theoretical Model of Antecedents and Consequences of Self-Conscious Emotions at Work in Study 2

As discussed in the heuristic model in Study 1, causal attributions and action tendency of each emotion influence responses to these emotions.

Action tendencies motivate people to respond to self-conscious emotions in a more adaptive or maladaptive way. I propose that guilt is associated with more approach-oriented coping strategies including problem-solving due to its adaptive action tendency whereas shame is associated with avoidance-oriented coping strategies based on its avoidance action tendency. Pride will be associated with positive emotion management strategies such as capitalizing based on its proactive action tendency. The causal attributions and action tendencies of self-conscious emotions will also serve as a theoretical background in predicting the within-person effects of these emotions on personal and organizational outcomes such as health, psychological outcomes, and work behaviors. I propose that constructive and adaptive functions of guilt will make

experiences of guilt more beneficial to individuals and organizations by increasing engagement, OCB, creative performance and decreasing withdrawal. However, the avoidance function of shame is expected to make experiences of shame more harmful to individuals and organizations by decreasing engagement, creative performance, and increasing withdrawal. Both guilt and shame will have negative effects on stress and health in that they are aversive feelings provoked from negative self-reflection that can be stressors. On the other hand, I predict that pride elicited from positive self-reflection on one's behavior or self will have positive effects on those individual and organizationally relevant outcomes based on its approach and prosocial action tendency. Finally, I examine if use of specific types of emotion regulation strategies moderate the within-person relationships between self-conscious emotions and workplace outcomes.

In sum, given the lack of study on self-conscious emotions in the workplace, this multimethod study attempts to achieve a better understanding of these emotions in the workplace by identifying sources of these emotions and demonstrating the effects of these emotions on workplace outcomes. Furthermore, the findings will emphasize the importance of maintaining or enhancing individual and social self in one's work life. Study 1 aims to articulate what are the common events associated with self-conscious emotions and responses to these emotions at work in an exploratory nature. Study 2 examines how these momentary self-conscious emotional states affect within-person variability in individual and organizational consequences using a daily diary study. Taken together, I propose to offer theoretical and empirical explanations that can inform researchers and organizational practitioners of benefits and costs that may be incurred in experiences of self-conscious emotions at work.

CHAPTER 2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

This chapter begins with a general overview of the nature and major characteristics of self-conscious emotions. Next, it provides a clear picture of guilt, shame, and pride in the differences in attributions, action tendencies, and behavioral implications. These features of self-conscious emotions will serve as supportive evidence to propose a theoretical model of antecedents, emotion regulation strategies, and psychological and behavioral consequences of self-conscious emotions at work.

SECTION 2.1: FUNDAMENTAL CONCEPTS IN SELF-CONSCIOUS EMOTIONS

Having a positive self-concept following stable self-understanding is a fundamental human motive (Heine et al., 1999; Sedikides, 1993). A well-defined self-concept positively impacts people by helping self-regulation (Carver & Scheier, 1981), evoking positive affect about the self (Baumgardner, 1990), playing a key role in setting goals (Markus & Nurius, 1986), and showing a desirable self-image to other people (Tice & Baumeister, 1990). People can pursue self-understanding through social comparison, causal attribution, and memory. This is likely accompanied by self-evaluation, defined as “the process by which the self-concept is socially negotiated and modified” (Sedikides & Strube, 1997, p. 209). The self is the object of self-conscious emotions and thus self-reflection and self-evaluation regarding values and standards are likely to generate these emotions (Tangney, Stuewig, & Mashek, 2007). Self-reflection is defined as the thought of whether one has certain traits that include one’s social behavior, interpersonal relationships, performance outcomes, work styles, and moral values (Sedikides, 1993).

Before discussing each type of self-conscious emotion, it may be useful to know how self-conscious emotions are different from other emotions. Researchers have differentiated self-conscious emotions from non-self-conscious emotions in the following significant features (see Tracy & Robins, 2004, 2007, for greater detail). Self-conscious emotions (1) entail self-awareness and self-representation, (2) tend to not have universally recognized facial expressions, (3) are social emotions and seek to attain socially complex goals, and (4) moral emotions. I will discuss each of the features in turn.

First, *self-conscious emotions are cognitively complex emotions that involve self-awareness and self-representation* (Tracy & Robins, 2007a). This characteristic is relevant for which events lead to self-conscious emotions. A sense of self-awareness, the ability to form stable self-representation (that creates one's identity) (James, 1890), and self-focused attention on those representations are prerequisites for self-evaluation (Tracy & Robins, 2007a). Self-representations entail not only the mental composition of the self but also interpersonal, social, and collective self-representations, which means how we view ourselves in the relationships with intimate others, social groups, and cultural communities (Tracy & Robins, 2007a). Basic emotions like joy and fear often are associated with thoughts of the self, but arise without elaborate evaluative processes central to self-conscious emotions (Tangney & Dearing, 2002). For example, individuals do not need complex cognitive capacities to experience fear since they simply and automatically appraise a fear-eliciting event as a life-threatening situation (Tracy & Robins, 2007b). However, feeling guilty requires self-awareness and self-representation of whether one's behavior violates social or moral standards and if so, how this behavior affects one's actual or ideal self-representation. In terms of joy, a positive work outcome

can generate both joy and pride, but again, the processes are distinct. For example, when an employee makes a new contract with a client, he or she may simply feel pleasant about the positive event. However, experiencing pride involves self-focused attention and self-evaluation, as one attributes the attainment of a valued outcome for the company or by demonstrating one's capability as a valued worker to himself or others. In other words, self-conscious emotions require complex cognitions that an individual must be aware of his or her self and how behaviors affect one's self-reflection.

Second, self-conscious emotions are not easily identified by discrete, universally recognized facial expressions (Tracy & Robins, 2007a). This characteristic explains why overt social coping strategies may be especially significant; if not articulated, these emotions are sometimes invisible. Whereas the six basic emotions of joy, fear, anger, sadness, surprise, and disgust have a distinct, universally recognized facial expression (Ekman, 2003), self-conscious emotions are relatively difficult to know through discrete facial expressions. Instead, researchers have found discrete expressions including bodily posture or head movement with facial expression for embarrassment, pride, and shame (Izard, 1971; Tracy & Robins, 2004b). The relative ambiguity to external observers of these emotions, and difficulty in manipulating them in a lab environment, underscores the importance of using realistic field settings frequently employed in management research.

Third, *self-conscious emotions are social emotions and enable the achievement of complex social goals* (Tracy & Robins, 2007a). This characteristic is relevant for a mediating role of social relationship in the relationships between self-conscious emotions and personal and organizational outcomes. It is important to note that self-conscious emotions include an interpersonal element (Baumeister et al., 1994; De Hooge, 2013).

These emotions arise in social relationships, in which people interact and reciprocally judge each other (Fisher & Tangney, 1995). Self-conscious emotions promote the attainment of social goals, by maintaining or enhancing the social status or preventing group rejection (Tracy & Robins, 2004b). The self-conscious emotions are presumed to promote behaviors that enhance the stability of social hierarchies and sustain social roles (Tracy & Robins, 2007b). For example, pride may encourage bragging to strengthen social status after performance success or other approach-oriented behaviors (e.g., helping) to sustain social roles after social valued outcomes. Guilt may promote apology and confession following a behavior that harms an interpersonal relationship to repair the damaged relationship. Shame may promote conciliation and avoidance after a social transgression to prevent further group rejection (Tracy & Robins, 2007a). Again, decontextualized laboratory studies are likely not very similar in their social aspects to the highly meaningful long-term social connections established at work.

Fourth, self-conscious emotions are sometimes considered *moral emotions* (Tracy & Robins, 2007a). Moral emotions are defined as emotions “that are linked to the interests or welfare either of society as a whole or at least of persons other than the judge or agent” (Haidt, 2003, p. 276). Moral emotions drive motivational force, including the power and energy to do good things and to avoid doing bad things (Kroll & Egan, 2004). Moral functions of the emotions play a critical role in evaluating one's behavior as “*an emotional moral barometer*,” with instant feedback on our social and moral acceptability and appropriateness (Tangney et al., 2007a). Research has found that self-conscious emotions monitor individuals' social interactions with others, motivate them to adhere to moral/social norms and personal standards (e.g., guilt and shame; Goffman, 1967;

Baumeister et al., 1994), and maintain socially appreciated behavior (e.g., pride, Muris & Meesters, 2014; Tangney & Tracy, 2012). These moral functions of self-conscious emotions are important in work contexts because moral impulses play a crucial role in regulating an employee's responses to work events associated with success or failure. For example, the moral function of self-conscious emotions may motivate employees to engage in group behavior (e.g., cooperation, acting in line with group norms), interpersonal behavior (e.g., prosocial behavior, treating subordinates or coworkers respectfully), and ethical behavior (e.g., compliance to company rules) and disengage in unethical behavior (e.g., counterproductive behavior, bullying) (De Hooze, 2013).

SECTION 2.2: A TYPOLOGY OF SELF-CONSCIOUS EMOTIONS

To understand antecedents and responses associated with self-conscious emotions at work, it is first worth considering some definitional work that has been done in other, non-work contexts. After reviewing the core concepts underlying self-conscious emotions in general, four specific self-conscious emotional states will be reviewed: negative self-conscious emotions (guilt and shame) and positive self-conscious emotions (alpha and beta pride).

Self-conscious emotions are the subjective feeling states that are evoked through self-reflection and self-evaluation (Tangney et al., 2007a). As emotions, they are time limited, and associated with specific events or stimuli (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). The self-identity literature notes that self-reflection is an evaluation of one's motives, capabilities, social behavior, interpersonal relationships, and performance outcomes (Sedikides, 1993). Tracy and Robins (2004) state that people experience these emotions

“when they become aware that they have lived up to, or failed to live up to, some actual or ideal self-representation (p.105).” This definition emphasizes that self-conscious emotions are internally generated based on one’s own observations of success or failure. On the other hand, other researchers argue that self-conscious emotions arise from inferences or perceptions about how the individual is evaluated or judged by others (Leary, 2007). From this perspective, self-conscious emotions emerge from the real or imagined appraisals of other people (Baldwin & Baccus, 2004). Ultimately, both internal and external standards are probably important. For example, if an employee feels guilty after his poor presentation to the management team, guilt can arise from not only negative self-evaluation relative to one’s own standards, but also from perceptions about how personal failure is evaluated by managers. Similarly, an employee probably experiences pride after seeing that a project is especially well-done, which is complemented by social recognition.

The strength of an event on the individual is impacted by whether particular events are relevant to an individual’s identity goals (Tracy & Robins, 2004). An event appraised as identity-goal relevant will activate self-representations such as actual, ideal, and ought self (Higgins, 1987); or the past, present, or future self (Markus & Nurius, 1986). When an event is appraised as relevant to, and congruent with identity goals, the appraisal will elicit pride. If the event is appraised as relevant to, but, incongruent with identity goals, the appraisal will elicit guilt and/or shame. For example, if an employee meets an important project deadline and he appraises the event as the relevant one to his identity goal, it will activate the current self-representation, “a high performer.” It will be congruent with his actual and ideal self-representations and subsequently elicit a positive

self-conscious emotion such as pride. In contrast, if the employee fails to meet the important project deadline and he appraises it as relevant to his identity goal, it will activate the negative self-representation “a poor performer.” It will be incongruent with his actual and ideal self-representations, and thus lead to negative self-conscious emotions such as guilt and/or shame. If an employee achieves success at a project that is seen as completely irrelevant to self-identity, then no self-conscious emotion will arise.

Whereas distinctions in private versus public standards are difficult to differentiate in practice, distinct causal attributions may more clearly distinguish forms of self-conscious emotions. Causal attributions regarding success and failure have been studied in academic achievement domains (Weiner, 1985, 1986), as well as in work settings (Perrewe & Zellars, 1999). The attributional theory of motivation and emotion (Weiner, 1985) proposes that causal attributions affect an individual’s expectancies, emotional experiences, and motivated behavior based on whether success and failure are the consequences of the locus, stability, and controllability of the events (Weiner, 1979; Weiner, 1985). Locus means whether or not the cause of the outcome results from the individual, like meeting performance goals due to effort or ability, as opposed to outcomes resulting from good luck or assistance from others. Stability regards an individual’s perception that the cause will continue over time, such as a long-term facility in controlling impulses, vs. unstable causes, such as success due to a moment of high motivation or energy. Finally, controllability is whether the cause is under the volitional control of an individual, such as failure due to lack of effort, vs. uncontrollability, such as failure due to lack of ability. The different forms of self-conscious emotions can fit well within this typology (Tangney et al., 2007a; Tracy & Robins, 2006, 2007a; Weiner, 1985).

Table 1 shows the differences in causal attributions and how they fit with the self-conscious emotions of guilt, shame, and the two dimensions of pride. Following from this discussion, I will consider how guilt, shame, and beta and alpha pride arise and are addressed in non-work studies.

Table 1
Causal Attributions of Guilt, Shame, and Pride

Causal Attributions (Focus of Evaluation)	Valence	
	Positive	Negative
Internal, unstable, controllable (specific) attributions	Beta pride (I succeeded since I <i>tried to hard enough.</i>)	Guilt (I failed due to my <i>lack of effort.</i>)
Internal, stable, uncontrollable (global) attributions	Alpha pride (I succeeded since <i>I am always great.</i>)	Shame (I failed due to my <i>lack of ability.</i>)

Negative Self-Focused Emotions: Guilt and Shame

Guilt and shame may emerge from similar negative events in interpersonal contexts, moral failures, or transgression (Tangney & Dearing, 2002). The self-conscious literature notes strong similarities in the evaluations that underpin of these emotions. Tangney (1990, p. 105) suggested that “one would expect shared variance reflecting the features shared by shame and guilt,” but, there is “substantial, meaningful unique variance, reflecting the critical differences between shame and guilt.” Guilt is defined as “an unpleasant and remorseful feeling associated with the recognition that one has violated a moral or social standard” (Jones & Kugler, 1993) or “an unpleasant emotion

experienced when failing to meet internalized social standards” (Tracy & Robins, 2004a; Tilghman-Osborne, Cole, & Felton, 2010). Shame is similarly defined as “an unpleasant emotion that individuals experience when they fail to meet internalized social standards, including standards of morality, competence, or aesthetics” (Tracy & Robins, 2004a). Lewis (1992) similarly defined shame as the result of a complicated set of cognitive activities such as the evaluation of an individual’s conduct regarding her standards, rules, and goals.

As noted earlier, attributions are the primary mechanism that distinguishes guilt from shame. Although they are both negative emotions responding to violations of one’s standards, guilt focuses on a negative evaluation of a specific behavior a person does (i.e., I *did* that horrible *thing*), whereas shame involves a negative evaluation of the global self (i.e., I did that horrible thing) (Lewis, 1971; Tangney, 1990; Tangney et al., 2007a; Tangney & Dearing, 2002; Tracy & Robins, 2004a). Lewis (1971) proposed that guilt emerges from internalized values about right and wrong, and shame arises from one’s ego-identity. Since the object of negative evaluation for guilt is one’s particular action, it does not globally affect one’s self-perceptions, and thus is less painful. Shame, however, focuses on the global, stable self as the source of the problem, which is likely to influence self-worth and self-esteem (Tangney & Dearing, 2002). As a result, shame provokes self-oriented distress, coupled with the perception of the threatened core self that is unlikely to be changed (Bulger, 2013). Thus it leads to a more painful and devastating feeling than guilt. Shame is thus proposed to be “*one of the most powerful, painful, and potentially destructive experiences known to humans*” (Gilbert, 1997, p.113).

Besides the attributional mechanism that differentiates guilt and shame, they have other critical distinctions. Phenomenological experiences of guilt are tension, remorse, and regret, whereas experiences of shame are accompanied with feeling small and inferior, shrinking, feeling worthless, powerless, and feeling exposed (Kim, Thibodeau, & Jorgensen, 2011). In terms of behavioral implications, guilt and shame have important differences. Whereas guilt is associated with concern with one's effect on others, shame is associated with concern with others' evaluation of self. When people feel guilty following the harm or distress they cause to other people, they try to repair the hurt relationship. The efforts include making amends for the past wrongdoing and promoting more appropriate behavior in the future (Amodio, Devine, & Harmon-Jones, 2007; Baumeister et al., 1994). Guilt encourages adaptive actions, such as compensating and reparative actions including apology, confession, and undoing the harm (Tangney, 1991; Tangney & Dearing, 2002). For example, when an employee fails to complete a task assignment, he may exert more effort to finish it next day or apologize to his coworkers or supervisor that he delayed the team's work progress. Furthermore, guilt has more active functions than shame. It motivates a higher sense of personal responsibility, compliance, and constructive efforts for coping (De Hooge, 2013).

In contrast, most researchers have perceived that shame suppresses behavior, as people are less likely to speaking, moving, and act to remedy the situation (Gilbert, 1997). Shame is associated with efforts to get away from the situation, such as withdrawal, resistance, social avoidance, rejection, and disengagement from others (Dickerson & Gruenewald, 2004; Lewis, 2003; Tangney, 1991, Tangney et al., 1992; Tangney et al., 2007). For example, if an employee feels ashamed after getting poor performance

feedback by a supervisor in front of other coworkers, he might hide in his office or not join lunches to avoid being with coworkers who observed the shame-inducing situation. In addition, if an employee feels ashamed from excluding by coworkers at work, he may prefer to work at home more often to avoid socializing.

Positive Self-Focused Emotion: Beta and Alpha Pride

Pride is defined as “*an emotion generated by appraisals that one is responsible for a socially valued outcome or for being a socially valued person*” (Mascolo & Fischer, 1995, p. 66). Pride also refers to “*enhancement of one’s own ego-identity by taking credit for a valued object or achievement; one’s own or that of someone or group with whom one identifies, for instance, a neighbor, a member of the family, or a social group*” (Lazarus, 1991, p. 164). It is worth noting that while pride is related to self-efficacy, they are completely distinct in both temporal and affective dimensions. Pride of both types is linked to an appraisal of what one has done in the past, whereas self-efficacy is linked to an appraisal of what one is capable of doing in the future. Second, whereas self-efficacy is usually described in terms of a cognitive appraisal of one’s capabilities, pride is the emotion that arises from an appraisal of specific actions. Pride is also different from self-esteem in that pride concerns one’s sense of having accomplished good things, whereas self-esteem is closer to unconditional acceptance, independent of accomplishments.

As similar with shame versus guilt, a distinction is drawn in an attribution of self-relevant events to a global self (alpha pride), versus an attribution to a specific moment and situation (beta pride) (Tangney, 1990). In a manner similar to the distinction between guilt and shame, different levels of emotional reaction are likely to be associated with the

two forms of pride. Alpha pride, being a reflection of a general capacity, is likely to result in lasting positive emotions and well-being, and could be associated with the confidence that future task success is likely. Beta pride is less stable, and the duration of the associated positive emotions is likely to be considerably shorter than for alpha pride. Therefore, beta pride is more likely to be associated with a need to continue to exert effort for continued success.

Researchers have investigated nonverbal expressions of pride; however, they have not been successful in identifying recognizable, nonverbal expressions (Tracy & Robins, 2007). Tracy and Robins (2004b, 2007a) found that typical pride expressions include not only the facial expression (i.e., small smile) but also the body (i.e. expanded posture, head tilted slightly back, arms raised or hands on hips, p. 196). In terms of behavioral implications, pride tends to encourage positive behaviors in the achievement domain (Herrald & Tomaka, 2002) and is expected to promote prosocial behaviors such as volunteering (Hart & Matsuba, 2007) and altruism (Michie, 2009).

These definitions and characteristics of each type of emotions will serve as guides for exploring antecedents and responses of self-conscious emotions and categorizing open-ended survey responses in Study 1 and for testing the within-person relationships between self-conscious emotions and workplace outcomes in Study 2.

CHAPTER 3: STUDY 1 –THE FREQUENCY OF ANTECEDENTS AND RESPONSES OF SELF-CONSCIOUS EMOTIONS AT WORK

SECTION 3.1: INTRODUCTION

Every day at work, we evaluate ourselves, seeing how we measure up to personal standards, as well as the standards of our colleagues and the organization as a whole. For example, people evaluate whether they are exceeding or falling behind production goals, are helping or hindering their co-workers, or acting in ways that fulfill or violate their personal ethical values. Signals whether we are competent, hard working, and moral may lead to intense self-conscious emotions such as guilt, shame, and pride. The workplace is a social setting where success and failure play out regularly, and most people can have occurrences of strong feelings of shame, guilt, and pride at work. Surprisingly, self-conscious emotions have been relatively overlooked among organizational researchers. Specifically, scholars have focused less on what elicits self-conscious emotions at work, and how they shape employees' behavior. Although some empirical studies have examined what causes self-conscious emotions (e.g., pride; Grandey, Tam, & Brauburger, 2002), most papers have been theoretical only (Bohns & Flynn, 2013; De Hooze, 2013; Poulson, 2000) or did not include different types of self-conscious emotions at work (Basch & Fisher, 2000). Furthermore, only limited research investigated the responses to one of the self-conscious emotions in the work contexts (e.g., Baggozi et al., 2003 for shame; Grandey et al., 2002 for pride; Salvador et al., 2012 for guilt).

Given the significant omissions in prior research on these emotions in the workplace, Study 1 digs into individuals' experiences related to self-conscious emotions

at work using a qualitative approach rather than testing statistical relationships. I see this investigation as a first step in the process outlined by Edmondson and McManus (2007), in which researchers first attempt to define the phenomenon of interest in an exploratory manner, before moving straight to methods based on confirmatory, statistical analyses of standardized surveys. Therefore, I endeavor to explore what makes people feel self-conscious emotions and how they respond to these emotions in the workplace using open-ended prompts. In other words, this study using narrative descriptions of working adults will provide initial evidence of antecedents and responses of self-conscious emotions, which will be tested in Study 2. This exploratory investigation will allow me to develop a typology of self-conscious emotions at work by integrating this study to the existing literature including attribution and appraisal theories (Lazarus, 1991; Weiner, 1985). Furthermore, I compare frequency of work events associated with self-conscious emotions and responses to these emotions to identify the most common patterns of sources of and responses to these emotions at work. In this study, I focus on guilt, shame, and two types of pride such as beta and alpha pride.

SECTION 3.2: ANTECEDENTS (EVENTS) ASSOCIATED WITH SELF-CONSCIOUS EMOTIONS AT WORK

This section concentrates on events associated with guilt, shame, and pride and responses to these emotions in work and organizational settings. After first reviewing prior research relevant to this topic, this section generates research questions on potential triggers and responses of self-conscious emotions at work.

Emotion researchers agree that different types of events generate different emotions while at work (Basch & Fisher, 2000). Indeed, emotions are differentiated from other affective responses like generalized affect because they are tied to specific events. However, a well-defined typology of emotion-related events is lacking (Basch & Fisher, 2000), perhaps because different categories of events are very specific to the associated emotion. Using cognitive appraisal theory that emphasizes the importance of an individual's appraisal and interpretation of the event, an affective event has been defined as "*an incident that stimulates appraisal of and emotional reaction to a transitory or ongoing job-related agent, object or event*" (Basch & Fisher, 2000, p. 37).

Although there is relatively little research on discrete events that cause self-conscious emotions in a work context, there are some exceptional studies. Basch and Fisher (2000) created event-emotion matrices that would demonstrate the link between job events of hotel employees and their following emotions. Their positive event-emotion matrix included pride; however, the negative event-emotion matrix did not include guilt and shame. Grandey et al. (2002) investigated specific work events that elicit anger and pride using young, part-time employees. They provided useful qualitative information on pride-inducing work events. However, the samples of the study are student employees who may not have the same sorts of incidents full-time working adults experience. Grandey and colleagues conducted other studies to examine affective events, but these focused on only customer-related events (Grandey, Dickter, & Sin, 2004; Grandey, Fisk, Mattila, Jansen, & Sideman, 2004).

Some writers have proposed work-related sources of self-conscious emotions. Poulson (2000) listed potential sources of shame at work, including managerial practices,

performance expectations and appraisals, opportunity structures, discrimination, termination/unemployment, and informal organizational and interpersonal relations (e.g., social exclusion, bullying, harassment). It is worth noting that these forms of shame are distinct from the target of our study because they are all externally attributed. De Hooge (2013) suggests that guilt and shame can emerge from unethical behavior at work, including abusive supervision, theft, discrimination, drug use and drug testing, and organizational justice. Bohns and Flynn (2013) theoretically proposed employees differently experience guilt and shame after performance failure depending on organizational characteristics.

Some empirical studies investigated the predictors of guilt and shame in hypothetical or experimental work situations. One study found that counterproductive behaviors in hypothetical scenarios were associated with guilt and shame (Ersoy, Born, Derous, & van der Molen, 2011). A lab study found that participants who were exposed to unfair layoff processes as survivors reported more negative emotions, particularly guilt, than those exposed to a fair layoff process (Wiesnefeld, Brocker, and Martin, 1999). Another study of individuals who experienced being laid off found that outcome favorability interacted with both procedural and interactional justice to predict inward-focused negative emotions, shame and guilt. (Barclay, Skarlicki, & Pugh, 2005). Regarding pride, research found that work itself (Dunn, Wewiorski, & Rogers, 2008), employee involvement (Ghorpade, Lackritz, & Singh, 2006), and team identification (Haslam, Jetten, & Waghorn, 2009) were associated with pride in field studies. A lab study also found that outcome favorability positively impacted pride (Krehbiel & Cropanzano, 2000). These studies have suggested possible triggers of self-conscious

emotions, but most papers have been theoretical only, did not include different types of self-conscious emotions, were based on hypothetical stimuli, or focused on traits rather than emotional states although using the word emotions.

A study which investigated antecedents of guilt and shame in general life events of undergraduate students (Keltner & Buswell, 1996) may also guide us to predict attributed causes of guilt and shame at work. The results show that the common antecedents of guilt and shame include 1) failures at duties as a student, 2) interpersonal issues (e.g., neglecting or hurting others such as friends and siblings), and 3) failing to meet other personal goals. As distinct antecedents, whereas guilt has antecedents such as immoral behaviors (e.g., lying, cheating), shame has antecedents such as failing to meet others' expectations (e.g., parents) and inappropriate behavior. Employees may also be concerned about performance failure, negative social interactions, and immoral behaviors, given that competence, sociability, and morality are important content dimensions for judgment of self and social targets (Leach, Ellemers, & Barreto, 2007).

Outside of these triggers, a broad sample of workplaces may generate triggers of self-conscious emotions that prior research does not capture. This prior research also does not help evaluate the comparative frequency of events associated with self-conscious emotions. Given the aforementioned areas of ambiguity in prior work, I pursue the following research question in Study 1 as a first step:

Research Question 1. What events are most commonly associated with guilt, shame, beta pride, and alpha pride at work?

SECTION 3.3: RESPONSES OF SELF-CONSCIOUS EMOTIONS AT WORK

This section discusses action tendencies of self-conscious emotions and proposes how self-conscious emotions are associated with emotion regulation strategies. Emotion regulation is especially important for self-conscious emotions in that it may cultivate positive and useful emotions (e.g., pride) and manage harmful emotions (e.g., guilt and shame). Without appropriate emotion regulation strategies, negative emotions (shame, in particular) may be transformed to destructive attitudes and behaviors at work (e.g., hostility, aggression). Furthermore, use of effective and adaptive emotion management strategies is particularly important in the workplace since it may be hard for employees to avoid guilt- and shame-inducing situations compared to other social settings. In the workplace, individuals should continue to perform their tasks despite the situations that they experience painful feelings. Given that protecting and maintaining individual and social self is critical in one's work life, understanding how people manage these emotions at work will be especially important since effective behavioral self-regulation may influence individual work-related psychological outcomes and organizational performance. It will also offer helpful knowledge of ways to improve unhealthy and unsupportive workplace culture that may be sources of guilt and shame and suppressors of pride.

Appraisal theories propose that emotions are associated with specific action tendencies, which guide an individual to act in ways that reduce the discrepancies between goals and behaviors (Frijda, 1986). The action tendencies help us to predict how people respond to self-conscious emotions. Research has demonstrated that the arousal of emotions leads to an action response to people that prompts them to regulate, manage,

and control these emotions to maintain their state of emotional equilibrium (Gross, 1998; Hadley, 2014). These motivation and efforts may be considered as emotion regulation, which refers to “*the processes by which individuals influence which emotions they have, when they have them, and how they experience and express these emotions*” (Gross, 1998, p. 275). Self-conscious emotions have motivational features that guide subsequent behavior, which is usually oriented toward a more goal-congruent state for the individual (Keltner & Beer, 2005).

Emotion regulation researchers have highlighted that both positive and negative emotions may be regulated, including both emotion expression and experience (Gross, 1998). Lazarus (1991) argued similar processes of appraisal for negative events would take place in an individual’s response to positive events. As a result, emotion regulation research has been heavily based on the stress and coping literature (Folkman, Lazarus, Gruen, & DeLongis, 1986; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Within this literature, responses to aversive events have been classified into categories of confronting or resolving the problem, addressing one’s emotions directly, re-appraising the aversive situation to something more positive, or avoiding the situation altogether. Responses within these categories may be quite different when responding to negative self-conscious emotions, especially as they concern reactions to events that have already happened, as opposed to stress reactions related to events that have not yet occurred.

Langston (1994) clarified that the process of interpreting positive events could be also called coping, but positive events are not problems to be resolved; they are rather opportunities on which to seize or capitalize. Thus, he defined capitalizing as “*the process of beneficially interpreting positive events*” (Langston, 1994, p.1112). Gable,

Reis, Impett, and Asher (2004) also argued that people are motivated to extend and assimilate the positive feelings that have arisen rather than reduce and replace them. Broaden-and-build theory (Fredrickson, 1998, 2001) provides the theoretical background to understand the action tendency of pride. Fredrickson (2001, p.219) proposes in the broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions that “*certain discrete positive emotions broaden people’s momentary thought-action repertoires and build their enduring personal resources, ranging from physical and intellectual resources to social and psychological resources.*” Broadening activities include savoring, widening boundaries, expanding the self or world view, and integrating ideas from dissimilar sources (Fredrickson, 2001). This theory emphasizes that positive affective experiences expand an individual’s action repertoires; facilitates approach rather than avoidant behavior, and subsequently widens the sets of behavioral options. The self-conscious emotion literature also suggests that pride is associated with approach and proactive action tendencies, which leads to high self-esteem, future positive behaviors in the achievement domain, prosocial behavior, and successful social relationship (Tracy & Robins, 2007a).

Besides distinctions related to positivity and negativity of the associated emotion, there are also distinctions in terms of the attributions for the precipitating events, as discussed earlier. The self-conscious emotion literature posits that the action tendencies associated with guilt and shame are contrasting. Since guilt focuses on specific, unstable, and controllable attributions of negative events (e.g., behavior, lack of effort), it motivates an individual to correct one’s mistakes or make up for one’s failure and wrongdoings (Baumeister et al., 1994; Tangney & Dearing, 2002). On the other hand, because shame focuses on global, stable, and uncontrollable aspects of individuals in

negative situations (e.g., self, lack of ability), it tends to motivate people to avoid, hide, or escape from the shameful situations or those who may have been transgressed against (Mascolo & Fischer, 1995; Tangney & Dearing, 2002). Due to these different action tendencies, guilt has been regarded as having constructive functions in the interpersonal relationships, in particular, and a more moral emotion (Baumeister et al., 1994; Tangney, 1991) than shame.

In summary, efforts to manage negative and positive emotions are forms of emotion regulation (Gross, 1998). Since very little is known about emotion regulation strategies for self-conscious emotions (see Bagozzi, Verbeke, & Gavino, 2003, for an exception), I explore the following research question in Study 1:

Research question 2. Which specific emotion management strategies do individuals use to reduce guilt and shame, and to maintain beta and alpha pride?

METHOD

I used a free-response methodology to explore the nature of events that elicit guilt, shame, and the two types of pride (i.e. beta and alpha pride), and the subsequent regulation strategies individuals use. Since it is difficult to capture the events that elicit the powerful emotional experiences by manipulating them in a lab study or using scale-rated responses in a quantitative study, this qualitative approach will provide rich information on individuals' emotional experiences at work. In addition, this approach is the typical method to identify the events that induce self-conscious emotions in the literature (Baumeister et al., 1994; Tangney & Dearing, 2002). Moreover, there is no existing typology of which events elicit self-conscious emotions (see Grandey et al., 2002 for an exception for pride-inducing events), nor is there data regarding which events are

most prevalent in inducing these emotions at work. Other researchers also suggested future research on specific work events (both positive and negative) that generate discrete emotions, diverse coping strategies in various work contexts, and emotion-specific patterns of coping in work settings (e.g., Brown, Westbrook, & Challagalla, 2005). Furthermore, Study 1 will also provide useful information in developing hypotheses for Study 2 on how the emotions are associated with emotion regulation strategies and organizationally relevant outcomes.

Participants and Procedures

Participants were recruited online from Qualtrics. Participants were invited to participate voluntarily in a study on working professionals' emotional experiences in the workplace. To collect a nationally representative sample of working adults, I included both male and female respondents who were currently working at least (average) 30 hours per week in a variety of occupations in the United States. The range of ages was from 23 to 64 years old. The survey asked participants to describe a recent or past event that elicited guilt, shame, and pride at work and their responses following the emotional reactions with open-ended response formats. For pride-inducing events, I asked the two different types of pride events such as alpha pride (e.g., feeling proud of myself) and beta pride (e.g., feeling proud of what I did) to see whether each emotion consistently follows from different types of events. The survey also asked participants to report the intensity of the emotions and individual characteristics including demographic information and personality. Three hundred and sixty participants provided valid descriptions for at least one of the four types of events (guilt, shame, alpha pride, beta pride events) and the

resulting emotion regulation strategies; 33 responses were excluded due to missing or invalid descriptions in all types of the events.

Table 2 includes participant demographics. The average age of the final sample was 43 years, and 54.7% of the sample was female. Participants worked an average of 41 hours per week. 78.1% of participants were White/Caucasian, and 8.4% were respectively African/Black and Hispanic/Latino. The rest of participants include South Asian/East Asian/ Pacific Islander and Native American/Alaska Native. 62.4% of participants were college educated. 41.1% of participants supervise or manage other employees in their present position. Participants had a variety of jobs and job functions as shown in Table 2. Analysis of participant job titles revealed that 88% of participants worked in 22 O*Net job families and 12% of them indicated “other” category. Average career tenure of participants was 20 years, and average organizational tenure was eight years.

Table 2
Participant Demographics in Study 1

Total number of participants	327
Age	Mean = 43 (range: 23 - 64)
Gender	54.7% Female
Work hours	Mean = 41 (per week)
Ethnic background	78% White/Caucasian, 8% African/Black, 8% Hispanic/Latino, 4% South Asian/East Asian/ Pacific Islander, 2% Native American/Alaska Native, 3% Other
Supervision	41% supervisors or above
Average Tenure	Career (20 years); Organization (8 years); Job (7 years)

Table 2 (Continued)
Participant Demographics in Study 1

Job functions	Office & administrative support, 11.7%; Sales & related, 11.4%; Management, 8.4%; Business & financial operations, 6.9%; Education, training, & library, 6.6%, Production, 4.7%; Computer & mechanical, 4.2%; Healthcare support, 4.2%; Food preparation & serving related, 3.6%, etc.
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Measures

Demographic information. Participants were asked to report their age, gender, ethnic background, education, job function, job title, and tenure in current organization.

Self-conscious emotions-inducing events. Following the typical method in the self-conscious emotions literature (Tangney & Dearing, 2002), participants were asked to describe recent or past self-conscious emotion-inducing events at work. Each emotion-inducing question was operationalized with the aforementioned definition of events that induce self-conscious emotions at work, “events or incidents that elicit self-conscious emotions in situations of meeting or violating one’s own or others’ social or moral standards, goals, or expectations at work.” I adapted the definition for each discrete self-conscious emotion and provided details about the relevant work situations for participants’ better understanding. To differentiate guilt vs. shame and alpha pride vs. beta pride, the questions included the different focus of evaluation and causal attributions of each emotion (e.g., effort vs. ability). At the beginning of the survey, participants were asked first to think of job experiences that elicited self-conscious emotions. Participants were also asked to report when the event occurred (1 = today, 2 = within the past week, 3 =

within the past month, 4 = within the past year, and 5= more than a year ago). The average score was 3.5 for guilt, 2.98 for beta pride, 3.66 for shame, and 3 for alpha pride.

1. *Guilt events (feeling guilty at work)*. Guilt-inducing events were elicited with the question, “Please describe a recent or past negative event or situation that made you feel guilty when you were working because you did something poorly, wrong, that you didn't think was the right thing to do, or that you didn't try hard enough. Any minor incidents you didn't meet standards or expectations can be included. Think about very specific actions or behaviors you felt guilty about, and not about something that made you feel ashamed of yourself overall.”

2. *Shame events (Feeling ashamed/bad about yourself at work)*. Shame-inducing events were elicited with the question, “Please describe a recent or past negative event or situation that made you feel ashamed/bad about yourself overall when you were working because of your personality, lack of ability, or difficulty you have with consistently carrying through on doing what you think is right. Any minor incidents you didn't meet standards or expectations can be included. Think about some event that made you feel ashamed/bad about yourself overall, and not about one very specific thing that you felt ashamed/bad.”

3. *Beta pride events (Feeling proud of what you did at work)*. Beta pride-inducing events were elicited with the question, “Please describe a recent or past positive event or situation in which you felt competent or proud when you were working because of something you did well or morally good, or you tried hard. Any minor incidents regarding actual achievement or accomplishment can be included. Think about very

specific actions or behaviors you were proud of, and not about something that made you feel proud of yourself overall.”

4. Alpha pride events (Feeling proud of yourself at work). Alpha pride-inducing events were elicited with the question, “Please describe a recent or past event or situation that made you feel competent or proud of yourself overall when you were working because of your personality, stable ability, competence, or morally good nature. Any minor incidents can be included. Think about something that made you feel proud of yourself overall, and not about one very specific thing that you were proud of.”

Self-conscious emotions. Guilt, shame, and pride were assessed using State Shame and Guilt Scale (SSGS) developed by Marschall, Sanftner, and Tangney (1994) on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = not feeling this way at all, 5 = feeling this way very well). Participants were asked, “Keeping the event or situation you described above in mind, please indicate what extent you felt guilty, ashamed (bad), proud.” Each emotion was assessed with five items. Examples of guilt items are “I felt remorse, regret,” and “I felt bad about what I did.” Example items of shame are “I want to sink into the floor and disappear,” and “I feel small.” Since the SSGS does not differentiate alpha- and beta pride, I adapted the items by emphasizing the focus of the evaluation (e.g., “proud of myself,” for alpha pride vs. “proud of what I did,” for beta pride). Examples of beta pride items are “I felt good about what I did,” and “I felt capable and useful because of what I did.” Examples of alpha pride items are “I felt good about myself,” and “I felt capable and useful of myself.” Responses for each emotion were averaged.

Emotion regulation. Following previous research that used a qualitative method to investigate emotional management (Grandey et al., 2002), participants were asked to

report their responses following the affective events using open-ended formats. For guilt and shame, participants were asked, “Please describe anything you did after this experience to reduce or avoid the feelings you had.” For beta- and alpha pride, participants were asked, “Please describe anything you did after this experience to maintain the feelings you had.” In this study, I use emotion regulation and emotion management interchangeably.

Analytic Strategy

Content analysis at the event level was conducted to code each description into the subcategories of events and emotion regulation strategies, similar to procedures used by extant literature (Grandey et al., 2002; Dasborough, 2006; Diefendorff, Richard, & Yang, 2008). As the first step, a subject matter expert who had extensively studied on emotions and I performed content analysis to create a coding scheme and set decision rules, and then a trained research assistant and I coded the data. Based on prior literature on emotions to identify the most common patterns of responses (e.g., Grandey et al., 2002), descriptions were coded into three dimensions: 1) causes of events (i.e., who or what caused events?), 2) domains of events (e.g., task, social, moral domains), and 3) consequences of events (i.e., who is impacted by the events?). Each description of events associated with emotions was coded into multiple subcategories within each dimension and across dimensions (i.e., causes, domains, and consequences of events) of each emotion if applicable.

Interrater reliability for coding of the event descriptions was assessed by calculating the average Cohen’s Kappa. Disagreements between coders were discussed,

and consensus reached. Interrater reliability was $\kappa=.79$ for guilt events, $\kappa=.83$ for shame events, $\kappa=.91$ for beta pride events, and $\kappa=.84$ for alpha pride events. The average reliability for all types of the events was $\kappa=.84$. Kappa of emotional management strategies was $\kappa=.90$ for guilt, $\kappa=.86$ for shame, $\kappa=.82$ for beta pride, and $\kappa=.86$ for alpha pride. The average interrater reliability for all types of emotional management strategies was $\kappa=.86$

The subcategories of events used in this study were derived from an initial review of participants' written descriptions and past research on affective events (e.g. Basch & Fisher, 2000; Bono, Glomb, Shen, Kim, & Koch, 2013; Diefendorff et al., 2008; Grandey et al., 2002). The categories of emotion regulation tactics were also derived from an initial examination of participants' reported descriptions and the extant literature on emotion regulation. More specifically, I reviewed the literature on emotion regulation (e.g., Diefendorff et al., 2008; Gross, 1988, 2013), coping (e.g., Folkman et al., 1986; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Long, 1990), and positive emotion management (e.g., Langston, 1994; Gable et al., 2004; Gable, Gonzaga, Strachman, 2006) to identify emotional regulation strategies.

RESULTS

Antecedents (Events) of Self-Conscious Emotions at Work

Across 327 participants, I received descriptions of 1111 events in which the emotions were associated (Guilt = 267, Shame = 216, Beta pride = 325, Alpha pride = 303). Table 3 shows subcategory, description, and examples of events and Table 4 provides detailed information regarding numbers and percentages of events in each

Table 3

Description and Examples of Events Associated with Self-Conscious Emotions in Study 1

Dimension	Subcategory & Description	Examples ^a
1. Causes of events (i.e. What are the sources or triggers of events that elicit SCEs?)	Knowledge, Skills, and Abilities (KSA) of Self Event characterized by lack or exceptional level of knowledge, skills, and abilities of self	Shame: I am new at opening accounts and I still have to ask for help. The last time I opened one, I really messed up on something that was so simple and I took up more time than I should have. (Customer service representative) Alpha pride: I won a bid for a large project based on my skills to negotiate pricing. (Sales)
	Motivation/Effort of Self Event characterized by low or high level of motivation/effort of self ; event characterized by regulating or failing to regulate motivation/effort of self	Guilt: When under a great deal of pressure, I snapped at a subordinate for no reason. I felt terrible that I made someone feel terrible and very guilty that I couldn't control my temper. (Manager) Beta Pride: Boss wasn't feeling very well and said we wouldn't accomplish much. I sort of "took over" and did a great deal of the work to allow her to rest more. A lot more got done that day than she expected. (Assistant)
	Health/Disability Event characterized by health-related issues	
	Family/Personal life Event characterized by family/personal issues or demands interfering with work	

Table 3 (Continued)

Description and Examples of Events Associated with Self-Conscious Emotions in Study 1

Dimension	Subcategory & Description	Examples ^a
1. Causes of events (i.e. What are the sources or triggers of events that elicit SCEs?)	Others at work (e.g., managers, coworkers, etc.) Event characterized by negative or positive attitudes, behavior, or comments toward self; event characterized by one’s organization’s negative or positive actions/policies	Guilt: The school implemented new ways of handling parent communications, through email only instead of sitting down and speaking with parents more than just during parent conferences. I felt guilty as many parents felt it was best to speak with me in person. (Teacher)
	Situations Event characterized by extreme or exceptional situation or environment; event characterized by meeting or failing to meet deadline	Alpha pride: My boss came over and told me they were proud of how quickly I adapted to the work environment, and that I handled patrons very well. (Library assistant) Guilt: We had a snowstorm coming in. People were going crazy trying to get supplies for being home bound for a few days, merchandise was flying off the shelves. Management gave orders that we were to stay on our assigned schedules, no overtime. At the end of my shift I clocked out as usual but kept on working trying to get the food out for people. Really felt guilty for disregarding management orders, but I felt it was better for the store and the customers. (Produce lead associate)
Dimension 2. Domains of Events	Task performance <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Performance success or failure : Meeting or failing to meet expected task performance consistently; performing tasks “above and beyond” what is expected or extremely poorly 	Shame: An event that made me feel bad about myself is when my supervisor gave a poor evaluation when I first started. She made me feel incompetent and worthless. (Counselor)

Table 3 (Continued)

Description and Examples of Events Associated with Self-Conscious Emotions in Study 1

Dimension	Subcategory & Description	Examples ^a
Dimension 2. Domains of Events	<p>Task performance</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Creative performance : Providing new or creative ideas or solutions • Task independence : Event characterized by cases of completing or failing to complete tasks by oneself without others' help; taking initiatives on beginning or completing a task 	<p>Beta pride: I was able to set up a monitoring system to ensure that client services were delivered in a timely, efficient, and effective manner. The system was reviewed and found to be "exemplary" -- a rare finding since most reviews of this kind of system get a rating of "above average." (Behavioral health specialist)</p>
	<p>Leader behavior of self Managing including assisting, encouraging, training, or rewarding employees well (poorly) as a leader to motivate/retain them or to make them successfully fulfill their job roles</p>	<p>Alpha-pride: There is a high employee retention rate in our IT department, and I feel we all get along well. I'm especially proud of this because I tend to see myself as an easygoing manager. (IT manager)</p>
	<p>Counterproductive Behavior Physical or psychological withdrawal behaviors such as leaving early without permission, coming to work drunk, sleeping at work, being absent or late, spending work time on personal matters, doing work slowly on purpose, using inappropriately one's employer's funds or materials, etc.</p>	<p>Guilt: I recently skipped out on work to go out on the river knowing that there was a rush order coming in that I was assigned to. I missed my chance to show my boss I could accomplish any job (Builder)</p> <p>Guilt: Using business income for personal expenses (Accounting supervisor)</p>

Table 3 (Continued)

Description and Examples of Events Associated with Self-Conscious Emotions in Study 1

Dimension	Subcategory & Description	Examples ^a
Dimension 2. Domains of Events	Social relationship Negative (Positive) social interactions or interpersonal relationships with others (e.g., customers, coworkers, supervisors) including attitudes and behavior toward a focal person as well as others	Shame: Another coworker approached me at work telling me about her home problems. I had been in a bit of bad mood and told her she needed to leave her problems at home and not bring them into work. (Administrative assistant)
	Prosocial or helping behaviors Helping or Failing to help others for work- related issues or non-work issues beyond one's job roles or requirements	Beta-pride: It was last week. We had a code come in and we were shorthanded. I took it upon myself to do my job, help our tech and our ER to make things run more smoothly. (Clinical lab assistant)
	Morality/Immorality <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Doing or failing to do the right thing in fulfilling one's job roles or for one's organization • Moral dilemma/conflict between organizational policy/one's job roles and one's thought/value regarding management or employment-related decisions including hiring, firing, promotion, etc. 	Guilt: Not hiring someone whom I felt was more qualified for a position due to my boss's influence toward another candidate (Human Resources) Alpha-pride: Our beer license got suspended a while back, and my boss was asking me to sell beer anyways. I stood up for my morality and told him no. I couldn't sell the beer knowing I wasn't supposed to. (Manager)
	Job as a whole Having a (new) job; work itself; Job/work characteristics	

Table 3 (Continued)

Description and Examples of Events Associated with Self-Conscious Emotions in Study 1

Dimension	Subcategory & Description	Examples ^a
Dimension 3. Consequences of Events (i.e. Whom the events affect)	<p>Social Recognition of Self Person receives negative (positive) social recognition, evaluation, or unfavorable (favorable) signals about one's competence, abilities, morality, and sociability, etc.; recognition may include an award, bonus, pay raise, promotion, and having an opportunity to do a new task or take on a new role.</p>	<p>Shame: My manager discussed the incident where I made the patient feel I was calling her fat. During our discussion my manager implied that I was the only one she had received complaints about. (Ultrasonographer)</p> <p>Alpha-Pride: I was recognized by the CEO of the company for completing a complex project under budget and on time. (Project Manager)</p>
	<p>Others at work The event affects others (e.g., managers, coworkers, subordinates) at work negatively or positively.</p>	<p>Shame: I was late to work and my coworkers had to cover for me. It slowed everyone down. (Laborer)</p> <p>Alpha pride: I reevaluated employee perks and convinced management we needed to offer much more. (Director)</p>
	<p>Organization The event affects one's or other organizations negatively or positively.</p>	<p>Beta pride: In the past year since I have been working with the company, we have increased employee retention by 25%. (Recruitment Coordinator)</p>
	<p>Customers/Clients The event affects one's customers/clients negatively or positively.</p>	<p>Guilt: I work in healthcare and I did not transfer a lady properly resulting in a skin tear because she is 100 years old and you have to be careful because their skin tears easily. And of course I have to report it to the nurse. I felt bad about that. (Nursing Assistant)</p>

Table 3 (Continued)

Description and Examples of Events Associated with Self-Conscious Emotions in Study 1

Dimension	Subcategory & Description	Examples ^a
Dimension 3. Consequences of Events (i.e. Whom the events affect)	Customers/Clients The event affects one’s customers/clients negatively or positively.	Beta pride: One of my patients was in respiratory distress. I called a rapid response and as a team we saved my patients life. A few days later they walked out of the hospital. That makes my job worth it. (Nurse)
	Financial Outcomes The event affects financial outcomes negatively or positively.	Beta pride: I performed a home appliance demonstration and showed the customer how the product worked. They were pleased and enthusiastic about the demonstration and this resulted in a sale. (product demonstrator)

Note. ^a Each description of events associated with emotions was coded into multiple subcategories within each dimension and across dimensions (i.e., causes, domains, and consequences of events) if applicable. For instance, the examples provided in causes of events are also coded as “task performance,” “social relationship,” or “helping behavior” in domains of events, or “others at work.” in consequences of events; we provided examples for events that have at least 50 cases; participants’ job titles are provided in parenthesis.

Table 4
Number of Antecedents for Each Emotion in Study 1

Antecedents (Events)	Total number of events by emotion				$\chi^{2a}(df)$
	Guilt (<i>n</i> = 267)	Shame (<i>n</i> = 216)	Beta pride (<i>n</i> = 325)	Alpha pride (<i>n</i> = 303)	
1. Causes of events (Who or What caused events?)					
1. Knowledge, Skill, and Ability of self	109(30.5)	88(31)	231(55.5)	189(49.5)	80.079(3)*
2. Motivation/Effort of Self	150(42)	93(32.7)	116(27.9)	116(30.4)	28.767(3)*
3. Health/Disability of Self	6(1.7)	21(7.4)	0(0)	1(.3)	60.004(3)*
4. Family/Personal life	7(2)	11(3.9)	0(0)	0(0)	28.363(3)*
5. Others at work	53(14.8)	49(17.3)	37(8.9)	52(13.6)	13.603(3)*
6. Situations	32(9)	22(7.7)	32(7.7)	24(6.3)	2.652(3)
<i>Total^c</i>	357	284	416	382	
$\chi^{2b}(df)$	368.885(5)*	173.084(5)*	740.112(5)*	559.513(5)*	
2. Domains of events					
1. Task performance	168(45.9)	104(41.2)	227(56.3)	180(51.2)	26.447(3)*
2. Leadership behavior of self	20(5.3)	11(4.2)	17(3.8)	16(4.4)	1.946(3)
3. Counterproductive behavior	59(16.6)	29(11.9)	4(.9)	7(1.9)	102.50(3)*
4. Prosocial/Helping Behavior	28(7.4)	25(9.6)	114(25.7)	94(25.8)	76.025(3)*
5. Social interaction/relationship	56(14.8)	62(23.8)	36(8.1)	37(10.1)	36.606(3)*
6. Morality/Immorality	35(9.2)	16(6.2)	12(2.7)	7(1.9)	33.328(3)*
7. Job as a whole	3(.8)	8(3.1)	11(2.5)	17(4.7)	8.475(3)
<i>Total^c</i>	379	260	444	365	
$\chi^{2b}(df)$	420.912(6)*	240.309(6)*	827.549(6)*	586.651(6)*	
3. Consequences of events (Who is impacted by events?)					
1. Social Recognition of self	12(6.5)	19(17.1)	49(18.6)	59(26.1)	33.767(3)*
2. Others at work (Managers, coworkers, employees)	71(38.2)	45(40.5)	61(23.1)	64(28.3)	5.536(3)
3. Organization	18(9.7)	10(9)	20(7.6)	12(5.3)	2.782(3)
4. Customers/Clients	78(41.9)	32(28.8)	96(36.4)	71(31.4)	18.477(3)*
5. Financial Outcomes	7(3.8)	5(4.5)	38(14.4)	20(8.8)	27.983(3)*
<i>Total^c</i>	186	111	264	226	
$\chi^{2b}(df)$	147.509(4)*	54.073(4)*	73.330(4)*	76.625(4)*	

Note. Bold values indicate the most frequently reported event that elicits each emotion. The numbers in parenthesis are a percentage of each antecedent for each emotion within each dimension. The Chi-Square (χ^{2a}) tests compare proportions of each self-conscious emotion for each antecedent. The Chi-Square (χ^{2b}) tests compare proportions of each antecedent for each emotion within each dimension. * significant at .001 level.
^c Since each description of events associated with emotions was coded into multiple subcategories within each dimension and across dimensions if applicable, the total number of events coded is larger than the number of events reported.

dimension. The first dimension, causes of events, includes six subcategories: knowledge/skill/ability of self, motivation/effort of self, health/disability of self, family/personal life, others at work, and situations. In this dimension, low level of motivation/effort of self and lack of knowledge/skill/ability of self were the main causes attributed to both guilt (42% and 30.5%) and shame (32.7% and 31%). Exceptional level of knowledge/skill/ability and high level of motivation/effort of self were the first and second most represented attributed antecedents for beta and alpha pride (55.5% and 27.9% for beta pride, 49.5% and 30.4% for alpha pride). Others at work (e.g., customers/clients, managers, and coworkers) were the third common attributed causes of all types of emotions.

For each emotion, χ^2 tests were conducted within each dimension, which showed that proportions of all subcategories for each emotion were significantly different. Across the four emotions, χ^2 tests were also conducted to compare proportions of events associated with self-conscious emotions for each antecedent. The proportions of events associated with each emotion for each attributed antecedent were significantly different except for situations. Exceptional level of knowledge/skill/ability of self was the most common source of beta pride, whereas low level of motivation/effort of self was the most frequent attributed cause of guilt compared to other emotions. Health/disability and family/personal life issues interfering work were the most commonly attributed causes for shame compared to other emotions, although the numbers were relatively small.

Domains of events include seven subcategories: task performance, leader behavior of self, counterproductive behavior, prosocial/helping behavior, social interaction/relationship, morality/immorality, and the job as a whole. Performance failure,

including negative performance feedback, mainly was associated with guilt and shame (45.9%, 41.2%), whereas performance success including positive performance feedback mainly was associated with beta and alpha pride (56.3%, 51.2%). Comparing frequency of events associated with self-conscious emotions for each antecedent, we found that counterproductive behavior (e.g., physical or psychological work withdrawal) and immorality (e.g., failing to do the right thing in fulfilling one's job roles) were the most commonly attributed sources of guilt, and negative social interaction with others (e.g., negative attitudes, behavior, and comments such as rudeness toward a focal person or those of the focal person toward others) were the most commonly attributed source of shame. Successful task performance and helping behavior mostly were associated with beta-pride compared to other emotions; χ^2 tests were significant for these comparisons.

The last dimension, perceived consequences of events, which means who is impacted by events, includes five subcategories: social recognition of self, others at work, the organization, customers/clients, and financial outcomes. People felt guilty most commonly when they believed that they negatively influenced customers/clients (41.9%), whereas people felt ashamed most commonly when they believed that they negatively influenced others at work including managers, coworkers, and subordinates (40.5%). People most frequently felt proud when they believed that they positively influenced customers/clients (36.4% for beta pride, 31.4% for alpha pride). Comparing frequency of events associated with self-conscious emotions for each antecedent, I found that acquiring positive social recognition including an award, bonus, or promotion was most commonly associated with alpha pride events. Positive influence on customers/clients

and achieving financial outcomes were the most common impact associated with beta pride events; χ^2 tests were also significant for these comparisons.

Emotional Regulation Strategy Use

Across the 327 participants, 1103 emotional management strategies were reported (Guilt = 266, Shame = 215, Beta pride = 322, Alpha pride = 300). Emotion regulation strategies for guilt and shame include six subcategories: active problem-solving (problem-solving, future guilt/shame avoidance, social support), repair (apology, compensating), avoidance (emotional and behavioral), problem-reappraisal (cognitive reappraisal, justification/rationalization, and acceptance), emotion suppression, and no reaction. Each description of emotional management strategies was coded into multiple subcategories if applicable.

Table 5 and 6 provide description, examples, and quantitative summaries of emotional management strategies for guilt and shame. I identified the specific types of emotional management strategies for guilt and shame, utilizing the coping (Long, 1990) and emotion regulation literature (Gross, 1988). For positive events, I utilized research on responses to positive emotions such as savoring emotions (Langston, 1994) and sharing positive events with others, termed capitalization (Gable, Reis, Impett, and Asher, 2004).

Overall, guilty and ashamed employees used approach-oriented and adaptive strategies most commonly. For example, active, planful problem-solving and repair were the most common tactics employees used to reduce or avoid both guilt (32.5% and 30.7%) and shame (36.1% and 25.5%) respectively. Problem-appraisal was the third most represented category employees used to deal with both guilt (20.3%) and shame (19%).

Table 5

Description and Examples of Emotional Management Strategies for Guilt and Shame in Study 1

Main category	Subcategory & Description	Examples ^a
Active, Planful Problem-solving	<p>Problem-solving coping Active efforts oriented toward confronting, solving the actual problem, or fixing the problem</p>	<p>Guilt: I discussed it with the test engineer and created an alternate solution. (Data Acquisition Engineer)</p> <p>Shame: I tried to correct my mistakes and worked hard to prove my supervisor wrong. (Counselor)</p>
	<p>Future-focused guilt/shame avoidance Self-controlling attitudes/behavior not to repeat the mistake or failure again (not fixing the problem like problem-solving); corrective future-focused behavior/motivation to prevent the same mistake</p>	<p>Guilt: I told my supervisor and promised I would take a little more time in each room to make sure I never miss anything again. (Housekeeper)</p> <p>Shame: I swear to the Boss not to repeat that again. (IT Consultant)</p>
	<p>Seeking social support: Talking to or asking help to people including others at work (e.g., coworkers, supervisors) and those outside of work (e.g., family, friends)</p>	<p>Guilt: Went to my supervisor and explained what happened (Production)</p> <p>Shame: I cried and vented to a coworker. Another coworker heard me and cut them out for me [disability issue] (Office Manager).</p>
Repair	<p>Apology Apologizing to others</p>	<p>Guilt: Took the client to dinner and apologized for not thinking ahead to their risk aversion. (Sr. Sales Executive)</p>
	<p>Compensating Doing something else to make up (not solving the actual problem, not fixing the exact same thing); doing additional thing to make up for or balance the situation</p>	<p>Shame: I apologized to the customer over and over. After he left, I sent a thank you note for his business and his patience with me. (Customer Service Representative)</p>

Table 5

Description and Examples of Emotional Management Strategies for Guilt and Shame in Study 1

Main category	Subcategory & Description	Examples ^a
Avoidance	Emotion- and behavior-related Avoidance Efforts to reduce tension by avoiding dealing with the problem; avoiding the situation by not thinking about it, wishing it would be gone, or detaching oneself physically from the situation	Guilt: I avoided talking to my boss. (Receptionist) Shame: I switched classrooms to get a break, vented to coworkers and boyfriend, and applied for jobs (Teacher)
	Cognitive Reappraisal Reappraising and reinterpreting the situation positively overall	Guilt: I forgave myself because no one knows everything all of the time. I learned something that I can take with me in future business transactions. I'm over it. (Writer) Shame: Put it out of my mind and try to focus on something else (night clerk)
Problem-Reappraisal	Justification/Rationalization Justified/rationalized the situation or behavior of self	Guilt: I justified my actions by saying the project was cancelled anyway so not much time was wasted trying to get it moving. (Curriculum developer)
	Accepting responsibilities Admitting/Accepting that one caused the problem or made a mistake	
Emotion Suppression	Keeping negative emotions to self and controlling negative emotions by not expressing or talking to others	
No reaction	Did nothing	

Note. ^aEach description of emotional management strategies was coded into multiple subcategories of each emotion if applicable; we provided examples of emotional management strategies that have at least 20 cases.

Table 6
Emotion Management Strategies for Guilt and Shame in Study 1

Total number of strategies by emotion					
Emotional management strategies	Guilt	Shame	χ^2	df	Sig.
	(n = 266)	(n = 215)			
Active, planful problem-solving (Problem-solving, Future-focused guilt/shame avoidance, Social support)	109(32.5)	95(36.1)	1.141	1	.285
Repair (Apology, Compensating)	103(30.7)	67(25.5)	3.035	1	.081
Avoidance (Emotion, Behavior)	20(6)	24(9.1)	1.099	1	.295
Problem-reappraisal (Cognitive Reappraisal, Justification/	68(20.3)	50(19)	.046	1	.830
Rationalization, Acceptance)					
Emotion suppression	3(0.9)	3(1.1)	.069	1	.793
No reaction	32(9.6)	24(9.1)	.087	1	.768
Total	335	263			

Note. Bold values indicate the most frequently reported regulation strategy to reduce or avoid each emotion. The numbers in parenthesis are a percentage of each emotion management strategy use for each emotion. The Chi Square (χ^2) tests compare if use of each emotion management strategy is significantly different between guilt and shame.

These findings are consistent with the previous studies suggesting the constructive function of guilt. Counter to the past studies on shame suggesting the maladaptive function of shame, the results showed that ashamed employees also tried to solve their

problems or change shame-inducing situations in adaptive ways by correcting their actions, apologizing, or making up for their mistakes. Although ashamed employees used avoidance strategies more often (9.1%) than guilty people (6%), the strategies were used relatively less often compared to other adaptive strategies. Use of each strategy to manage guilt and shame was not significantly different, as shown by χ^2 tests.

Table 7 and 8 show the specific examples, numbers, and percentages of emotional management strategies for beta and alpha pride. Emotion management strategies include nine subcategories: capitalization with people at work, capitalization with people outside work, recognition to self, recognition from others, continuous task effort for achievement, continuous prosocial or helping behavior, emotion-focused management, emotion suppression, and no reaction. When people feel proud of their behavior and themselves, they exerted continuous effort for achievement most commonly (30.4% for beta pride, 27.3% for alpha pride) that is consistent with the motivational behavior of positive emotions like pride (George & Brief, 1996; Grandey et al., 2002). Proud people also engaged in emotion-focused management such as savoring and thinking about positive benefits of the pride event (17.8% for beta pride, 19.4% for alpha pride) and shared the event with others at work (12.9% for beta pride, 11.3% for alpha pride). No reaction was also one of the most common responses (20.1% for beta pride, 18.8% for alpha pride). Overall, the use of emotion regulation strategies was not significantly different between beta and alpha pride, except for capitalization with people outside work. When people felt proud of themselves, they shared the pride-inducing event with people outside work (e.g., family) more commonly than with people at work.

Table 7

Category, Description, and Examples of Emotional Management Strategies for Beta and Alpha Pride in Study 1

Main category	Subcategory & Description	Examples ^a
Capitalization	<p>Capitalization attempts at work</p> <p>The process of informing another person about the occurrence of a personal positive event and thereby deriving additional benefit from it such as seeking social contact, letting others know at work; marking responses (doing something to mark its occurrence) including rewarding others, celebrating with others at work</p>	<p>Beta pride: I called a store meeting, congratulated my employees and explained what WE did, and I had a little party for them, pizza and pop for all, and their gifts (Manager).</p> <p>Alpha pride: I went out and celebrated over dinner with other managers! (Assistant manager)</p>
	<p>Capitalization attempts outside work</p> <p>Letting others outside work (family, friends, etc.) know about pride events; expressing your feelings in public outside work; rewarding others</p>	<p>Alpha pride: I verbally shared the experience with family members and friends. (Sole Proprietor)</p>
Recognition	<p>Recognition to self or from others</p> <p>Rewarding to self by providing something to myself such as clothes, trips, meals, etc.; appreciated, recognized, praised by others or organizations including receiving bonus, an award or promotion, etc.</p>	
Effort for Valued Outcomes	<p>Continuous task effort for achievement</p> <p>Exerting continuous, greater task effort for achievement or better performance; motivating to work harder; continuing with routine; focusing on the work the self should have completed on the day</p>	<p>Beta pride: I maintained a high level of work excellence. I continued to work harder every day to chase that next great feeling of accomplishment. (Sales and Customer Service)</p> <p>Alpha pride: Just keep doing the best I can, paying attention to detail. (Reservations specialist)</p>

Table 7

Category, Description, and Examples of Emotional Management Strategies for Beta and Alpha Pride in Study 1

Main category	Subcategory & Description	Examples ^a
Effort for Valued Outcomes	Continuous prosocial or helping behavior Doing continuous prosocial or helping behaviors; motivating to help others more often in the future	Beta pride: I made sure that I'm always available to help my coworkers out no matter how busy the day became. (Medical Assistant)
	Continuous effort for morality (moral actions) Exerting continuous effort for morality; motivating to do moral actions in the future	Alpha pride: I tried to help out more while doing my own job. (Third Party Collector)
Emotion-focused management	Emotion-focused management Savoring or seizing the moment or emotions; thinking about the pride event; feeling a positive benefit	Beta pride: After I tried to maintain my feelings by thinking about the event and making sure to run a similar group again with other children so I can help them out. (Counselor)
	Emotion Suppression Keeping positive emotions to self and being careful not expressing them	Alpha pride: Just as it is healthy to let go of the negative at work, it is also necessary to enjoy the good moments and also move on. (Certified Nurse Assistant)
No reaction	Did nothing	

Note. ^aEach description of emotional management strategies was coded into multiple subcategories of each emotion if applicable; we provided examples of emotional management strategies that have at least 20 cases.

Table 8
Emotional Management Strategies for Beta and Alpha pride in Study 1

Emotional Management Strategies	Total number of strategies by emotion		χ^2	df	Sig.
	Beta pride (n = 322)	Alpha pride (n = 300)			
Capitalization with people at work	45(12.9)	36(11.3)	.535	1	.465
Capitalization with people outside work	15(4.3)	29(9.1)	5.926	1	.015
Recognition to self	6(1.7)	12(3.8)	2.523	1	.112
Recognition from others	11(3.2)	11(3.4)	.029	1	.866
Continuous task effort for achievement	106(30.4)	87(27.3)	1.115	1	.291
Continuous prosocial or helping behavior	29(8.3)	21(6.6)	.846	1	.358
Emotion-focused management	62(17.8)	62(19.4)	.194	1	.660
Emotion suppression	5(1.4)	1(0.3)	2.418	1	.120
No reaction	70(20.1)	60(18.8)	.284	1	.594
Total	349	319			

Note. Bold values indicate the most frequently reported regulation strategy to maintain or promote each emotion. The numbers in parenthesis are a percentage of each emotion management strategy use for each emotion. The Chi-Square (χ^2) tests compare if use of each emotion management strategy is significantly different between beta and alpha pride.

DISCUSSION

This study endeavored to develop an understanding of self-conscious emotions in work contexts. The workplace is a social setting where success and failure are happened frequently, and most people can readily recall instances of strong feelings of shame, guilt, and pride. Given the significant omissions in prior research in the emotion and management literature, our study was necessarily exploratory in nature. The qualitative information on types of and responses to self-conscious emotions at work may help subsequent investigations develop and test hypotheses regarding antecedents and consequences of self-conscious emotions.

In addition to revealing subcategories of events associated with self-conscious emotions consistent with previous research (e.g., pride, Basch & Fisher, 2000; Grandey et al., 2000), I identified them more precisely using three dimensions of perceived causes, domains, and consequences of events. I integrated the two perspectives that self-conscious emotions can arise from self-evaluation or inferences about how an individual is evaluated by others. The main attributed causes of events associated with these emotions were employees' self-evaluative events regarding their competence (i.e. knowledge, skill, ability) and motivation/effort whether they met or failed to meet their own or organizational goals, norms, and standards. Some of the events regarding competence and motivation also included respondents' appraisals of whether they were or would be perceived negatively or positively by others. External sources, such as others' (e.g., managers, coworkers) favorable or unfavorable attitudes and behavior were also frequently the attributed causes of the events associated with these emotions, demonstrating the importance of external evaluations. Future research can benefit from

this taxonomy of perceived causes, domains, and consequences by ensuring that an adequate measurement strategy is employed to capture each of these categories, as well as by developing theories that highlight why these specific categories emerge as the most significant topics addressed by respondents given open-ended prompts.

Regarding domains of events, I found that task performance failure or success was the most common domain associated with all types of emotions. These results extend theoretical work suggesting the importance of the individual self in the self-concept (Sedikides, Gaertner, & O'Mara, 2011) by emphasizing that fulfilling or unfulfilling the individual self is associated with a positive or negative self-conscious emotional experience. The individual self consists of attributes (e.g., traits, goals, behaviors) that differentiate the individual from others (Sedikides et al., 2011). In the individual self, the core attributes of the self-presentation are positive and significant, affect dealing with the following information, and are hard to accept negative feedback but open to positive feedback (Markus, 1977; Sedikides, 1993). Consistent with prior research that feedback threatening or maintaining the self is associated with emotional experiences (Sedikides & Gaertner, 2001), our findings show that task performance that hurts or maintains a positive self-image is especially central to an individual in the workplace, and thus may lead to intense self-conscious emotions. As researchers suggested that there is a need to incorporate the self and self-conscious emotions in theoretical models (Tracy & Robins, 2004a), this study adds a theoretical contribution to the literature by providing a promising connection between the self and emotional experiences about the self in the workplace.

These results are also comparable to a study showing the importance of work progress for emotional reactions (Bono et al., 2013). Research suggested that positive events such as work progress and a task accomplishment build psychological resources (Ryan & Deci, 2000) by enhancing a sense of mastery or a positive self-regard that are core components of well-being (Ryff & Singer, 1988). From the research, we do know work progress is likely to produce positive affect in particular. This study suggests that consistent with the findings, work achievements are uniquely powerful as elements of pride. Moreover, these results show that failures in the task domain are uniquely and powerfully related to negative outcomes as well.

Comparing frequency of each type of events across emotions, I found that the most represented domains were moral events for guilt, social events for shame, and task performance and helping events for beta pride. These findings help us better understand which emotion is relatively more likely to be associated with particular domains in an individual self-concept at work. A recent review provided a theoretical framework of the moral self, putting self-conscious emotions as one of the categories of moral self-constructs, based on empirical work on the moral self (Jennings, Mitchell, & Hannah, 2014) and self-conscious emotion literature suggesting self-reflection makes these emotions a central part of the moral self (Tangney et al., 2007a, 2007b). Social psychology literature also has suggested that morality is an important component of a positive individual- and group-level self-concept (Ellemers, Pagliaro, Barreto, & Leach, 2008; Leach et al., 2007) that may also be considered as the individual and collective self (Sedikides et al. (2011) respectively. In line with this research, I found a higher frequency of guilt from immorality-related issues. Employees felt guilty not only when they thought

they violated their moral standards or norms, but also when their supervisors or organization failed to meet moral standards or push them to do the immoral behavior. Supporting prior work on guilt as a negative affective response to an individual's or a group's moral identity threat (e.g., Ellemers, Spears, & Doosju, 2002), the current study provides information on events violating or threatening an employee's moral identity as an individual or as a member of an organization.

Moreover, consistent with previous research suggesting a significant association of morality with the positive evaluation of self and pride in one's in-group (e.g., Leach et al., 2007), the findings about pride from moral events may also provide implications for future research on the role of moral identity and pride in moral behavior at work. Further, more arousal of shame from social events supports previous research suggesting that shame is a key affective response to "social self" threats such as social evaluation or rejection (Dickerson, Gruenewald, & Kemeny, 2004). Consistent with this research, I found that shame was reported when participants thought the "social self" was threatened by their actions toward others (e.g., less self-controlled or unfriendly attitudes/behavior toward others at work, inappropriate comments in a meeting) as well as by others (e.g., bullying by coworkers or a supervisor, rudeness by customers). These findings represent a future integration of self-conscious emotion literature with literature on self as well as social identity.

I found other sources, including different dimensions that may be more influential to working individuals than students or adults in life in general. For example, health/disability and family/personal life issues interfering with work, leader behavior (e.g., transformational leadership, abusive supervision), and financial outcomes an

individual achieved could weaken or strengthen the individual's work identity and thus generate intense negative or positive self-conscious emotions in the workplace. These findings suggest that the work domain is indeed distinct from other life domains when self-conscious emotions are concerned.

Concerning consequences, I found that guilt, shame, and pride were most pronounced when outcomes of the events affected coworkers, subordinates, or customers. These results suggest that a perceived outcome of the events on others is one of the important attributes in understanding self-conscious emotions. Theoretical work has proposed that a cognitive appraisal of outcome interdependencies may differentiate guilt from shame in the workplace (i.e., other-oriented outcomes vs. self-oriented distress, Bohns & Flynn, 2013, p. 1162). For example, past evidence suggests that guilt is more likely to arise when people evaluate that their actions harm others or affect others' outcomes (Manstead & Tetlock 1989), whereas shame tends to emerge when they judge that their actions affect others' evaluations of them (Tangney, 1992). Combining these lines of research, Bohns and Flynn (2013) suggested that performance failures in organizations may be considered as "transgressions against group" including the organization, one's unit, or one's coworkers (p.1159). Such transgressions are more likely to generate guilt than shame, since they focus attention on the harm caused to others. The finding regarding guilt from performance failure affecting others at work supports the argument.

However, people also felt ashamed when they thought they caused adverse outcomes to others (e.g., customers). It is possible that the theoretical distinctions between a purely personal performance failure linked to shame can't be differentiated

from a socially observed performance failure that affects others linked to guilt in field research. In other words, self-conscious emotions in the social and achievement oriented work domain have a personal component pertaining one's own competence leading to some shame, and a social component because one's work has downstream consequences for co-workers, supervisors, and customers leading to some guilt.

Likewise, participants felt proud about themselves as well as their behavior when they appraised they had a positive impact on customers/clients and others at work. It makes sense that creating a positive impact on customers and others at work can be considered as one's achievement or contribution to a valued outcome for others, which makes one feel proud (Lazarus, 1991). These findings theoretically relate to job characteristic theory which proposes that job dimensions such as skill variety, task identity, and task significance contribute to the experienced meaningfulness of work (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). The job characteristics model proposes that when an individual perform a challenging task successfully using their skills (i.e. skill variety) or understand his or her work or helping behavior have an important influence on other's well-being (i.e. task significance), the meaningfulness of the work is enhanced (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). The findings of the current study suggest that experienced pride from the positive outcome of the events on others may be one of the reasons that enhance meaningfulness of work. As the theory suggests that the experienced meaningfulness of work contributes to increasing internal work motivation and high quality performance, this study also found that proud people were more motivated to exert continuous effort for their work and help others. This suggests that future research related to self-conscious

emotions at work should ensure that the effects of work on others be a major consideration.

Another key contribution of this study was regarding the patterns of emotional regulation strategies. I found that people were likely to engage in approach-oriented, constructive responses such as problem-solving to alleviate both guilt and shame at work. There was no significant difference in use of types of strategies to reduce guilt and shame. The results add theoretically important findings to the controversy in the self-conscious emotions literature. Prior theory and research have partially emphasized that guilt and shame can be clearly differentiated by the associated action tendencies, with guilt producing higher levels of repair behavior or proactively addressing failures, whereas shame produces higher levels of avoidance. Although avoidance action tendency of shame has been a prevalent perspective in the literature, recent research has found that shame is associated with approach and prosocial behaviors (e.g., De Hooge, Zeelenberg, & Breugelmans, 2010). De Hooge and his colleagues (2010) found that shame encouraged approach behavior to restore the negative and threatened self-image when the opportunity is given. As a result, the restore motive promotes approach behaviors such as engaging in achievement situations, attempting new challenges, and performing prosocial behavior toward others (De Hooge, 2013).

The work setting may also influence the reasons that shame is associated with active problem-solving responses. In organizations, having a positive self-image as a competent employee or a good coworker may be particularly important. In unstructured social settings, strategies for shame reduction like avoiding a situation where you have failed or a person who makes you feel incompetent, are more possible. In the workplace,

task demands and rules essentially require individuals to continue working on tasks that may have been a source of shame previously. An ashamed employee following performance failure or wrongdoings will be motivated to have another work project to reprove his capacity or exert more effort into his tasks to restore his negative image, or act prosocially toward others to restore the damaged relationship. The findings of this study are consistent with a study on emotion regulation of negative emotions at work, suggesting that avoidance-oriented approach to dealing with negative emotions may not be appropriate or useful at work, compared to more adaptive, approach-oriented emotion regulation strategies (Diffendorff et al., 2008). Further, they suggested that emotion regulation strategies for negative emotions may be organized by distinguishing between the use of approach and avoidance strategies (Roth & Cohen, 1986). This study advances our understanding of approach- and avoidance-oriented emotion regulation strategies of guilt and shame that Diffendorff et al (2008) did not examine in their study.

Regarding the emotional management strategies of pride, I found that employees chose similar approach-oriented and prosocial strategies to maintain beta and alpha pride. There was no significant difference in use of strategies to maintain or promote their positive feelings between beta- and alpha pride except capitalization with people outside of work via a χ^2 test ($p = .015$). People who feel proud of themselves are more likely to share their pride event with their family and friends than those who feel proud of their behavior. It may be relevant to a study of emotional regulation outcomes from disclosure of their positive or negative work events with coworkers (Hadley, 2014). In the study, although most participants in the qualitative interviews reported that capitalizing positive events with coworkers enhanced their positive emotions, some of the participants chose

not to share their positive emotions with others since it might make their coworkers feel envy or resentful, or think they are bragging, which in turn give them anxiety or defensiveness (Hadley, 2014). Due to these reasons, sharing their proud feeling of themselves with their family or friends may be a better outlet to maintain their positive feelings without thinking others' judgments at work. Doing nothing special was one of the most common strategies, but, it is not surprising in that people may not engage in any particular tactic to reinforce pride due to the positivity of a pride event itself.

Regarding responses to pride, the most important findings I need to shed light on are the proactive and prosocial functions of pride in the workplace. As Fredrickson (1998, 2001) suggested that positive affective experiences would expand an individual's activities and build their enduring personal resources including physical, social, and psychological resources. Consistent with the argument and earlier research on responses to positive emotions, proud employees reported various broaden activities to maintain or seize the positive feelings behaviorally, socially, and internally. More specifically, they engaged in approach behavior rather than avoidant behavior such as exerting greater effort for achievement, creating alternative solutions, helping or being willing to help others at work more often, capitalizing with others, and savoring emotions. These findings suggest that the benefits of pride in organizations and ways of magnifying pride should have more attention of organizational researchers as well as managers since the proactive and positive motivational function of pride may be a strong driver for individuals' and others' well-being as well as organizational success. Future research needs to investigate the effect of pride above and beyond general positive affect.

Limitations and Future Research

Despite the significant findings, this study also has limitations that suggest future research is needed. Since I asked participants to recall the recent or past events, the retrospective descriptions are prone to various forms of recall bias, including overemphasis of especially salient events, underestimating one's own role in creating problems, and simple decay of memories over time (Henry, Moffitt, Caspi, Langley, & Silva, 1994). For example, people reported more recent beta- and alpha pride events occurred within the past month on average, but, recalled less recent guilt- and shame events occurred from prior to the past month to within the past year on average. The descriptions of guilt and shame events occurred more than six months ago and the following responses may be less accurate due to memory loss.

Moreover, since I did not capture when they actually engaged in certain types of emotional management strategies, it was not clear if they used a certain emotional management strategy right after the event, or a few days later. People might also report more adaptive strategies they finally used or dealt with the situation than avoidant or maladaptive strategies (Mather, Shafir, & Johnson, 2000). Over time, negative emotions such as regret tend to motivate individuals to re-evaluate their decisions or behavior and engage in corrective actions that often bring improvement in life circumstances (Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2007).

Regarding the types of and responses to guilt vs. shame and beta- vs. alpha pride, some participants do not differentiate these emotions clearly although I provided descriptions including different focus of evaluation for each emotion. Some of them reported similar events for guilt and shame as well as beta- and alpha pride. As a result,

their responses to guilt were similar with those to shame as responses to beta pride were similar with those to alpha-pride.

As another limitation, although the open-ended responses and analysis used in this current study were appropriate to investigating discrete emotional experiences from a phenomenological perspective (Garot, 2004; Lazarus, 2000; Hadley, 2014), I cannot offer statistical inferences regarding relationships among constructs based on these comments. It may not differentiate self-conscious emotions from other general positive or negative emotions clearly. Establishing a clearer picture of how events are linked with self-conscious emotions will require a strategy that allows for the measurement of multiple other correlates of these experiences. In addition, when asked to report an emotional episode, people are likely to describe many components such as the eliciting event, the co-occurrence of multiple discrete emotions, coping responses, and outcomes of the event in an open-ended description (Frijida, 1993). In the current study, participants also reported a mixture of self-conscious emotions and other general positive and negative emotions (e.g., happy, sad, angry) in their qualitative descriptions. More importantly, the approach of Study 1 could not address the argument that emotions fluctuate in response to an event over time within an individual (Gooty, Gavin, & Ashkanasy, 2009), and emotional states and the following psychological and behavioral outcomes are considered to be episodic and discrete in nature (Spence, Brown, Keeping, & Lian, 2014).

To overcome these limitations, testing the relationships quantitatively would be a fruitful future direction. As a result, I turn to the field to capture momentary responses to work events associated with self-conscious emotions and assess more accurate effects of

employees' discrete self-conscious emotional states on workplace attitudes and behaviors above and beyond general positive and negative affect.

**CHAPTER 4: STUDY 2 – BENEFICIAL OR HARMFUL WITHIN-
PERSON EFFECTS OF SELF-CONSCIOUS EMOTIONS ON INDIVIDUAL AND
ORGANIZATIONAL OUTCOMES: AN EXPERIENCE SAMPLING STUDY**

SECTION 4.1. INTRODUCTION

Study 1 identified many of the common work events associated with self-conscious emotions and the behavioral reactions to manage these episodes. This initial step is very useful for the development of a more focused survey-based diary study because it indicates what material should be included in the scales to capture the most common antecedents and responses. However, Study 1 cannot articulate the temporal fluctuations of emotions and the subsequent responses. Research using traditional cross-sectional, between-persons designs conceptualized constructs are stable over time and assumed the within-person variability as errors (Beal, Weiss, Barros, & MacDermid, 2005; Ilies & Judge, 2002). Surprisingly, there is very little research in general on daily self-conscious emotions, especially in the work domain. Most research on self-conscious emotions is based on recall or hypothetical scenarios experienced in the laboratory and focus on a tendency to experience self-conscious emotions (e.g., guilt-proneness). This research may miss the ways that one's self-conscious emotions vary on a day-to-day or hourly basis, and is also likely to miss the many smaller fluctuations in self-conscious emotions that are not salient in longer-term recall. People can experience the regular flow of self-conscious feelings at work in response to daily work situations regarding their performance, social interactions with others, and personal or organizational norms.

Although time frames will fluctuate (Beal et al., 2005), such feelings are in a constant state of flux.

Accordingly, Study 2 tests the effects of changing momentary self-relevant work events and self-conscious emotions on substantive within-person variabilities of individual and organizational outcomes at work using an experience sampling methodology (ESM; Nezlek, 2001). This approach will capture individuals' spontaneous assessments of daily emotional experiences and the following responses at that point in time and help reduce memory bias (Wallbott & Scherer, 1989), which will supplement Study 1 and other recall-based measures. The results of Study 2 will advance our knowledge of uniquely helpful, or maladaptive within-person effects of self-conscious emotions on daily individual psychological outcomes and organizational performance even after general positive and negative affective states are accounted for.

SECTION 4.2: WITHIN-PERSON EFFECTS OF SELF-RELEVANT WORK EVENTS ON SELF-CONSCIOUS EMOTIONS AT WORK

Affective events theory (AET, Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) proposes that work events lead to emotional reactions, which in turn form workplace attitudes and behaviors (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Using this framework, researchers have investigated a broad range of affective events as antecedents of affective responses including goal-enhancing and goal-disruptive events (Zohar, Tzischinski, & Epstein, 2003), positive work, supervisor, and coworker events (Miner, Glomb, & Hulin, 2005), interpersonal justice (Judge, Scott, & Ilies, 2006), and interpersonal interaction characteristics (Dimotakis, Scott, & Koopman, 2011). However, AET does not provide specific

propositions which types of events would elicit discrete positive or negative affective states. To fill this gap, a recent study developed a comprehensive taxonomy of positive and negative affective work events and associated affective states (Ohly & Schmitt, 2015). However, their framework is not adequate in explaining the process that drives self-conscious emotions. General positive and negative work events that do not require the self-evaluative process or that are attributed externally would not lead to self-conscious emotions. In the process model of self-conscious emotions, Tracy and Robins (2004) propose that events appraised as relevant to survival goals and attributed externally are likely to lead to one of the basic emotions (e.g., fear, joy). However, events appraised as relevant to and congruent/incongruent with one's identity-goal and attributed internally only produce self-conscious emotions. As a result, previous research on affective events does not provide enough evidence to predict antecedents of self-conscious emotions in the workplace.

Incorporating self, appraisal, and attribution theories into the process driving self-conscious emotions (e.g., Brown, 1998; Tangney, 1991; Tracy & Robins, 2004; Weiner, 1985), I argue that work events accompanied by the process of reflection on self or one's behavior regarding values and standards will lead to self-conscious emotions. Since there is no relevant scale to assess antecedents of self-conscious emotions at work, I used events reported in Study 1 in conjunction with prior research on affective events and antecedents of self-conscious emotions in other non-work settings. Study 1 revealed the three overarching domains of events associated with self-conscious emotions at work: task performance, social events including helping, and moral events. Applying these domains to this study, I predict that daily work events that reflect poorly on one's own

competence, sociability, or integrity will influence guilt or shame within individuals whereas events that reflect positively on those dimensions will influence pride within individuals. Furthermore, these relationships should still hold even after general negative and positive affective states have been accounted for, since self-conscious emotions involve additional self-reflection and self-evaluation components.

Hypothesis 1. Within individuals, work events that reflect poorly on one's own competence, sociability, and morality will be related to guilt above and beyond negative affect.

Hypothesis 2. Within individuals, work events that reflect poorly on one's own competence, sociability, and morality will be related to shame above and beyond negative affect.

Hypothesis 3. Within individuals, work events that reflect positively on one's competence, sociability, and morality will be related to pride above and beyond positive affect.

SECTION 4.3: WITHIN-PERSONE EFFECTS OF SELF-CONSCIOUS EMOTIONS ON EMOTION REGULATION STRATEGIES AT WORK

Expanding the findings of Study 1, Study 2 aims to test specific hypotheses to understand which emotion regulation strategies employees use to reduce or avoid guilt and shame and to maintain or promote pride. Since there is a lack of research on the coping of negative emotions including guilt and shame (Brown et al., 2005; Tangney et al., 2007a) and emotion regulation of pride in a work setting, testing the relationships empirically will contribute to advancing our knowledge of this area.

According to the cognitive theory of emotions (Lazarus, 1991), primary appraisal involves the interpretation of the situation and determining whether it is harm, threat, or challenge. If the situation is interpreted as threat or challenge to an individual, the individual focus on the secondary appraisal regarding coping. Given that guilt and shame arise from an event that an individual believes he violates his internalized standard, the outcome of the event may harm to others or threaten the self. As a result, the individual is motivated to cope with the unpleasant and aversive feelings. In stress research, coping has the three different types broadly: problem-focused, emotion-focused, and avoidance coping (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980; Long, 1990). Problem-focused coping intends to change the situation causing the distress and solve the problem (Folkman et al., 1986; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Emotion-focused coping focuses on reappraising the stressful situations rather than changing or solving the actual stressors. Avoidance coping involves removing or distancing oneself from stressful situations or forgetting about the problematic situation. Based on the distinct attributions and contrasting action tendencies of guilt and shame, this study examines if guilt and shame are associated with approach-oriented (i.e. problem-focused) vs. avoidance-oriented coping strategies.

Using the transactional model of the stress process (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), Perrewe and Zellars (1999) proposed the model of how employees' attributions regarding stressors elicit guilt, shame, anger, and frustration, and how these emotions affect their choices of coping mechanisms. They suggested guilt resulting from internal, controllable attributions regarding stressors would be associated with problem-solving coping, such as seeking information about solutions or changing his behavior (e.g., working harder; Folkman et al., 1986). Given that guilt is more likely to arise when an individual

perceives his responsibility regarding a negative situation, he will choose problem-focused coping tactics to change the situation. The basic literature on self-conscious emotions notes that the moral functions of guilt reinforce reparative actions by accepting responsibilities such as seeking punishment, confessing, apologizing, undoing the results of the behavior, and amending (Tangney & Dearing, 2002; Tangney et al., 2007a). Integrating these lines of research, I predict guilty employees are more likely to engage in approach-oriented coping strategies such as active problem-focused coping and accepting responsibility, and less likely to engage in avoidance coping, controlling for negative affective states.

Hypothesis 4. Within individuals, guilt will be positively associated with (a) active problem-solving and (b) accepting responsibility, and negatively associated with (c) avoidance coping strategies above and beyond negative affect.

Conversely, Perrewe and Zellars (1999) propose that shame may lead to avoidance coping choices. They argue if an individual attributes his negative situation to internal, stable, and uncontrollable causes such as lack of ability and resources, he may think he has no control to change the situation and tend to accept the stressors (Folkman et al., 1986). Further, if he perceives the negative situations as a defect that cannot be easily repaired (Lewis, 1992), he is likely to engage in avoidance coping strategies including escape or avoidance of the stressor and distancing (Folkman & Lazarus, 1985). Self-conscious emotion literature also provides supportive evidence of avoidance action tendency of shame, such as withdrawal, isolating, escaping, and disappearing (Fisher & Tangney, 1995; Tangney & Dearing, 2002). Empirical findings also have suggested

shame stimulates defensiveness, distance, and separation from social situations (Tangney et al., 2007b).

Although it has been a prevalent perspective in the literature, recent research has found that shame is associated with approach and prosocial behaviors (De Hooge et al., 2010, 2011). De Hooge and his colleagues (2010) found that shame encouraged approach behavior to restore the negative and threatened self-image when the opportunity was given. Given that having a positive self-image is one of the most important human motives (Taylor & Brown, 1988), those who feel ashamed may be strongly motivated to restore a positive self-image. The restore motive promotes approach behaviors such as engaging in achievement situations, attempting new challenges, and performing prosocial behavior toward others (De Hooge, 2013). In the workplace, having a positive self-image as a capable, good, and trustful employee or coworker may be especially important. As a result, an employee who feels ashamed may choose active and positive self-regulation behavior to change the situation and improve self-image rather than to engage in avoidance approach. For example, an ashamed employee following performance failure or wrongdoings will be motivated to have another work project to reprove his capacity or exert more effort into his tasks to restore his positive image, or act prosocially toward others to repair the damaged relationship.

In sum, although recent findings have suggested that shame may also be associated with approach behaviors, and the work context may be uniquely prone to minimize avoidance coping and elicit approach-oriented strategies, the lack of consensus on this issue means that the following hypothesis can be offered only tentatively:

Hypothesis 5: Within individuals, shame will be related to (a) active problem-solving and (b) accepting responsibility, and (c) avoidance coping strategies above and beyond negative affect.

Previous research on coping literature has not focused on how people respond to positive events, and the self-conscious emotions literature has not paid much attention to pride compared with guilt and shame either. Since positive events are not stressors of the stress and coping model, people will engage in different actions that would be more directed toward self-aggrandizement and mood maintenance. Pride following personal achievements widens peoples' thoughts and actions with an inclination to share news of the achievement with others (Lewis, 1993). Capitalization, which defined as "*the process of informing another person about the occurrence of a personal positive event and thereby deriving additional benefit from it,*" (Gable et al., 2004, p. 228) may be one of the relevant emotional management strategies people invoke in response to pride-eliciting events. Before Gable and colleagues, Langston (1994) found the following types of responses of positive events: continue with routine, emotion-focused responses (e.g., think about feelings), active responses (e.g., make plans of action), social-contact-seeking responses (e.g., seek social contact), and marking responses (e.g., maximize significance of the event or celebrate). Compared to general positive emotions such as joy and happiness, pride is especially likely to lead to the two responses such as "seek social contact" and "marking responses" since pride motivates people to maintain or reinforce one's positive self-view and has a tendency to show their worthy self to others (Tracy & Robins, 2004). Taken together, I predict that an employee will use positive emotion

management strategies such as finding a social contact (i.e. capitalizing), engaging in marking responses (i.e. celebrating, rewarding), and choosing emotion-focused responses (i.e. savoring) to seize or promote the positive feeling of pride. But, since displaying pride openly may be considered unacceptable or inappropriate (Tracy & Robins, 2007), people may be hesitant to share their pride events with others at work. Empirical evidence has suggested that others' responses influenced both an individual's capitalizing attempt of positive events (Gable, Gonzaga, & Strachman, 2006) and emotional outcomes of capitalization (Hadley, 2014).

Hypothesis 6. Within individuals, pride will be positively associated with positive emotion management strategies (i.e. capitalizing, celebrating, rewarding, and savoring) above and beyond positive affect.

SECTION 4.4: WITHIN-PERSON EFFECTS OF SELF-CONSCIOUS EMOTIONS ON INDIVIDUAL AND ORGANIZATIONAL CONSEQUENCES

This section focuses on how self-conscious emotions influence within-person variabilities in workplace outcomes. Overall, I argue that the positive and motivational functions of pride will benefit individual and organizational performance by buffering burnout and promoting creative performance, for example. The adaptive features of guilt will benefit organizations by motivating guilty employees after performance failure to invest more efforts to find new or better solutions or to help coworkers more; but, the aversive feeling may be harmful to them by producing higher stress. The avoidance functions of shame will not be helpful to both employees and organizations in that

ashamed feeling from the perception that the entire self is flawed may lead to higher stress and more withdrawal behaviors.

Since there is a lack of empirical studies of the effects of self-conscious emotions (not dispositional tendency as trait) on workplace attitudes and behavior in a field setting, this study will contribute to advancing our knowledge of the unique role of these discrete emotions in work and organizational lives even after general affective states have been accounted for. It may also provide ideas regarding interventions to maximize the positive impact and alleviate negative impacts of such emotions, or to eliminate harmful working conditions.

Self-Conscious Emotions Stress and Health

Not surprisingly, guilt and shame from negative, problematic situations are likely to affect negative outcomes such as stress and health complaints. Although examining the link between negative emotions and stress and health is not novel, there is little known about the incremental effects of state guilt and shame on within-person variability in stress and health beyond general negative affective states. Since the subjects of most studies regarding self-conscious emotions in clinical and developmental psychology were children, students, or clinical patients, we do not know much about the effects of work-related self-conscious emotions on stress and health of healthy adults. Given that self-conscious emotions are motivators of behaviors related to stress and health (Bulger, 2013; De Hooge, 2013), investigating the effects of self-conscious emotions on stress and health will contribute to a better understanding of predictors of stress and health in the workplace above and beyond general affective states.

Researchers and practitioners in clinical and developmental psychology field have investigated the effects of self-conscious emotions as traits on mental health including depression, anxiety disorders, eating disorders, posttraumatic stress disorder, addiction, and suicide (Gilbert, Pehl, & Allan, 1994; Harder et al., 1992; Tangney & Dearing, 2002; Brown, 2007; Tangney et al., 2007a). Studies using adjective checklist-type measures of trait guilt and shame found both guilt- and shame-proneness were related to psychological symptoms (Harder & Lewis, 1987; Jones & Kugler, 1993). However, other studies found that whereas shame-free guilt was not associated with psychological maladjustment, shame by itself was associated with psychological problems that can be warning to mental health (Tangney, 1994; Tangney, Burggraf, and Wagner, 1995; Tangney et al., 1992). Tangney et al. (1995) found that the shame-proneness was positively associated with psychological symptoms across multiple measures, but guilt-proneness inconsistently associated with the symptoms depending on the measures.

In summary, research on trait guilt and shame suggests that trait shame is consistently associated with negative symptoms in psychological distress and health, whereas trait guilt is less consistently linked to those negative consequences. However, the skewed focus on trait guilt and shame also suggests a need for more research on the unique effects of state guilt and shame on stress and health in the workplace. It has been shown in prior research that some within-person variables are much differently related to stress than their trait-level counterparts. In addition, there are reasons to expect that guilt and shame will increase stress and health complaints beyond the effect of pure negative affect.

As Lazarus (1991) emphasized the important role of individuals' cognitive appraisal in the stress process, self-conscious emotions requiring self-focused attention and additional appraisal process of one's identity goal (Tracy & Robins, 2004) may be more influential to stress and health than other negative affective states. Guilt and shame themselves evoked from negative events incongruent with one's identity goal can be strong stressors or strain to working individuals (Bulger, 2013). If the individual doesn't think he can cope with the threat or although the individual thinks he can deal with it, the unpleasant appraisal that he fails to meet one's goals or others' standards, which is a distinctive element of guilt and shame from general negative affective states, will exacerbate stress and health complaints.

In particular, negative events threatening one's ego and self-image are likely to make people ruminate the undesirable outcomes of the negative events and produce extra stress to them. In other words, rumination may exacerbate the aversive feelings of guilt and shame, which in turn increase stress. As cognitive theories of rumination suggested that rumination is conscious thinking about goal failure for an extended period (Nolen-Hoeksema, Wisco, & Lyubomirsky, 2008; Smith & Alloy, 2009; Wang, Liu, Liao, Gong, Kammeyer-Mueller, & Shi, 2013), rumination may be the mechanism in which guilt and shame increase stress. Guilt- or shame-inducing work events regarding failure to meet one's or others' goals, expectations, or standards may activate the process of re-thinking about task failure, conflict with others, or unethical decisions they made and additional painful self-evaluative process other emotions do not require. Further, if they miss the opportunities to fix the situation, it would be difficult to eliminate the thoughts regarding the event, which would in turn ruminative thoughts (Martin, Tesser, & McIntosh, 1993).

As a result, ruminative self-evaluation about one's failure, wrongdoings, and self-worth at work accompanied to guilt and shame are likely to increase stress and health complaints beyond negative affect. Although guilt is considered as a desirable or moral emotion that is beneficial to organizations due to the adaptive and prosocial nature of guilt responses including concern for others (e.g., Bohns & Flynn, 2013; Ilies et al., 2013), feeling guilty and ashamed will not be beneficial to an individual's stress and health.

Hypothesis 7a. Within individuals, guilt is positively associated with stress above and beyond negative affect.

Hypothesis 7b. Within individuals, shame is positively associated with stress above and beyond negative affect.

Hypothesis 8a. Within individuals, guilt is positively associated with health complaints above and beyond negative affect.

Hypothesis 8b. Within individuals, shame is positively associated with health complaints above and beyond negative affect.

Positive psychology has supported the beneficial effects of positive emotions on personal and organizational outcomes. The broaden-and-build theory suggests that positive experiences create positive emotions, which enhance health and flourishing (Fredrickson, 2001). Bono et al. (2013) also proposed that people experience lower stress and better health outcomes when environmental situations help produce or maintain resources. These theories can also be applied to understanding the effect of pride on stress and health at work, but they focus on beneficial role of generally positive emotions, rather than discussing the unique effect of pride on positive and negative outcomes.

Research on positive self-perception may be more relevant in supporting the positive role of pride in reducing stress and health complaints beyond general positive affective states. Taylor and Brown (1994) suggests that positive illusions, the perception that is positively biased about the self, promotes mental health. Viewing oneself in more positive terms increases the perceived ability to grow and develop in response to stressful situations (Taylor & Brown, 1994). Pride associated with feelings of control and mastery is likely to enhance one's perception that problems can be solved, and help people deal with problematic situations more effectively, which in turn will decrease stress and health-related symptoms. Feeling pride is the central part of human nature, and its function maintaining or enhancing ego as a valuable person differentiates this emotion from other positive emotions such as joy and happiness (Tracy & Robins, 2004). Conversely, people who experience the loss of pride, in the form of humiliation or ego threats (Bushman & Baumeister, 1998), may suffer from increased stress and worse health.

Limited empirical studies also found the important links between pride and health in work contexts. One study investigated the relationship between virtues including pride and health using focus-group interviews with working individuals (Warna, Lindholm, & Erikson, 2007). The authors found a significant connection between pride and health and suggested that the virtue of pride would be the "backbone of health (Warna et al., 2007)." Another study also examined the effect of employee virtues including pride on health (Warna-Furu, Saaksjarvi, & Santavirta, 2010). The authors revealed that virtues including pride were significantly negatively associated with sick leave, fatigue, depression, and positively associated with happiness.

Combining these theoretical perspectives and empirical findings, I predict that pride will have a strong impact in decreasing stress and health complaints at the within-person level, controlling for general positive affective states.

Hypothesis 7c. Within individuals, pride will be negatively associated with stress above and beyond positive affect.

Hypothesis 8c. Within individuals, pride will be negatively associated with health complaints above and beyond positive affect.

Self-Conscious Emotions and Burnout

The framework of stress research often includes burnout (Hobfoll & Shirom, 2000; Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001; Schaufeli & Greenglass, 2001). Burnout is defined as “*a prolonged response to chronic emotional and interpersonal stressors on the job*” (Maslach et al., 2001, p.397), or “*a special type of prolonged occupational stress that results particularly from interpersonal demands at work*” (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998, p.8). Based on the existential perspective, burnout results from people’s desire to believe that their lives are meaningful and that the things they do are important and useful (Clarkson, 1992; Pines, 1993; Pines & Keinan, 2005). Individuals who anticipate deriving a sense of existential significance from their work tend to start their careers with high aims and expectations. But, when they experience failure, insignificance, making no difference in the world from their work, they feel hopeless, worthless, and exhausted and eventually burnout.

Prior research on burnout has supported the existential perspective that demonstrates the relationship between the goals and expectations of professionals and the stressors that eventually caused their burnout. Although burnout has been conceptualized

as a deep, persistent form of emotional exhaustion in response to chronic job stress, employees may experience smaller episodes of burnout from failures in their daily work lives. As Pines (2002) found, burnout may be relevant to various professionals who experience failures regarding their work. The examples can include employees who fail to succeed important task projects, teachers who fail to educate and discipline students in a desirable way, healthcare assistants who fail to help patients carefully, and managers who fail to adhere their moral standards in their decision-making.

Although there is no empirical research, the repeated guilty and ashamed feelings from daily performance failure may lead people to feel emotionally drained from their work and experience higher mental weariness. In a work setting, a social comparison may also contribute to increasing burnout. In particular, an individual's upward social comparison with higher performing coworkers will lead the individual to evaluate his or her work outcome or the self as less valuable or qualified. Construing oneself as having not met standards may enhance the desire to distance oneself from the work environment, which is a unique component of self-conscious emotions above and beyond the influence of a general negative emotional state. Therefore, I predict that the guilty and ashamed feelings following failure to meet one's internalized standards, goals, and expectations at daily work will increase burnout.

Hypothesis 9a. Within individuals, guilt will be positively associated with burnout above and beyond negative affect.

Hypothesis 9b. Within individuals, shame will be positively associated with burnout above and beyond negative affect.

Given that the cause of burnout is people's need to believe their lives and work are meaningful (Clarkson, 1992; Pines, 1993), pride among positive emotions may play an especially important role in reducing burnout since pride will enhance the self, promote social status, and emphasize meaningfulness of their lives more significantly than other positive emotions (Tracy & Robins, 2007). For example, when employees who feel proud of their personal achievements at work, the positive feeling of pride conveys to individuals the significance of their own behavior at work. An individual's downward comparison with coworkers who perform poorly may also allow the individual to think that he or she is more capable and his or her work is more meaningful. Moreover, feeling pride from building positive relationships with others at work will inform employees of their social value. As a result, pride elicited by reflecting one's competence or enhanced social status will decrease burnout beyond other positive affective states.

Hypothesis 9c. Within individuals, pride will be negatively associated with burnout above and beyond daily positive affect.

Self-Conscious Emotions and Engagement

Engagement is defined as “a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, & Bakker, 2002, p.74). According to the authors, vigor is represented by high degrees of energy and psychological resilience while working, the inclination to exert effort in one's work and perseverance even in the face of troubles. Dedication is described by a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge (Schaufeli et al., 2002). Absorption refers to being completely concentrated and deeply engrossed in one's work,

whereby time passes quickly, and one has difficulties with separating oneself from work (Schaufeli et al., 2002).

As shown in the characteristics of three dimensions of engagement, it is likely to particularly positively relate to pride among positive emotions and negatively relate to shame. Guilt, however, may increase work engagement counterintuitively given that adaptive action tendency of guilt tends to motivate individuals to exert more effort on their tasks or job roles to fix or make up for guilt-inducing situations. Flynn and Schaumberg (2012) found that higher levels of guilt-proneness were associated with higher affective commitment toward organizations through greater task effort. Although they focused on guilt-proneness as an individual trait, this result may apply to the link between guilt as an emotional state and employees' engagement at work. Based on the adaptive responses of guilt, a guilty employee about his slow work progress or incomplete projects may exert more considerable effort, invest additional time, or pay more attention to his work to make up for his poor performance. While he makes amends in response to a discrepancy between his goal and current situation, his efforts or corrective action toward the goal may produce more psychological resources and lead to positive experiences of engagement. However, employees who feel ashamed are less likely to produce the same type of efforts with employees who feel guilty. The motivational features of shame such as hiding and escaping may not provide an opportunity employees feel engaged with their work. As a result, an ashamed employee may not have resilient, enthusiastic, and engrossed experiences of engagement.

Hypothesis 10a. Within individuals, guilt will be positively associated with engagement above and beyond negative affect.

Hypothesis 10b. Within individuals, shame will be negatively associated with engagement above and beyond negative affect.

On the other hand, an experience of pride appears to relate closely to engagement. The broaden-build-theory suggests that momentary experiences of positive emotions can build durable psychological resources such as components of engagement including energy, persistence, enthusiasm, and concentration (Fredrickson, 1998, 2001). However, among positive emotions, pride is especially more likely to relate to work engagement due to its approach action tendency and motivational behavior such as exerting continuous effort in the achievement domain (Tracy & Robins, 2004). Proud feelings after succeeding at work assignment and helping coworkers at work will prove and enhance the individual and relational self, which will strengthen the individual's psychological resources. In other words, pride arising from competence, achievement, social bond, and significance can provide positive meaning to employees and connection with the environment, and thus keep employees more engaging to their work or jobs. Further, the second dimension of engagement, dedication, is also characterized by pride. A workplace experience survey of employees conducted by Gallup Organization using engagement measure showed the potential associations between pride and engagement (Harter, 2000). Noting that the engagement measure used in the survey included experiences of pride, Fredrickson (2000) also suggested employee engagement measure might be improved by focusing on pride more directly.

Hypothesis 10c. Within individuals, pride will be positively associated with engagement above and beyond positive affect.

Self-Conscious Emotions and Organizational Citizenship Behavior

As a theoretical work proposed (Spector & Fox, 2002), positive emotions are likely to increase OCB whereas negative emotions increases counterproductive work behavior (CWB). However, empirical research showed the mixed findings of the relationships between affect and OCB (cf. Miner & Glomb, 2010; Spence, Brown, Heller, 2011). Compared to general affect, self-conscious emotions as social and moral emotions, may motivate people to behave in a more reparative and prosocial way. These emotions play a key role in interpersonal situations in which our goals, expectations, and standards are shaped. Given the importance of maintaining a positive social image or enhancing social status in a work setting, guilt provoked by violating one's social standards or organizational norms may increase the likelihood that people will behave in a prosocial way to offset the negative actions they conducted previously (Ilies, Peng, Savani, and Dimotakis, 2013).

In particular, guilt in the interpersonal domain has relationship-enhancing powers, including encouraging people to treat partners well, minimizing inequities, helping others (Baumeister et al., 1994). Helping can repair possible impairment to the relationship, restore equity, and promote social attachment (Baumeister et al., 1994). The moral constructive functions of guilt such as repair and concerns for others motivate people to consider other's well-being and commit people to prosocial behavior (Fisher & Tangney, 1995; Tangney, 1990). The exchange-based equity perspective (Blau, 1964) supports the argument that employees may engage in OCB to reduce guilty feelings, and to restore the damaged relationships (Konovsky, Organ, & Dennis, 1996). For example, if employees do not fulfill their responsibilities by making a mistake, being late, or forgetting an

important meeting, they may attempt to compensate for their wrongdoings by performing prosocial behaviors toward others.

Limited research has investigated the relationships between guilt and OCB in a field setting. Ilies et al. (2013) found that highly guilty employees after receiving normative feedback about their counterproductive behavior (i.e. violation of social norms) reported higher OCB intentions in the future and actual performance of OCBs in a field experiment. Another study explored the effect of guilt on prosocial behavior in work-family context. Morgan and King (2012) found in a cross-sectional study that family-to-work guilt motivated helping behaviors directed toward individuals at work among working undergraduate students. Therefore, I predict that guilt as a moral and adaptive emotion will positively influence organizational citizenship behavior.

Hypothesis 11a. Within individuals, guilt will be positively associated with organizational citizenship behavior above and beyond negative affect.

Compared with guilt, an exchange-based equity perspective may not be applied to the feeling of shame. The traditional view in self-conscious emotion literature proposes that shame does not elicit repair and prosocial behavior, since an ashamed individual focuses more on self-distress from the negative event rather than considering the impact of the negative event on others. Recent research, however, has found the adaptive aspect of shame. Cohen and his colleagues (2011) found that emotional shame showed more of the moral and prosocial aspect of shame-proneness, whereas behavioral shame showed the more negative and maladaptive facet of shame-proneness. Another study also found that shame motivated prosocial behavior when it was relevant for the decision at hand

(De Hooge, Breugelmans, & Zeelenberg, 2008). In addition, Fessler and Haley (2003), who explored the potential functions of shame, noted: “*shame and pride can promote cooperation in purely dyadic interactions, as the actor can feel shame if she defects and the partner knows about, or is likely to learn of, her defection*” (p.26). Although the previous research can apply to the relationships between shame and OCB, they focused on the individual trait rather than the emotional state. Due to the tenuous and inconsistent findings on the relationships between shame as emotional state and OCB in the work context, I provide the tentative hypothesis between shame and OCB.

Hypothesis 11b. Within individuals, shame will be related to organizational citizenship behavior above and beyond negative affect.

The function of resource building of positive emotions applies to expanding employees’ social resources including friendships and social networks by helping others or having compassion toward others (Fredrickson, 1998). While previous work has shown that positive emotions are associated with motivational future behavior including prosocial behavior (George & Brief, 1996), there is a reason to believe that pride will contribute to helping behavior above and beyond other positive emotions. The self-regulatory function of pride especially monitors individual behavior by convincing one to do actions that are socially valued (Tangney & Dearing, 2002). Pride encourages behavioral action toward the goals included in one’s self-representations. These adaptive behaviors allow individuals to maintain a positive self-concept and the likability as well as respect from others. Positive self-perception also improves the ability to care for and about others (Tyalor & Brwon, 1994). The self-conscious emotions literature has

suggested that the pleasant subjective feelings of a proud experience may encourage the prosocial behaviors that usually produce the emotion, such as caregiving (Hart & Matsuba, 2007, Stipek, 1983; Weiner, 1985). As a result, in the work context, pride accompanied by a positive self-concept and its approach action tendency are likely to motivate people to invest more organizational citizenship behavior toward others at work.

In addition to these theories, some empirical research supports for the positive effect of pride on OCB at work. A meta-analytic study also found that pride was positively related to OCB (Shockley et al., 2012) although the study numbers were limited. They found that only pride among discrete positive emotions provided incremental validity in OCB prediction among performance dimensions. A qualitative study also found that proud experiences of part-time student employees led to more frequent helping behavior (Grandey et al., 2002). One workplace ethnography study also revealed that pride in the task was positively associated with organizational citizenship behavior (Hodson, 1998). Although these studies provide supportive evidence of the positive effect of pride on OCB, the relationships were tested at between-person levels or conducted with a qualitative method. In sum, both theory and empirical evidence suggest pride will be associated with higher levels of OCB.

Hypothesis 11c. Within individuals, pride will be positively associated with organizational citizenship behavior above and beyond daily positive affect.

Self-Conscious Emotions and Creative Performance

Creative performance can contribute to organizational growth and innovation. In a work context, employee creativity is defined as “*the generation of new and potentially*

valuable ideas concerning new products, services, manufacturing methods, and administrative processes that contributes to organizations' renewal, survival, and growth" (Amabile, 1988; Zhou & George, 2001). Researchers have investigated the effect of positive and negative affect on creativity in lab or field studies. They found that positive and negative affect influence creativity, however, positive affect also tends to show a stronger effect (e.g., Isen and his colleagues, 1984, 1985). Despite the important findings of the associations between general affect and creativity, researchers have not relatively paid much attention to discrete emotions and creative performance in work settings (see Amabile, Barsade, Mueller, & Staw, 2005 for exception). The approach and adaptive vs. avoidance action tendency with causal attribution process of self-conscious emotions may influence creative performance in one's daily work life above and beyond general positive and negative affective states.

When a guilt-inducing event occurs, an individual attributes the outcome of the event as situational and temporary based on the unstable and controllable causal attributions of guilt. Following failure, the guilty individual will be motivated to change the situation, and which often requires creativity at work. In other words, a guilty employee after failing to meet his work expectations or fulfill his work roles, he will believe that this problem is a temporary one he can control. As a result, he will put more effort to find a better, creative solution. For instance, a guilty engineer after failure in a test sees the failure as his temporary mistake, not lack of capability as an engineer. Then, he may invest more time and effort in finding problems and providing new, creative solutions. As another example, a salesperson who fails to make a contract with a customer may try to create a more compelling strategy to persuade the customer or other

customers. Further, he may try to think about the contract in customers' perspectives and suggest new ideas to satisfy customers' needs and improve his performance. Given the adaptive and reparative action tendency of guilt, it will be a potential driver that makes an employee invest more effort and change actions in a more creative way in failure situations than other negative affective states.

Hypothesis 12a. Within individuals, guilt will be positively associated with creative performance above and beyond negative affect.

On the other hand, individuals who feel ashamed may not have the same level of motivation to produce more effort for creativity. Shame following performance failure provides a signal to an employee that something is wrong. However, the employee may not exert more effort to find a better solution since he attributes performance failure to a self-deficit or flaw of the entire self. For example, an ashamed salesperson after failing to make a new contract with a customer, he will attribute his failure to lack qualification as a salesperson. He may lose his confidence about his ability and will not contact the customer again to persuade or negotiate with an updated contract due to fear of rejection. Because of the avoidance action tendency of shame, he is not motivated to come up with new or attractive suggestions to the customer. As a result, he may try to stop thinking about the situation or hide from the shame-inducing situation rather than find creative alternative solutions to change the situation. Despite the fact that no empirical studies have been conducted on shame and creativity at work, I predict daily shame is negatively associated with creativity even after controlling for negative affective states based on theoretical accounts of causal attributions and avoidance action tendency of shame.

Hypothesis 12b. Within individuals, shame will be negatively associated with creative performance above and beyond daily negative affect.

Pride has been recognized as a feature of creative geniuses. According to the broaden-and-build theory, positive emotions broaden individuals' scope of cognitions and motivate them to reject automatic daily behavioral scripts. Isen and colleagues have investigated that the effect of positive emotions on broadening thoughts-action repertoires (Fredrickson, 2001). Their studies have revealed that positive affect is associated with patterns of thought that are especially unusual (Isen, Johnson, Mertz, & Robinson, 1985), flexible (Isen & Daubman, 1984), creative (Isen, Daubman, & Nowicki, 1987), integrative (Isen, Rosenzweig, & Young, 1991), open to information (Estrada, Isen, & Young, 1997). Some experimental studies also found the positive associations between the disposition to experience pride and creative achievement across different domains including science, music, and art (Damian & Robins, 2012a) and creative thinking (Damian & Robins, 2012b). These studies provide a good background to understand the link between general positive affect as well as trait pride and creativity.

The literature on self and self-conscious emotions provide supportive evidence of significant associations between pride and creative performance at work. Having a positive view of the self is associated with openness to new ideas and people, creativity, and the ability to perform creative and productive work (Taylor & Brwon, 1994). Moreover, pride in one's successes is assumed to encourage future positive behaviors in the achievement domain (Tracy & Robins, 2007). In a work context, a proud employee from successful completion of a work assignment will attribute his success to his internal

attribution regarding his effort or qualities. His belief in his capability will reduce his fear of mistakes and enhance self-esteem. The enhanced self may not be afraid of suggesting new ideas regarding processes, technologies, or product in fulfilling his job role or taking risks to improve his performance. As a result, these positive experiences from pride may contribute to broadening the scope of cognition and encouraging employees to invest their efforts in their work for more novel, innovative, and better solutions above and beyond general positive affective states.

Hypothesis 12c. Within individuals, pride will be positively associated with creative performance above and beyond positive affect.

Self-Conscious Emotions and Withdrawal

The action tendencies of negative affect narrow people's action repertoires and address immediate problems to improve the situation through avoidance (Elfenbein, 2007; Fitness, 2000). This action tendency implies that employees are likely to report higher levels of work withdrawal if they experience negative affect in a work situation (Scott & Barnes, 2011). Similar to mood-as-input model, Clore, Schwarz, and Conway (1994) noted that negative emotional states make individuals recognize that their current situation has a problem, and encourage them to take action. Prior research has primarily focused on mood, but, individuals may also commonly choose withdrawal option in response to discrete negative emotions in the problematic situations (Pelled & Xin, 1999; Thayer, Newman, & McClain, 1994).

Compared to other negative moods and emotions, self-conscious emotions may especially relate to withdrawal behavior due to the importance of self- and others'

evaluation in the process of these emotions. Withdrawal behavior is defined as “*actions intended to place physical or psychological distance between employees and their work environments*” (Rosse & Hulin, 1985, p. 325). In the work and organizational context, I argue that guilt negatively relates to psychological withdrawal behavior based on its constructive and reparative function. Exchange-based equity theory (Blau, 1964) also supports the argument that an employee who feels guilty from his mistakes or wrongdoings at work will strive to restore the balance in the situation by avoiding withdrawal behavior.

A recent meta-analytic study found that guilt/shame was positively associated with counterproductive work behavior (CWB) including withdrawal (Shockley et al., 2012). However, guilt and shame were combined as one construct. As Shockley et al. (2012) also noted, the negative relationship between guilt/shame and CWB did not provide a clear picture of the relationship. To have a better understanding of the relationship, I predict that guilt will be negatively related to work withdrawal.

Hypothesis 13a. Within individuals, guilt will be negatively associated with work withdrawal above and beyond negative affect.

Prior research on shame has provided the positive associations between shame and avoidance and withdrawal behavior (Tangney & Dearing, 2002). In the workplace, when an employee feels ashamed of his performance failure or unfavorable social interaction, he will be concerned about others’ negative evaluation of self. The negative evaluation of self will make him detach from work, and as a result, he is likely to engage in psychological and physical work withdrawal behaviors. However, Cohen et al. (2011)

suggest that the relationship between feelings of shame and withdrawal behaviors is weak than is suggested in the extant literature. Supporting this perspective, researchers point out that prior studies on shame have primarily focused on tendencies to hide or to withdraw and need to examine more various action tendencies (De Hooge et al., 2007, 2008, 2010). Diefendorff, Richard, and Yang (2008) also found that individuals less used avoidance-oriented approach to deal with stressful situations and negative emotions since passive avoidance approach may not be appropriate or useful at work. Taken together, it is not clear to predict the relationships between shame and work withdrawal. Therefore, the within-person relationships between shame and work withdrawal will be offered tentatively.

Hypothesis 13b. Within individuals, shame will be associated with work withdrawal above and beyond negative affect.

Given the action tendency of positive emotions, it is possible for employees to involve in lower levels of work withdrawal at work when they feel positive emotions (Scott & Barnes, 2011). Among positive emotions, pride is more likely to relate negatively to withdrawal behavior. When individuals feel proud of their work achievement or valued behavior at work, they intend to contact other people to share the positive news such as individual success, which enhances their social status (Tracy & Robins, 2007). As a result, pride accompanied by feelings of self-worth reinforces more adaptive behaviors promoting an individual's social status and group acceptance and is less likely to detach themselves from work situations or choose antisocial behaviors. In other words, on days when employees experience higher pride, they are more likely to

show the opposite behaviors of withdrawal behaviors that involve psychologically and physically withdrawing from the work situation.

Hypothesis 13c. Within individuals, pride will be negatively associated with work withdrawal above and beyond positive affect.

SECTION 4.5. MODERATING ROLE OF EMOTION REGULATION

STRATEGIES AT WORK

It is useful and worthwhile to gain a better understanding which type of emotion regulation strategies moderate the relationships between discrete self-conscious emotions and personal and organizational outcomes in theoretical and practical purposes. Emotions motivate individuals to change the direction of behavior from ongoing goal pursuit and to the immediate requirements of the emotional situation (Brown, Westbrook, & Challagalla, 2005; Lazarus, 1991). Effective emotion regulation assists individuals to solve problems, alleviate emotion distress, and continue to pursue their goals (Brown et al., 2005).

Without appropriate and effective self-regulatory emotional management, guilt and shame are likely to aggravate their negative effects on individuals' attitudes and behavior in the workplace, in particular. Without appropriate regulation for positive emotions, an individual may not maximize positive effects of pride on personal and organizational outcomes, either. In other words, guilt and shame following negative events may adaptively or maladaptively influence on personal and organizational outcomes depending on the coping strategies used. Likewise, pride following positive events may also more strongly amplify personal and organizational outcomes depending on the appropriate emotion management tactics used. Although understanding the effects of

self-conscious emotions and emotion management tactics can help improve individuals' psychological well-being and organizational performance, they have not been investigated empirically in a work setting. Thus, I test if emotion regulation strategies moderate the relationships between self-conscious emotions and outcome variables. I employ approach (i.e. problem-solving and accepting responsibility tactics) vs. avoidance coping tactics as the moderators.

Concerning guilt, consider an employee who fails to complete a major task at work. He felt guilty since he was distracted by a personal issue rather than doing his best, and as a result, he did not do a great job with a big mistake. In this situation, if he chooses approach coping strategies, it means that he turns those negative feelings into restorative actions. If he does nothing to approach the problem, then his feelings of guilt will not result in constructive behavioral outcomes, so nothing much occurs except more guilt. In this case, his approach-oriented strategies are related to turning guilt into positive behavioral outcomes like engagement, creative performance, and OCB. On the other hand, if he chooses avoidance coping strategies, it means that he is trying to hide out or escape from confronting his failures, and therefore, he feels sick with worry. In this case, his avoidance coping strategies are related to turning guilt into negative psychological outcomes like high withdrawal. Thus, I predict approach coping strategies will play a moderating role in the relationships between guilt and engagement, OCB, creative performance. Further, I predict avoidance coping strategies will play a moderating role in the relationships between guilt and withdrawal.

Hypothesis 14. Within individuals, approach coping strategies will moderate the relationships between guilt and outcomes, such that guilt will have stronger

positive relationships with (a) engagement, (b) OCB, and (c) creative performance when use of approach coping strategies is high.

Hypothesis 15. Within individuals, avoidance coping will moderate the relationship between guilt and withdrawal, such that guilt will have stronger positive relationships with withdrawal when use of avoidance coping strategies is high.

Regarding shame, consider a consultant who loses a major client at work. The consultant felt ashamed since the client doubted his expertise and experiences for an important potential project than trusting his ability, and as a result, the client rejected to work with him for the new project. In this case, the ashamed consultant may want to hide or disappear from the situation rather than doing something to change the client's decision. If he does nothing to change the situation, his feelings of shame will be more painful and will not lead to positive psychological or behavioral outcomes. As a result, the consultant's avoidance coping strategies will be related to turning shame into negative psychological and behavioral consequences. Thus, I predict avoidance coping strategies will play a moderating role in the relationships between shame and the following outcomes.

Hypothesis 16. Within individuals, avoidance coping strategies will moderate the relationship between shame and outcomes, such that shame will have stronger positive relationships with (a) stress, (b) health complaints, (c) burnout, and (d)

withdrawal, and stronger negative relationships with (e) engagement and (f) creative performance, when use of avoidance coping strategies is high.

Positive emotion management tactics will also play a moderating role in the relationships between pride and workplace outcomes. Emotion regulation strategies of pride include approach-oriented and constructive regulation tactics. Consider an elementary teacher who teaches and manages his class very well. He felt proud since he did a great job in teaching and as a result, his students scored high in exams. In this case, emotion regulation strategies for pride mean that he turns the positive feelings into positive and constructive actions to seize or maximize those positive feelings. If he performs positive emotion regulation strategies such as capitalizing, celebrating, and thinking about the positive benefits of the pride-inducing event, these strategies will be related to turning pride into much higher levels of positive psychological and behavioral outcomes. The outcomes will include higher engagement, OCB, and creative performance, and lower stress, health complaints, burnout, and withdrawal. Thus, I predict that positive emotion regulation strategies will play a moderating role in the relationships between pride and the following outcomes.

Hypothesis 17. Within individuals, Positive emotion regulation strategies will moderate the relationships between pride and outcomes, such that pride will have stronger positive relationships with (a) engagement, (b) OCB, and (c) creative performance, and stronger negative relationships with (d) stress, (e) health complaints, (f) burnout, and (g) withdrawal, when use of positive emotion regulation strategies is high.

METHOD

Expanding the findings of Study 1, Study 2 tests the within-person relationships among self-relevant positive and negative work events, self-conscious emotions, emotion regulation strategies, and workplace outcomes using ESM. In addition, this study examines the moderating role of emotion regulation strategies in the relationships between self-conscious emotions and outcomes.

Participants and Procedures

Before conducting a field study, I conducted a pilot study with ten working adults recruited from a subject pool at a large Midwestern University. The purpose of the pilot study was to check and resolve any potential issues that may arise in the data collection process for two weeks. The pilot survey data obtained from the ten participants were not included in final data analysis. For the field study, participants were also recruited from the same subject pool. They were required to be 23-65 years old and work a minimum of 30 hours per week in the United States. In addition to the subject pool, participants were also recruited from full-time employed students in Master's classes in Business Administration as well as Human Resources and Labor Relations at the University. I administered two different surveys including a pre-survey and a diary survey. First, two weeks before starting the two-week daily survey, participants were required to complete an initial online survey that asks about individual characteristics such as demographic information and trait positive and negative affectivity. Following completion of the initial survey, participants were asked to complete a daily survey during two weeks (i.e. ten

workdays total). Two weeks (i.e. ten work days) are a typical period of data collection in management and emotion research using ESM. It is also known as daily diary studies, which participants complete surveys on a daily basis over the course of their workdays. ESM is useful in capturing how people think, feel, and act in their everyday environment (Spence et al., 2014). Further, a two-week period is considered "*to represent a stable and generalizable estimate of social life*" (Reis & Wheeler, 1991, p. 287).

Each day, they received an email with a survey link three times. They were asked to complete (a) a pre-work survey asking their current positive and negative mood in the morning (at 7 am), (b) an end-of-work survey asking their positive and negative workplace events and the intensity of self-conscious emotions (at 3 pm), and (c) a post-work survey asking their daily emotional management strategies and workplace attitudes as well as behavior (at 4 pm, survey closed at 11:59 pm). Participants were requested to complete the pre-work survey right before or after arriving at work in the morning. They were requested to submit the end-of-work survey by the end of their work day and the post-work survey by the end of the day. While I set the closing time for the post-work survey at 11:59 pm each day, I didn't set the exact closing time for the pre-work and the end-of-work survey since participants' work hours may be somewhat different.

Participants were asked to report their emotion regulation tactics and individual and organizational outcome questions in the post-work survey rather than as soon as possible after the event. After the events that elicit emotional reactions occur, individuals may take action right away, but, they also may engage in emotion regulation and work behavior later on the day. Participants who failed to submit the survey at the particular measurement point were not allowed to make up for the survey to eliminate memory bias

from retrospective reporting. But, for participants who can or could not complete them due to busy work situations (e.g., urgent deadline, business trip, etc.), only when they completed the three surveys for an additional day, the surveys were included in analysis. Participants who completed three daily surveys for ten work days were compensated with \$50 and those who completed them for at least five days were compensated with \$30.

In total, 177 participants signed up for this study (161 from the subject pool and 16 from the classes), but, 26 participants dropped this study or completed the surveys less than five days since their work or personal situations were not allowed to participate in a two-week daily study consistently (e.g., time restrictions due to extremely busy work situations, work and family responsibilities, and business travel). The final sample, 151 participants, provided 1509 completed daily surveys including pre-work, end-of-work, and post-work surveys after 26 participants were excluded. The response days ranged from 5 to 10 daily surveys per participant and resulting in an 85% response rate. 76% were female, 32% were married, and 74% were White. The average participant was 32.9 years old, had 10.6 years of organizational tenure, and 82% completed college education. Analysis of participant job titles revealed that participants worked in all 24 O*Net job families (e.g., Office and Administrative Support: 19.2%, Education, Training, and Library: 15.9%, Business and Financial Operations: 9.3%, Architecture and Engineering: 8%, Sales and Related: 5.3%, Community and Social Service: 5.5%) although participants who selected the 24th “other” category were 12%.

Measures

Pre-diary Measures

Demographic information. Demographic questions in the one-time survey include age, gender, marital status, ethnicity, education, organizational and job tenure, job title, job function, supervision, and annual salary.

Pre-work Diary Survey

Daily positive and negative affective states. General positive and negative affective states was measured as a control variable, using a 17-item Positive Affect Negative Affect Scale (PANAS; Watson et al., 1988) after excluding three items (e.g., guilty, ashamed, and proud). Participants will be asked to report the extent to which they feel the following way on the basis of their current feelings in the morning, on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = very slightly or not at all, 2 = a little, 3 = moderately, 4 = quite a bit, 5 = extremely). Items were averaged to form daily PA and NA. Across the ten surveyed workdays, the mean Cronbach's alpha coefficient was .96 for daily PA and .90 for daily NA.

End-of-work Diary Survey

To reduce participants' fatigue and burden in participating in a two-week daily diary study, I selected fewer items for measures to assess variables, which is common in an experience sampling study.

Work Events. Reviewing previous research on affective events (e.g., Bono et al., 2013, Brief & Weiss, 2002; Diefendorff et al., 2008; Mignonac & Herrbach, 2004; Minor, Glomb, Hulin, 2005; Stone & Neale, 1982), antecedents of self-conscious emotions (e.g., Bohns & Flynn, 2013; De Hooge, 2013; Keltner & Buswell, 1996; Poulson, 2000), and the frequency of events reported in Study 1, I selected the major five positive and negative events that are likely to be associated with self-conscious emotions. The main

domains were task performance, social relationships including helping behavior, and morality-related issues. For both positive and negative events, participants had an additional question if they had any other positive or negative events not described in the five events (See End-of-Work Survey in Appendix B for the events scale). The positive and negative events scales were created by aggregating all positive and negative events reported for that workday respectively. If participants answered “Yes,” they were asked to indicate the intensity of the emotions in response to each of the events. Following previous research on formative measures, Cronbach’s alpha for these scales was not reported since it is not an proper form of reliability in that they consist of discrete work events that may not occur at the same time and do not represent a latent construct (Bono et al., 2013; Liu, Wang, Zahn, & Shi, 2009; Wang, Liao, Zhan, & Shi, 2011).

Self-conscious emotions. Guilt and shame were assessed with two items from the same measure used in Study 1 (Marshall et al., 1996) on 5-point Likert scale (1 = not feeling this way at all, 5 = feeling this way very well). In addition to them, I included “guilty” and “ashamed” from PANAS. The example of guilt items are “I felt remorse and regret” and “I felt tension about what I did.” The example of shame items are “I felt small” and “I felt like I was a bad person.” Pride were assessed with three items with the same measure used in Study 1 (Marshall et al., 1996) on 5-point Likert scale. The example items for pride are “I felt worthwhile and valuable” and “I felt proud.” Items were averaged to form scales for each of self-conscious emotions. More specifically, since participants indicated the intensity of self-conscious emotions in response to each type of the six events, the three items of each guilt, shame, and pride in response to each event were averaged respectively, and then the each averaged score for six events were

aggregated. Cronbach's alphas for three emotions are .84 for pride, .77 for guilt, and .77 for shame.

Post-work Diary Survey

Regarding emotion regulation strategies and behavioral outcomes (i.e. creative performance, withdrawal, organizational citizenship behavior), participants were instructed to indicate "Does not Apply" for those opportunities they had not encountered or for situations not relevant to them. All scales in the post-work diary survey were created by averaging items of the scales.

Emotion regulation strategies.

1. *Coping for guilt and shame.* Emotion regulation for guilt and shame was divided into approach and avoidance strategies. Approach strategies include proactive and adaptive effort to change situations such as problem-solving coping and accepting responsibilities strategies, and avoidance strategies include passive regulation such as avoidance coping tactics. Problem-solving and avoidance coping strategies were assessed with the sub-factors of coping scale of Long (1990). Acceptance was assessed with the items of a subscale of coping scale, accepting responsibilities, developed by Lazarus and Folkman (1984) since Long (1990) doesn't have the items in his scale. I selected three items for each strategy. Participants were asked to indicate what extent they agree with the statements regarding their behavior "at work today" with 5-point scale (1= strongly disagree, 5= strongly agree). The example items of active problem-solving coping strategies are "I talked about a problem over with colleagues or supervisors at work today." and "I came up with a couple of different solutions to the problems faced at work today. ($\alpha = .85$)" The sample items of acceptance are "I made a promise to myself today

that I could do things differently in the future.” and “I apologized or did something to make up for a mistake today ($\alpha = .82$).” Sample items of avoidance coping strategies are “I wished a situation would go away or somehow be over with at work today” and “I avoided being with people in general at work today. ($\alpha = .76$)”

2. Regulation strategies for pride. Regulation strategies for pride were measured with a list drawing from the capitalization literature (Gable et al., 2004, 2006; Langston, 1994) and based on the frequency of responses reported in Study 1. Participants were asked to indicate what extent they agree with the statements regarding their behavior “at work today” with 5-point scale (1= strongly disagree, 5= strongly agree). Based on the feedback of participants in the pilot study, I added a “does not apply” option for people who do not have a chance to engage in the strategies listed. The list included the four items such as “capitalizing (i.e. I shared positive event with others today.),” “rewarding (I rewarded others today.),” “celebrating (i.e. I celebrated positive events with others at work today.),” and “emotion-focused management (i.e. I savored and enjoyed positive emotions today.) ($\alpha = .84$).”

Stress. Stress was assessed with the four items selected from Job stress scale (Motowidlo, Packard, & Manning, 1986) on a 5-point scale (1= strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree). The example items are “I felt a great deal of stress because of my job today.” and “Very few stressful things happened to me at work today. ($\alpha = .83$)”

Health complaints. Health complaints were assessed with the four items from the adapted interview questions about health from Goldberg (1972), which were also used by Bono et al (2013). Participants were asked to report what extent they experienced physical health complaints “at work today.” The example items of health complaints

include “neck or back pain,” and “headaches.” Participants reported their symptoms on a 5-point scale (1 = not at all, 2 = little, 3 = somewhat, 4 = much, 5 = severely) ($\alpha = .80$).

Burnout. Burnout was measured with the three items of Job burnout scale developed by Pines and Aronson, (1988), which assesses physical and emotional states. Participants were asked to rate what extent they felt the following ways “at work today” on a 5-point scale (1 = not at all, 5 = severely). The example items include “I felt tired.” and “I felt emotionally exhausted. ($\alpha = .84$)”

Engagement. Engagement was assessed with the three items selected from the employee version of engagement developed by Schaufeli et al. (2002) on a 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree). Participants will be asked to indicate to what extent they agree with the following statements regarding their work-related state of mind today. The example items include “At my job today, I felt strong and vigorous.” and “At my work today, I always persevered, even when things did not go well. ($\alpha = .71$)”

Organizational Citizenship Behavior. Organizational citizenship behaviors were assessed with the three items of behaviors directed at specific individuals (OCBI) developed by Williams & Anderson (1991). Participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they engaged in the behaviors listed on the measure “at work today.” All items were measured on a five-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree). The examples of OCBI items are “I helped others who have heavy workloads.” and “I took time to listen to co-workers' problems and worries. ($\alpha = .78$)”

Creative performance. Creativity was measured with the three items selected from a 13-item scale developed by Zhou and George (2001). Participants were asked to

indicate how well each of the following statements describes their behavior at work today on a five-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree). The example items of creativity are “I had new and innovative ideas,” and “I came up with creative solutions to problems. ($\alpha = .92$)”

Withdrawal. Withdrawal was measured with the three items of Withdrawal Behavior scale developed by Roznowski and Hanisch (1990). Participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they engaged in the behaviors listed on the measure at work today on a 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree). The example items are “I did poor quality work,” and “I allowed others to do my work for me ($\alpha = .76$).”

Analytic Strategy

Since the current data is a hierarchical structure in which responses from daily diary surveys were nested within individuals, the data was analyzed with multilevel modeling in Mplus7 (Muthén & Muthén, 2012). Multilevel modeling was employed since it allowed me to analyze data at multiple levels of analysis such as within-person and between-person using latent variables. The within-person variables included the daily diary measures (e.g., events, emotions, workplace attitudes and behavior), and the between-person variables consisted of the measures in the initial survey (e.g., gender, trait PA and NA). At level 1 (i.e. within-person level) of the multilevel model, the random effect of positive and negative events on guilt, shame, and pride and the random effect of guilt, shame, and pride on emotion regulation strategies and outcome variables were estimated. The Level-1 interaction terms between guilt, shame, and pride and Level-1 moderators (i.e. emotional management strategies for guilt, shame, and pride)

were created by multiplying the person-mean centered scores of each of the self-conscious emotions with person-mean centered scores of Level-1 moderators (Enders & Tofighi, 2007). The effects of these interaction terms on outcome variables were estimated. Daily positive and negative affect were controlled. All level-1 predictors were person-mean centered to obtain unbiased estimates of within-person level effects (Enders & Tofighi, 2007).

RESULTS

Partitioning of Variance

To partition the variance into between- and within-person components, a null model in which no predictors were entered at either level of analysis was run on each daily (Level 1) variable. If there is no or little within-person variability in the daily variables, it indicates constructs are stable over time rather than fluctuating at the within-person level and can be examined at the between-person level (Spence et al., 2014). The daily variables including self-conscious emotions and outcome variables demonstrated statistically significant with-person variance: positive events (68%), negative events (74%), guilt (69%), shame (68%), pride (71%), positive emotion management (55%), avoiding coping strategies (64%), problem-solving strategies (57%), accepting responsibilities strategies (53%), stress (62%), burnout (63%), health complaints (45%), engagement (63%), OCB (53%), creative performance (50%), and withdrawal (60%). Overall, results propose that the daily variables are dynamic construct, and multilevel modeling was appropriate.

Preliminary Analyses

Multilevel confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to examine whether measures of guilt, shame, and pride captured distinctive factors. At the within-person level, a three-factor was specified by estimating the loadings of respective items on the three latent variables (i.e. guilt, shame, and pride). Results showed that the three-factor model fit the data well at within-person level, $\chi^2 (48, N = 328) = 84.386, p = .0009$, comparative fit index (CFI) = .987, Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) = .980, and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .048. All indicators significantly loaded on their respective latent factors ($p < .001$). However, guilt and shame were highly correlated ($r = .89$), which means low discriminant validity between guilt and shame. I conducted an alternative two-factor model by combining guilt and shame as one construct and having all indicators from the two factors load on one latent factor, negative self-conscious emotions (NSCE). Results showed that the two-factor model fit the data worse than the three-factor model, but, the two-factor model fit acceptable (See Table 9). These results suggested that despite the better fit of the three-factor model by separating guilt from shame, the extremely high correlation between guilt and shame measures does not represent the distinction of guilt and shame construct. It is consistent with low distinction in antecedents of and responses to guilt and shame found in Study 1 and partial support of the argument regarding shared common variance between guilt and shame in self-conscious emotion literature (Tangney, 1991). To have a clear picture of guilt and shame, I report not only the results of guilt and shame as a separate construct on outcomes but also those of a single factor combined guilt and shame on outcomes. The within-person

variance of NSCE was 69%, similar to those of guilt (69%) and shame (68%). The coefficient alpha for NSCE was .87.

Table 9
Model Fit Statistics for the Two- and Three-Factor Models

	Two factors (NSCE, Pride)	Three factors (Guilt, Shame, Pride)
χ^2 (df)	141.465 (52)	84.386 (48)
$P(\chi^2)$.0000	.0009
CFI/TLI	.968/.955	.987/.980
RMSEA	.072	.048
SRMR	.044 (within) .134 (between)	.031 (within) .063 (between)

Note. N = 328 (Observations: Daily surveys), 115 (Clusters: Individuals)

Hypotheses Testing

1. Guilt and Shame as a Separate Construct, and Pride

Both negative and positive events were entered into the model simultaneously to predict guilt, shame, and pride respectively. For the analyses of the effect of the emotions on emotion management strategies and outcome variables, guilt and shame were entered into the model separately to compare the effect of each guilt and shame on workplace outcomes respectively. Table 10 shows the means, standard deviations, and with- and between-person correlations for all study variables. All variables included in the regression analyses were variables at level 1 (within-person level). For all analyses, daily PA and NA were entered as control variables.

Table 10

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations for All Study Variables

Daily Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
1. PA	2.54	.42		-.27	.21	-.23	-.07	-.29	-.19	.37	.37	.26	-.28	.49	-.22	-.31	-.22	.58	.26	.45	-.37
2. NA	1.41	.13	-.21		-.20	.32	.23	.39	.33	-.18	-.26	-.06	.20	-.13	.66	.40	.88	-.14	.14	.03	.26
3. Pos event	1.75	.35	-.07	.06		.39	.04	-.04	-.00	.86	.33	.32	-.03	.49	-.32	-.22	-.23	.31	.47	.25	-.06
4. Neg event	1.20	.06	-.14	-.03	.05		.62	.61	.64	.27	.17	.42	.30	-.23	.28	-.04	.04	-.24	.02	-.18	.15
5. Guilt	2.65	.95	.05	-.03	.08	.70		.84	.96	.08	.15	.63	.41	-.04	.11	-.16	.13	-.27	-.10	-.07	.28
6. Shame	2.06	1.1	.05	-.01	.04	.70	.78		.96	-.11	-.10	.60	.52	-.19	.24	-.09	.37	-.40	-.09	-.15	.35
7. NSCE	2.35	.94	.06	-.02	.07	.74	.96	.93		-.02	.02	.64	.48	-.12	.18	-.13	.27	-.35	-.10	-.12	.33
8. Pride	5.92	8.0	-.08	.03	.92	.01	.01	-.02	.00		.38	.33	-.22	.69	-.33	-.20	-.24	.56	.56	.27	-.24
9. Problem	3.28	.47	-.04	.16	.04	-.07	.03	.08	.05	.02		.50	.33	.32	-.08	-.22	-.36	.30	.37	.68	-.31
10. Accept	2.62	.38	-.04	.01	.05	-.09	.09	-.01	.05	.08	.17		.46	.22	.16	-.29	.03	.21	.27	.36	.19
11. Avoid	2.75	.40	-.02	.15	.02	.07	.17	.19	.19	-.06	.03	.13		-.22	.38	-.07	.26	-.31	.02	.35	.58
12. PEMG	3.36	.32	.22	-.19	.05	-.03	-.05	.03	-.02	.06	.32	.08	-.16		-.48	-.27	-.09	.44	.72	.52	-.21
13. Stress	2.62	.31	.07	.14	.04	.02	.22	.23	.24	-.03	.15	.07	.45	-.09		.28	.67	-.03	-.14	-.01	.41
14. Health	1.67	.21	-.12	.22	.08	.06	.06	.05	.06	.05	.08	.05	.27	-.02	.21		.27	.23	-.10	-.15	.03
15. Burnout	2.60	.41	-.28	.15	-.12	.11	.09	.03	.07	-.18	.08	-.01	.33	-.30	.28	.46		-.09	.11	.10	.40
16. Engagement	3.37	.12	.23	-.13	.16	-.10	-.08	-.07	-.08	.17	.21	.05	-.17	.27	.17	-.07	-.37		.50	.29	-.31
17. OCB	3.54	.43	.17	-.05	.01	-.12	-.10	-.09	-.10	-.05	.16	-.07	-.21	.30	-.04	-.10	-.15	.26		.42	-.02
18. Creativity	3.23	.75	.02	-.07	.22	-.02	-.13	.00	-.08	.20	.20	.04	-.06	.25	-.14	-.05	-.17	.25	.31		-.10
19. Withdrawal	1.98	.27	.11	-.11	-.03	.15	.25	.13	.21	.01	-.09	.14	.04	-.05	-.17	-.00	.11	-.33	-.15	-.18	

Note. Within-person correlations are below the diagonal, and between-person correlations are above the diagonal. Correlations among within-person variables are within-person variables computed using Mplus “two level” analysis. Coefficient alpha is reported on the diagonal. SD = standard deviation; PA = positive affect; NA = negative affect; Pos event = positive event; Neg event = negative event; NSCE = guilt and shame; Problem = problem-solving strategies; Accept = acceptance strategies; Avoid = avoidance strategies; PEMG = positive emotion management strategies; Health = health complaints; OCB = organizational citizenship behavior.

Work Events

The total number of positive and negative work events was 1413 and 404 respectively. Participants reported more positive events than negative events at work. The most commonly reported positive events were 1) maintaining or building good social relationships with others, 2) performing tasks exceptionally well, and 3) receiving positive feedback, praise, an award, or other acknowledgment. The most commonly reported negative events were 1) performing tasks at a level below what is usually expected or put in less effort into the job than you are supposed to do or usually do, 2) receiving negative feedback, a warning, or other criticism, and 3) having work-related or interpersonal conflict. Figure 3-1 and 3-2 provide the number of positive and negative events in more detail. Similar to Study 1, people reported positive and negative events regarding task performance and social relationships more frequently than events regarding morality.

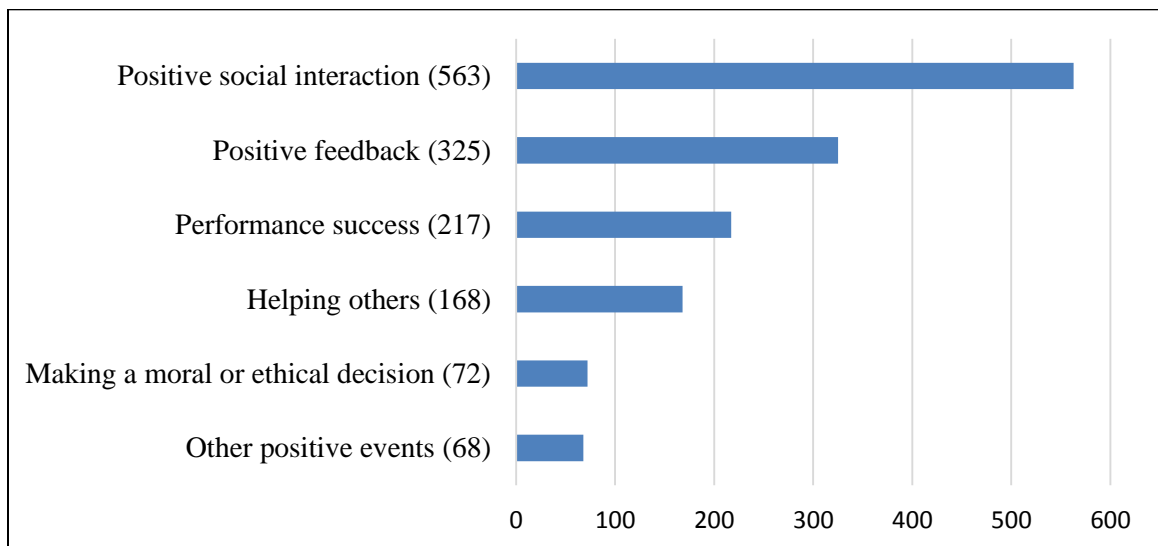


Figure 3-1. Number of Positive Self-Relevant Events

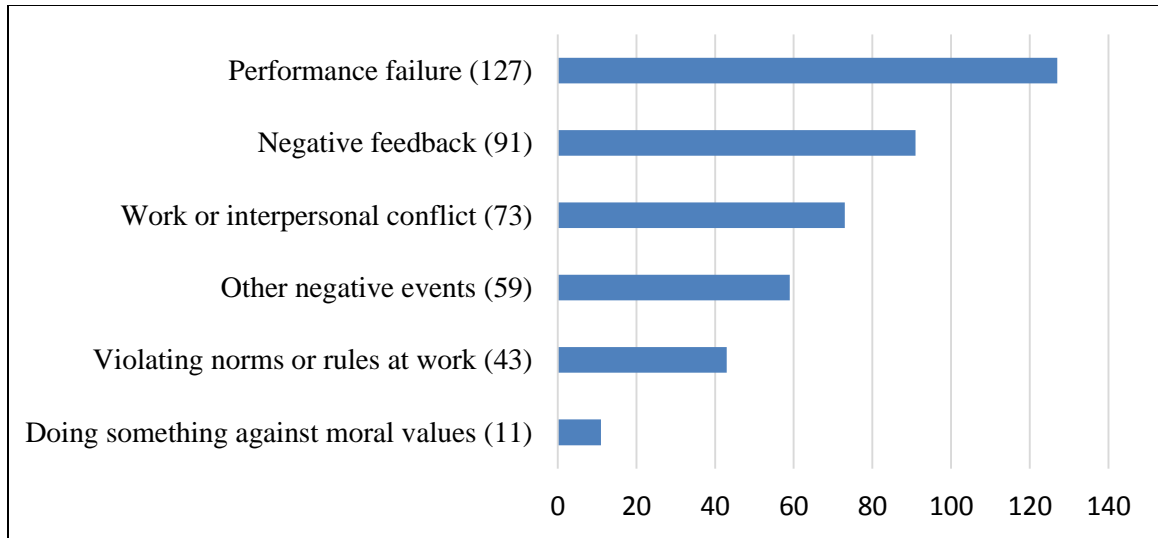


Figure 3-2. Number of Negative Self-Relevant Events

Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3. Hypotheses 1 - 3 predicted within-person relationships between self-relevant work events and self-conscious emotions. In support of Hypothesis 1 and 2, work events that reflect poorly on one's own competence, sociability, and morality were positively related to guilt ($\gamma = .593, p < .001$) and shame ($\gamma = .557, p < .001$). In support of Hypotheses 3, positive self-relevant events were strongly positively related to pride ($\gamma = .915, p < .001$; See Table 11). Supplementary analysis showed that negative self-relevant events were negatively related to pride ($\gamma = -.055, p = .001$). These results suggested that on days when people had more work events that perceived their competence, social relationship, and morality negatively, they experienced higher guilt or shame. On the other hand, on days when employees had more work events that reflected positively on their competence, social interaction, and integrity, they experienced higher levels of proud feelings. Furthermore, on days that they have more work events that reflect negatively on their behavior or themselves, they felt lower proud feelings. Importantly, the results showed that daily general positive and negative affective states

were not associated with these events requiring self-reflection.

Hypotheses 4, 5, and 6. Hypotheses 4-6 aimed to examine the pattern of emotional management strategies after experiencing self-conscious emotions. Results did not support Hypotheses 4 that guilt would be associated with approach-oriented strategies such as problem-solving and acceptance as well as avoidance-oriented strategies. Likewise, results did not provide any associations between shame and all of the coping strategies predicted in Hypothesis 5. Further, there was no support for Hypothesis 6 that pride would be positively associated with positive emotion management strategies (See Table 12-1 and 12-2). These results suggest that each emotion is not a strong predictor of approach and avoidance strategies as well as positive emotion management strategies.

Table 11
Within-Person Effects of Events on Self-Conscious Emotions

Variables	γ	SE	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Predicting Guilt				
PA_D	0.060	0.055	1.094	0.274
NA_D	0.017	0.037	0.468	0.640
Negative events	0.593***	0.039	15.053	0.000
Positive events	-0.008	0.049	-0.167	0.868
Predicting Shame				
PA_D	0.039	0.049	0.805	0.421
NA_D	0.012	0.034	0.351	0.725
Negative events	0.557***	0.038	14.811	0.000
Positive events	-0.026	0.038	-0.698	0.485
Predicting Pride				
PA_D	0.026	0.017	1.553	0.120
NA_D	0.007	0.014	0.470	0.638
Negative events	-0.055**	0.016	-3.378	0.001
Positive events	0.915***	0.010	96.135	0.000

Note. Controls: PA_D = daily PA, NA_D = daily NA; γ = standardized estimate. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 12-1

Within-Person Effects of Guilt and Pride on Emotion Management Strategies

Variables	γ	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Predicting Avoidance				
PA_D	-0.033	0.090	-0.368	0.713
NA_D	0.018	0.059	0.310	0.757
Pride	-0.046	0.052	-0.891	0.373
Guilt	0.129	0.081	1.590	0.112
Predicting Problem-Solving				
PA_D	-0.024	0.061	-0.393	0.694
NA_D	0.134	0.079	1.700	0.089
Pride	0.023	0.053	0.428	0.669
Guilt	0.011	0.100	0.108	0.914
Predicting Acceptance				
PA_D	-0.036	0.112	-0.318	0.751
NA_D	0.002	0.069	0.030	0.976
Pride	0.076	0.094	0.804	0.421
Guilt	0.052	0.100	0.520	0.603
Predicting positive emotion management strategies				
PA_D	0.134	0.066	2.037	0.042
NA_D	-0.109	0.075	-1.455	0.146
Pride	0.032	0.057	0.562	0.574
Guilt	-0.046	0.058	-0.796	0.426

Note. Controls: PA_D = daily PA, NA_D = daily NA; γ = standardized estimate.

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

Table 12-2

Within-Person Effects of Shame and Pride on Emotion Management Strategies

Variables	γ	SE	t	p
Predicting Avoidance				
PA_D	-0.033	0.088	-0.378	0.705
NA_D	0.017	0.054	0.317	0.751
Pride	-0.047	0.051	-0.905	0.366
Shame	0.129	0.099	1.298	0.194
Predicting Problem-Solving				
PA_D	-0.026	0.059	-0.447	0.655
NA_D	0.134	0.081	1.651	0.099
Pride	0.024	0.054	0.440	0.660
Shame	0.065	0.067	0.969	0.333
Predicting Acceptance				
PA_D	-0.032	0.109	-0.296	0.768
NA_D	0.002	0.069	0.024	0.981
Pride	0.074	0.094	0.792	0.429
Shame	-0.021	0.073	-0.293	0.770
Predicting Positive Emotion Management Strategies				
PA_D	0.132	0.066	2.009	0.045
NA_D	-0.108	0.074	-1.465	0.143
Pride	0.033	0.058	0.575	0.565
Shame	0.004	0.068	0.052	0.959

Note. Controls: PA_D = daily PA, NA_D = daily NA; γ = standardized estimate.

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

Hypothesis 7. Hypotheses 7a-b stated that guilt and shame would be positively related to stress above and beyond negative affective states whereas Hypothesis 7c predicted that pride would be negatively related to stress above and beyond positive affective states. Guilt and shame were positively associated with stress respectively ($\gamma = .161, p < .05$; $\gamma = .166, p < .05$) whereas pride was not associated with stress. Hypotheses 7a and 7b were supported, indicating that employees experienced higher levels of stress on the days when they felt higher levels of guilt and shame. Regressions are reported in Table 13-1 (guilt vs. pride) and Table 13-2 (shame vs. pride).

Table 13-1
Within-Person Effects of Guilt and Pride on Workplace Outcomes

Variables	γ	SE	t	p
Predicting Stress				
PA_D	0.053	0.071	0.749	0.454
NA_D	0.117	0.065	1.790	0.073
Pride	0.001	0.042	0.031	0.975
Guilt	0.161	0.078	2.064	0.039
Predicting Burnout				
PA_D	-0.201	0.076	-2.632	0.008
NA_D	0.016	0.058	0.272	0.786
Pride	-0.144	0.057	-2.510	0.012
Guilt	0.033	0.055	0.597	0.550
Predicting Health Complaints				
PA_D	-0.065	0.072	-0.907	0.364
NA_D	0.096	0.094	1.024	0.306
Pride	0.050	0.063	0.802	0.422
Guilt	0.013	0.051	0.260	0.795
Predicting Work Engagement				
PA_D	0.159	0.075	2.128	0.033
NA_D	-0.025	0.079	-0.312	0.755
Pride	0.114	0.047	2.418	0.016
Guilt	-0.051	0.063	-0.812	0.417
Predicting OCB				
PA_D	0.115	0.044	2.594	0.009
NA_D	-0.001	0.091	-0.015	0.988
Pride	-0.051	0.063	-0.819	0.413
Guilt	-0.061	0.057	-1.057	0.291
Predicting Creativity				
PA_D	0.034	0.070	0.490	0.624
NA_D	-0.014	0.074	-0.188	0.851
Pride	0.135	0.064	2.115	0.034
Guilt	-0.091	0.063	-1.449	0.147
Predicting Withdrawal				
PA_D	0.071	0.080	0.886	0.375
NA_D	-0.066	0.095	-0.694	0.488
Pride	0.015	0.082	0.183	0.854
Guilt	0.170	0.054	3.156	0.002

Note. Controls: PA_D = daily PA, NA_D = daily NA; γ = standardized estimate; OCB = Organizational citizenship behavior.

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

Table 13-2

Within-Person Effects of Shame and Pride on Workplace Outcomes

Variables	γ	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Predicting Stress				
PA_D	0.054	0.067	0.810	0.418
NA_D	0.118	0.069	1.706	0.088
Pride	0.000	0.041	-0.012	0.991
Shame	0.166	0.073	2.262	0.024
Predicting Burnout				
PA_D	-0.200	0.076	-2.618	0.009
NA_D	0.016	0.057	0.276	0.783
Pride	-0.145	0.057	-2.538	0.011
Shame	0.012	0.062	0.189	0.850
Predicting Health Complaints				
PA_D	-0.065	0.071	-0.913	0.361
NA_D	0.096	0.093	1.028	0.304
Pride	0.050	0.063	0.805	0.421
Shame	0.019	0.066	0.284	0.777
Predicting Engagement				
PA_D	0.158	0.074	2.135	0.033
NA_D	-0.025	0.077	-0.321	0.748
Pride	0.114	0.046	2.476	0.013
Shame	-0.045	0.057	-0.787	0.431
Predicting OCB				
PA_D	0.115	0.043	2.671	0.008
NA_D	-0.001	0.091	-0.011	0.991
Pride	-0.052	0.061	-0.842	0.400
Shame	-0.067	0.061	-1.099	0.272
Predicting Creativity				
PA_D	0.030	0.069	0.435	0.664
NA_D	-0.013	0.075	-0.173	0.863
Pride	0.137	0.067	2.046	0.041
Shame	0.001	0.068	0.013	0.990
Predicting Withdrawal				
PA_D	0.073	0.079	0.926	0.355
NA_D	-0.067	0.097	-0.687	0.492
Pride	0.014	0.080	0.169	0.866
Shame	0.107	0.073	1.469	0.142

Note. Controls: PA_D = daily PA, NA_D = daily NA; γ = standardized estimate; OCB = Organizational citizenship behavior.

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

Hypothesis 8. Hypotheses 8a-b predicted significant positive associations between guilt as well as shame and health complaints and Hypothesis 8c predicted a negative association between pride and health complaints. However, guilt, shame, and pride were not related to health complaints.

Hypothesis 9. Hypotheses 9a-b proposed that guilt and shame would be positively related to burnout whereas Hypothesis 9c proposed that pride would be negatively related to it. Guilt and shame were not significantly associated with burnout. However, pride was significantly associated with burnout when entered with guilt ($\gamma = -.144$, $p = .012$) or shame ($\gamma = -.145$, $p = .011$) separately, supporting Hypothesis 8c. This result indicates that on days that participants felt higher levels of pride, their burnout was significantly reduced above beyond positive affective states.

Hypothesis 10. Hypotheses 10a and 10c predicted positive associations between guilt and pride and work engagement respectively, and Hypothesis 10b predicted a negative association between shame and engagement. Both guilt and shame were not associated with engagement whereas pride was positively associated with engagement when entered with guilt ($\gamma = .114$, $p = .016$) or shame ($\gamma = .114$, $p = .013$). Hypothesis 9c was only supported, indicating that employees were significantly more engaged to their work above and beyond positive affective states on the days when they felt higher levels of pride.

Hypothesis 11. Hypotheses 11a and 11c examined positive associations between guilt and pride and OCB respectively, and Hypothesis 11b explored if shame would be related to OCB. Results did not support any associations between all three emotions and OCB.

Hypothesis 12. Hypotheses 12a and 12c tested the positive relationships between guilt and pride and creative performance respectively. Hypothesis 12b tested the negative relationship between shame and creativity. Both guilt and shame were not associated with creative performance. In support of Hypothesis 11c, pride was positively associated with creative performance ($\gamma = .135, p < .05$). On days when participants experienced higher levels of pride, they produced more creative performance above and beyond positive affective states.

Hypothesis 13. Hypotheses 13a and 13c examined the negative associations between guilt and pride and work withdrawal respectively. Hypothesis 13b explored if there is a positive association between shame and withdrawal behavior. In contrast to Hypothesis 13a, guilt was positively associated with work withdrawal ($\gamma = .170, p = .002$), indicating that on days when participants felt higher levels of guilt than normal, they engaged in more work withdrawal behavior. There was no significant associations between shame as well as pride and withdrawal.

Moderators.

Hypothesis 14. Hypothesis 14 predicted the moderating role of approach-oriented coping strategies in the relationship between guilt and (a) engagement, (b) OCB, and (c) creative performance. Results showed that the interaction effect of guilt and problem-solving on engagement was only significant. Table 14 provides the significant moderating effects of emotion management strategies in the relationships between guilt and outcome variables. The main effect of problem-solving strategy on engagement was significant ($\gamma = .164, p = .006$). The interaction term of guilt and problem-solving on engagement was

significant ($\gamma = -.08, p = .005$). Figure 4 provides the relationship between guilt and engagement at conditional values of daily problem-solving strategy. This result suggests that guilt is not related to engagement when the use of problem-solving strategy is low, but, guilt decreased engagement when the use of problem-solving strategy is high. It was the opposite direction of Hypothesis 3a predicting that problem-solving strategies would strengthen the positive relationship between guilt and engagement when the use of problem-solving strategy was high.

Hypothesis 15. Hypothesis 15 predicted the moderating effect of avoidance strategy in the relationship between guilt and withdrawal. Avoidance coping strategy did not moderate the relationship between guilt and withdrawal.

Table 14
Moderating Effects of Emotional Management Strategies

Variables	γ	SE	t	p
Predicting Engagement				
Intercept	3.09	0.063	49.379	0.000
PA_D	0.142	0.079	1.79	0.073
NA_D	-0.198	0.076	-2.593	0.010
Guilt	-0.061	0.022	-2.76	0.006
Problem-solving	0.164	0.059	2.775	0.006
Guilt*PBLM	-0.08	0.028	-2.81	0.005
Predicting Stress				
Intercept	2.364	0.050	46.904	0.000
PA_D	0.020	0.041	0.496	0.620
NA_D	0.379	0.070	5.419	0.000
Pride	0.008	0.008	1.025	0.305
PEMG	-0.149	0.041	-3.637	0.000
Pride*PEMG	0.034	0.012	2.904	0.004
Predicting Creativity				
Intercept	3.083	0.107	28.842	0.000
PA_D	-0.003	0.106	-0.025	0.980
NA_D	0.033	0.142	0.233	0.815
Guilt	-0.044	0.07	-0.63	0.529
PEMG	0.343	0.056	6.119	0.000
Guilt*PEMG	-0.197	0.055	-3.561	0.000

Note. Controls: PA_D = daily PA, NA_D = daily NA, γ = standardized estimate, PEMG = positive emotion management strategies, Guilt*PBLM = interaction term of guilt and problem-solving, Guilt*PEMG = interaction term of guilt and positive emotion management strategies, Pride*PEMG = interaction term of pride and positive emotion management strategies, * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

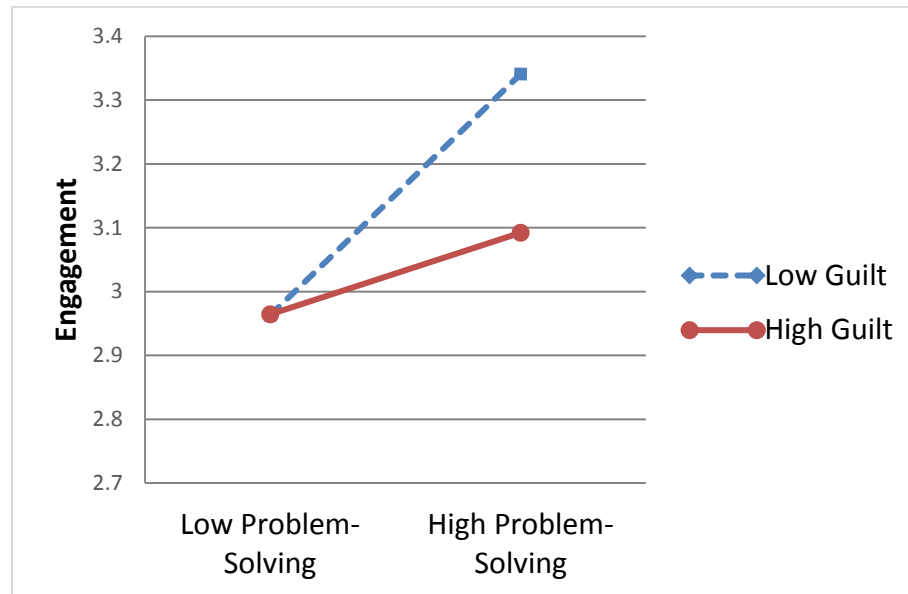


Figure 4. Daily problem-solving strategy moderates the within-person relationship between guilt and engagement at work

Hypothesis 16. Hypothesis 16 predicted the moderating effect of avoidance strategy in the relationships between shame and outcome variables. However, avoidance coping strategy did not moderate any relationships between shame and outcomes.

Hypothesis 17. Hypothesis 17 predicted the moderating effects of positive emotion management strategies between pride and outcomes variables. There was only one significant moderating effect of positive emotion management strategies in the relationships between pride and workplace outcomes. The main effect of positive emotion management strategies on stress was significant ($\gamma = -.149, p < .001$). The interaction term between pride and positive emotion management strategy on stress was

significant ($\gamma = .034$, $p = .004$). But, it was the opposite direction of Hypothesis 16 stating that the interaction term between pride and positive emotion management strategy would have a stronger negative relationship with stress (See Table 14 and Figure 5). Results showed that people were better off when they engaged in some positive emotion management, but pride seemed to mute those effects. When people who felt lower pride used the higher level of positive emotion management strategies, they experienced the lower level of stress. However, higher use of positive emotion management strategy did not affect the level of stress of people experiencing high pride.

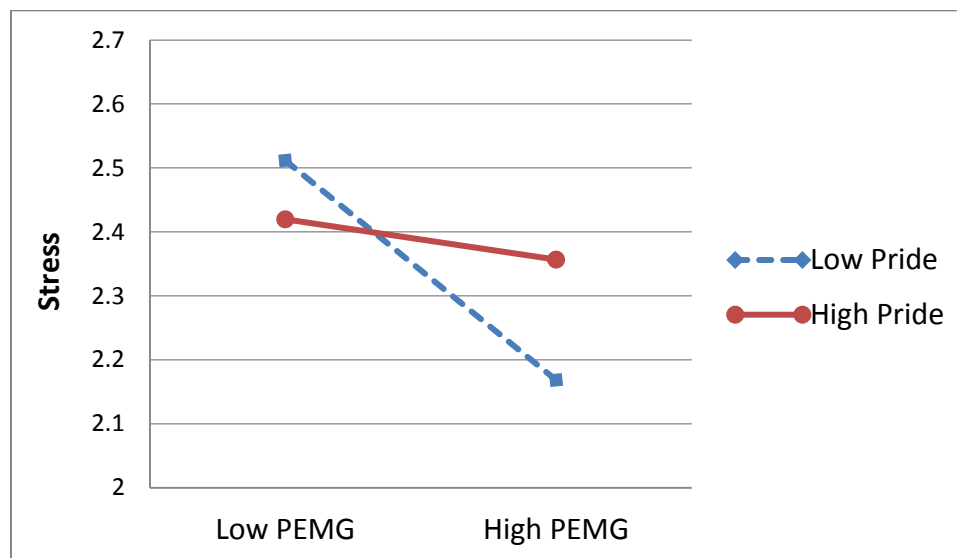


Figure 5. Daily positive emotion strategy moderates the within-person relationship between pride at work and stress

As a supplement analysis, I found one significant moderating effect of positive emotion management strategies in the relationship between guilt and creativity. The main effect of positive emotion management strategies on creativity was significant ($\gamma = .343$, $p < .001$). The interaction term between guilt and positive emotion management strategies

on creativity was significant ($\gamma = -.197, p = .000$, See Table 14). Figure 6 shows the plot of the interaction effect of guilt and positive emotion management strategies on creativity. This result indicates that guilt was not related to creativity when the use of positive emotion management strategies is low, but, guilt decreased creativity when the use of positive emotion management strategies is high. It was also the opposite direction of the prediction in Hypothesis 16.

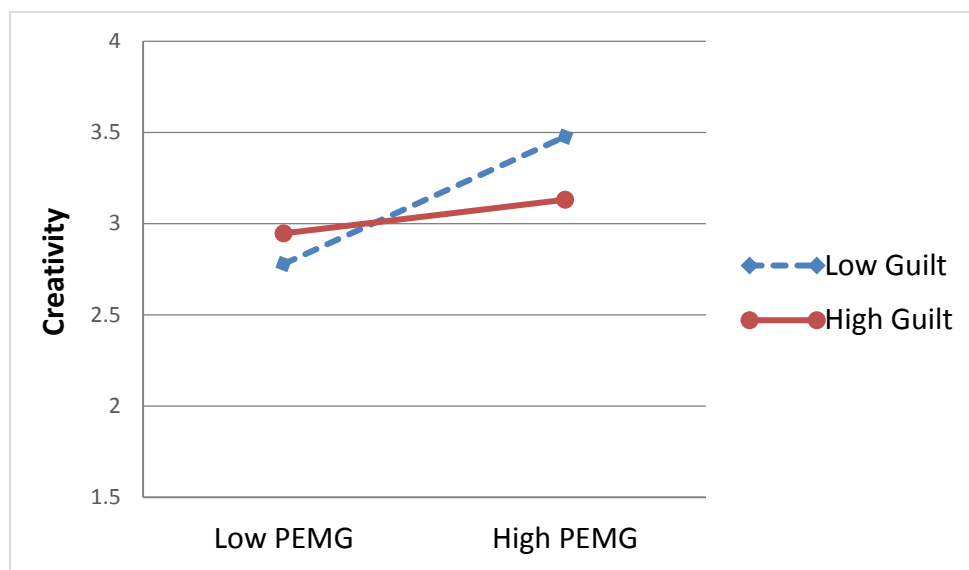


Figure 6. Daily positive emotion management strategy moderates the within-person relationship between guilt and creativity at work.

2. Guilt and Shame as a Single Construct, (NSCE) and Pride

NSCE scale was created by averaging guilt and shame score. Overall, the associations between NSCE and outcome variables were similar to the results about the associations between guilt or shame and outcome variables except the associations with work withdrawal.

Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3. Hypotheses 1 - 3 predicted significant relationships between positive and negative self-relevant work events and self-conscious emotions. Both negative and positive events were entered into the model simultaneously to predict NSCE and pride respectively. These results are very similar to the results that I analyzed guilt and shame separately. Negative events were significantly related to NSCE ($\gamma = .608$, $p < .001$), and positive events were significantly positively related to pride ($\gamma = .915$, $p < .00$; See Table 15).

Table 15
Within-Person Effects of Events on NSCE and Pride

Variables	γ	SE	t	p
Predicting NSCE				
Negative events	0.608***	0.035	17.225	0.000
Positive events	-0.011	0.043	-0.243	0.808
Predicting Pride				
Negative events	-0.055**	0.016	-3.378	0.001
Positive events	0.915***	0.010	96.135	0.000

Note. Controls: daily PA and NA; γ = standardized estimate; NSCE = negative self-conscious emotions (guilt and shame). * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Hypotheses 4, 5, and 6. Hypotheses 4 – 6 tested associations between self-conscious emotions and emotion management strategies. NSCE was not related to any approach- and avoidance-oriented coping strategies. Further, I did not find any significant associations between pride and positive emotion management strategies (See Table 16). Accordingly, all hypotheses regarding patterns of emotional management strategies in response to self-conscious emotions were not supported like the results that guilt and shame as a separate construct were analyzed.

Table 16
Within-Person Effects of NSCE and Pride on Emotion Management Strategies

Variables	γ	SE	t	p
Predicting problem-solving coping strategies				
NSCE	0.036	0.089	0.403	0.687
Pride	0.023	0.053	0.436	0.663
Predicting accepting responsibilities coping strategies				
NSCE	0.021	0.087	0.240	0.810
Pride	0.075	0.094	0.801	0.423
Predicting avoidance coping strategies				
NSCE	0.135	0.093	1.462	0.144
Pride	-0.046	0.051	-0.896	0.370
Predicting positive emotional management strategies				
NSCE	-0.026	0.063	-0.411	0.681
Pride	0.032	0.057	0.567	0.571

Note. Controls: daily PA and NA; γ = standardized estimate; NSCE = negative self-conscious emotions (guilt and shame). * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Hypothesis 7. Hypotheses 7a-c predicted that self-conscious emotions would be a strong predictor of stress. The effect of NSCE on stress at work was significant ($\gamma = .171$, $p < .05$) whereas the effect of pride on stress was not significant. The results indicate that employees experienced the higher level of stress on the days when they felt the higher level of negative self-conscious emotions. It was consistent with the results of the separate analyses of guilt and shame. Table 17 provides regression results for the effects of NSCE and pride on all workplace outcome variables.

Hypothesis 8. Hypotheses 8a-c predicted significant associations between self-conscious emotions and health complaints. All self-conscious emotions were not significantly associated with physical health complaints.

Hypotheses 9. Hypotheses 9a-c predicted significant associations between self-conscious emotions and burnout. I did not find a significant association between NSCE and burnout. In support of 9c, I found a significant, negative association between pride

and burnout ($\gamma = -.144$, $p = .011$).

Table 17
Within-Person Effects of NSCE and Pride on Workplace Outcomes

Variables	γ	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Predicting stress				
NSCE	0.171	0.076	2.249	0.026
Pride	0.001	0.041	0.036	0.971
Predicting health complaints				
NSCE	0.016	0.058	0.276	0.782
Pride	0.050	0.062	0.806	0.420
Predicting burnout				
NSCE	0.025	0.057	0.437	0.662
Pride	-0.144	0.057	-2.530	0.011
Predicting work engagement				
NSCE	-0.051	0.060	-0.847	0.397
Pride	0.114	0.047	2.434	0.015
Predicting OCB				
NSCE	-0.066	0.059	-1.116	0.264
Pride	-0.052	0.062	-0.833	0.405
Predicting creative performance				
NSCE	-0.054	0.066	-0.810	0.418
Pride	0.135	0.065	2.096	0.036
Predicting withdrawal				
NSCE	0.150	0.060	2.524	0.012
Pride	0.015	0.081	0.183	0.855

Note. Controls: daily PA and NA; γ = standardized estimate; NSCE = negative self-conscious emotions (guilt and shame); OCB = organizational citizenship behavior. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Hypotheses 10. Hypotheses 10a-c predicted the significant associations between self-conscious emotions and work engagement. NSCE was not related to work engagement. However, in support of Hypothesis 10c, pride was positively related work engagement ($\gamma = .114$, $p = .015$).

Hypotheses 11. Hypotheses 11a-c examined the associations of self-conscious emotions with OCB. However, both NSCE and pride were not significantly related to OCB.

Hypotheses 12. Hypotheses 12a-c proposed the significant associations between self-conscious emotions and creative performance. While results did not support a significant association between NSCE and creative performance, pride was a good predictor of creative performance ($\gamma = .135, p < .05$), supporting Hypothesis 12c. On days when participants experienced a higher level of pride, they showed more creative performance.

Hypotheses 13. Hypotheses 13a-c tested the relationships between self-conscious emotions and work withdrawal. NSCE was significantly and positively related to work withdrawal ($\gamma = .150, p < .05$), indicating that on days when participants felt higher levels of guilt and shame than normal, they engaged in more work withdrawal. This result was different from the analysis of guilt and shame as a separate construct that guilt was only positively related to work withdrawal. Pride was not related to withdrawal, indicating that Hypothesis 12c was not supported.

Moderators

Table 18 provides the moderating effects of emotion management strategies in the relationships between self-conscious emotions and outcome variables.

Hypotheses 14. Hypotheses 14 predicted the moderating role of approach-oriented coping strategies between guilt and (a) engagement, (b) OCB, and (c) creative performance. Results revealed only a significant moderating effect of problem-solving strategies in the relationships between NSCE and engagement ($\gamma = -.088, p = .013$). It was same with the result of the moderating effect of problem-solving strategy in the relationship between guilt and engagement. Figure 7 provides the relationship between

NSCE and engagement at conditional values of daily problem-solving strategies. NSCE was not related to engagement when the use of problem-solving strategy is low, but, NSCE decreased engagement when the use of problem-solving strategy is high. It was the opposite of Hypothesis 14.

Table 18
Moderating Effects of Emotional Management Strategies

Variables	γ	SE	t	p
Predicting Engagement				
Intercept	3.09	0.062	49.497	0.000
PA_D	0.14	0.078	1.803	0.071
NA_D	-0.196	0.073	-2.675	0.007
NSCE	-0.07	0.025	-2.752	0.006
Problem-solving	0.167	0.06	2.79	0.005
NSCE*problem	-0.088	0.035	-2.488	0.013
Predicting Burnout				
Intercept	2.594	0.077	33.649	0.000
PA_D	-0.38	0.09	-4.204	0.000
NA_D	-0.007	0.134	-0.053	0.958
NSCE	0.09	0.042	2.153	0.031
Acceptance	-0.097	0.075	-1.293	0.196
NSCE*Acceptance	0.046	0.024	1.93	0.054
Predicting Stress				
Intercept	2.364	0.05	46.904	0.000
PA_D	0.02	0.041	0.496	0.620
NA_D	0.379	0.07	5.419	0.000
Pride	0.008	0.008	1.025	0.305
PEMG	-0.149	0.041	-3.637	0.000
Pride*PEMG	0.034	0.012	2.904	0.004

Note. Controls: daily PA and NA; γ = standardized estimate; All variables are within-person level. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Supplemental analyses found a marginal moderating effect of acceptance strategy in the relationship between NSCE and burnout ($\gamma = .046$, $p = .054$), suggesting that people with low NSCE only burn out if they cannot accept the situation or their mistakes,

but when people have high level of NSCE, level of use of acceptance strategy does not help them reduce burnout. The relationship between NSCE and burnout at conditional values of daily coping strategies – accepting responsibilities - was plotted in Figure 8.

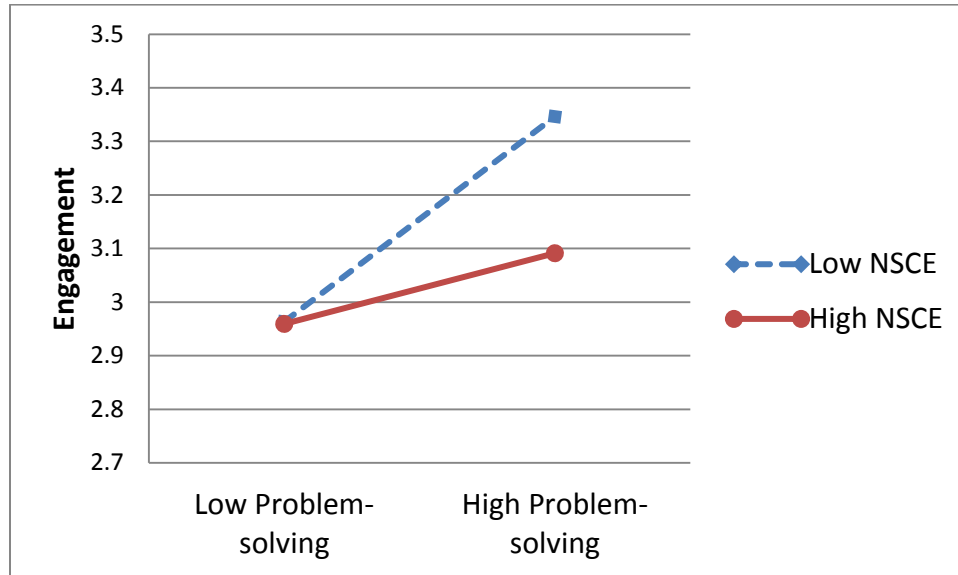


Figure 7. Daily problem-solving strategy moderates the within-person relationship between NSCE at work and engagement

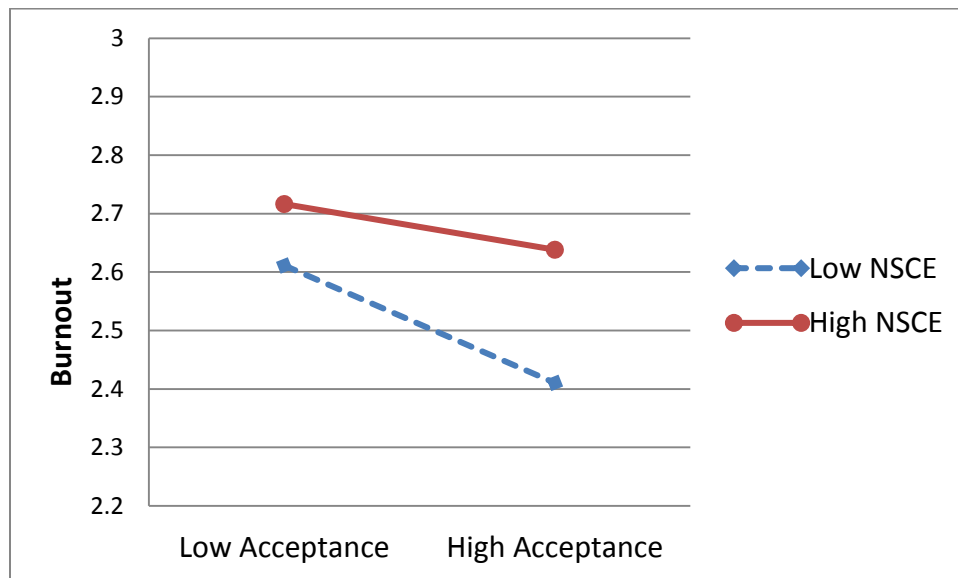


Figure 8. Daily acceptance strategy moderates the within-person relationship between NSCE at work and burnout

Hypotheses 15 and 16. Hypothesis 15 predicted the moderating effect of avoidance strategy in the relationship between guilt and withdrawal, and Hypothesis 16 predicted the moderating effect of avoidance strategy in the relationships between shame and outcome variables. I did not find any significant interaction effects, which means Hypotheses 15 and 16 were not supported.

Hypothesis 17. As discussed earlier, the interaction term between pride and positive emotion management strategy on stress was significant ($\gamma = .034$, $p = .004$), but, it was opposite to Hypothesis 17 predicting that positive emotion management strategy would strengthen the negative effects of pride on stress (See Figure 5).

Supplementary Analyses

Effectiveness of Emotion Management Strategies

I examined the effects of emotion management strategies on employees' workplace attitudes and behavior. For these analyses, each of emotion management strategies was regressed on each of outcome variables. Daily PA and NA were controlled.

One of the approach-oriented strategies, problem-solving strategy was positively related to stress ($\gamma = .083$, $p = .007$), engagement ($\gamma = .086$, $p < .05$), creativity ($\gamma = .308$, $p < .001$). Accepting responsibilities were positively related to OCB ($\gamma = .100$, $p < .001$), creativity ($\gamma = .163$, $p < .001$), and withdrawal ($\gamma = .132$, $p = .006$). Avoidance strategy was significantly, positively associated with stress ($\gamma = .280$, $p < .001$), burnout ($\gamma = .244$, $p < .001$), health complaints ($\gamma = .179$, $p < .001$), and withdrawal ($\gamma = .226$, $p < .000$). This strategy was significantly, negatively associated with engagement ($\gamma = -.191$, $p < .001$). Positive emotion management strategy had significant associations with all outcome

variables except withdrawal. Positive emotion management strategy had a significant, negative association with stress ($\gamma = -.096$, $p = .003$), burnout ($\gamma = -.106$, $p = < .001$), health complaints ($\gamma = -.069$, $p = < .05$) and a significant, positive association with work engagement ($\gamma = .240$, $p < .001$), OCB ($\gamma = .332$, $p = < .001$), and creativity ($\gamma = .254$, $p < .001$).

Self-Relevant Events, Emotion Management Strategies, and Workplace outcomes

I also conducted supplementary regression analyses to see how events were directly related to emotion management strategies and workplace outcomes. Daily PA and NA were added in the regressions as control variables. Although I did not find any significant associations between guilt, shame, or pride and emotion management strategies, both self-relevant positive and negative events were strong predictors of avoidance and positive emotion management strategies. Positive self-relevant events were negatively associated with avoidance strategy ($\gamma = -.088$, $p = .001$) and positively associated with positive emotion management strategy ($\gamma = .162$, $p < .001$). Negative self-relevant events were positive related to avoidance strategy ($\gamma = .188$, $p < .001$) and negatively related to positive emotion management strategy ($\gamma = -.120$, $p < .001$).

Events were also significantly associated with various workplace outcomes. Positive events were positively associated with engagement ($\gamma = .203$, $p < .001$), OCB ($\gamma = .176$, $p < .001$), and creativity ($\gamma = .162$, $p < .001$), and negatively associated with withdrawal ($\gamma = -.070$, $p = .003$). Negative events were significantly related to negative workplace outcomes by increasing stress ($\gamma = .151$, $p < .001$), health complaints ($\gamma = .070$, $p = .013$), burnout ($\gamma = .145$, $p < .001$), and withdrawal ($\gamma = .122$, $p < .001$). They were

also significantly associated with positive workplace outcomes by decreasing engagement ($\gamma = -.126, p < .001$) and OCB ($\gamma = -.063, p = .011$).

DISCUSSION

Comparison of a Separate Construct (Guilt and Shame) vs. a Single Construct (NSCE)

Responding to call for research on discrete emotions in the workplace (Gooty et al., 2009), this study investigated guilt and shame, separating them from general negative affect. But, due to the low discriminant validity between guilt and shame as discussed earlier, I provided more sophisticated analyses by comparing the results of guilt and shame as a separate construct as well as a combined construct, NSCE. Table 19 provides a summary of comparative results of guilt and shame vs. NSCE. Daily events that reflected poorly on one's competence, social relationships, and morality were positively associated with guilt and shame as well as NSCE. Regarding consequences, the comparative results showed the similar patterns of the within-person effects of guilt and shame as a separate and a combined construct on stress, but, the results were different regarding withdrawal. In the separate analysis, guilt was positively associated with withdrawal whereas shame was not related to it. But, when I combined the two constructs into one construct, NSCE, it was positively associated with withdrawal, which can result from multicollinearity. These results show that combining these two constructs may miss a different behavioral outcome in response to guilt and shame respectively. Except the different relationship between guilt vs. shame and work withdrawal, both separating and combining guilt and shame provided similarly statistically significant findings regarding

Table 19

Comparison of NSCE vs. Guilt and Shame

	Antecedents		Consequences						
	Positive Events	Negative Events	Stress	Health complaints	Burnout	Engagement	OCB	Creativity	Withdrawal
Guilt	-.008	.593***	.161*	.013	.033	-.051	-.061	-.091	.170**
Pride	.915***	-.055**	.001	.050	-.144*	.114*	-.051	.135*	.015
Shame	-.026	.557***	.166*	.019	.012	-.045	-.067	.001	.107
Pride	.915***	-.055**	.000	.050	-.145*	.114*	-.052	.137*	.014
NSCE	-.011	.608***	.171*	.016	.025	-.051	-.066	-.054	.150*
Pride	.915***	-.055**	.001	.050	-.144*	.114*	-.052	.135*	.015

an antecedent (i.e. negative events) and the consequence (i.e. stress). This result implies a need for developing work-specific measures of guilt and shame to differentiate them more clearly than using general measures of the emotions in other social settings, which will be an important future direction for empirical research on self-conscious emotions at work (Bulger, 2013).

Within-Person Effects of Work Events on Self-Conscious Emotions at Work

Expanding previous research on affective events and affect, this study demonstrated the significant associations between work events requiring positive and negative self-reflection and discrete self-conscious emotions. Negative events were positively associated with NSCE ($\gamma = .608$) as well as guilt ($\gamma = .593$) and shame ($\gamma = .557$). The magnitude of effects was similar. In addition to finding a significant symmetrical association between positive events and pride, this study also revealed a significant asymmetrical association between negative work events and pride. Having events that reflected poorly on their behavior or themselves more than usual decreased employees' proud feelings at work. As Thoresen, Kaplan, Barsky, Warren, and de Chermont (2003) challenged the traditional symmetric links between positive events and mood states and positive outcomes as well as between negative events and mood states and negative results, this study also suggests that future research replicates asymmetrical associations between positive and negative self-relevant workplace events and self-conscious emotions in other contexts besides symmetrical relationships between them.

Further, this study also contributed to events and emotion literature by providing the specific types of events associated with self-conscious emotions. Based on past

research on antecedents of self-conscious emotions and the qualitative findings of Study 1, I developed a list of specific work events that may reflect poorly or positively one's task performance, social relationship, and morality-related issues. These categories represent individual, social, and moral self that are important components in one's self-concepts. Regarding the links between events and self-conscious emotions in Study 2, the results also shed light on the importance of one's self-perceptions and motives to maintain or promote a certain type of self-images in the appraisal of self-relevant work events associated with self-conscious emotions (Leary, 2007). Work events influencing one's self-image in the task, social, and moral domains elicited fluctuations in one's daily pride (when work events enhance one's positive self-regard), and guilt or shame (when work events threaten one's identity). Accordingly, understanding specific work events appraised to be enhancing or threatening self will help understand the unique triggers (related to self-states) of these emotions in the workplace. I summed up the different types of events to create a positive and negative work event scale, but, it would be more useful to examine how each type of the events (i.e. performance, social relationship, and morality) is associated with guilt, shame, and pride respectively.

Within-Person Effects of Self-Conscious Emotions on Emotion Management

Strategies at Work

Results showed that self-conscious emotions were not associated with any types of emotion management strategies. In Study 1, people reported more approach-oriented coping strategies (e.g., problem-solving, seeking social support, accepting responsibilities, making up for a mistake) than avoidance coping strategies to alleviate both guilt and

shame. In Study 2, however, guilt and shame did not predict any certain coping patterns. The most salient reason for this result is that the emotional management strategies were assessed at the day level, not directly assessed in response to events associated with self-conscious emotions. Furthermore, these two studies may produce inconsistent findings due to the different research designs. The daily survey of Study 2 asked participants to report their coping strategies on the same day that a negative event happened. But, the retrospective open-ended questions in Study 1 did not require participants to report their coping strategies they used on the same day the event occurred explicitly. Although I asked participants to describe what they did to reduce guilt and shame after the event happened, there is no clear evidence whether they reported coping strategies in response to guilt and shame they used right after or a few days later the event occurred.

Stress and coping theory suggests that people choose their coping strategies after their primary and secondary appraisal (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), but, the time to get through this process may depend on their traits or situations. In review of stress theories, Sullivan and Bhagat (1992) stated that most of the stress theories were “*characterized by an extremely passive view of people, and the research process is so structured that they often do not allow the respondents ample opportunities-even in real life organizational contexts-to select alternatives, to manage critical environmental contingencies, and generally to construe the situation so that coping and adaptation might be achieved over time* (p. 367).” As they pointed out, the coping process may be more complex and require more time. As a result, the daily survey asking coping strategies the individual chooses on the day the negative event happens may not capture the coping strategies the individual finally chooses. This limitation suggests a future study to investigate the

associations between self-conscious emotions and coping strategies using a longitudinal design.

Furthermore, the results suggest that general coping strategies used in this study may not be an adequate measure to assess individuals' tactics to reduce discrete emotions such as guilt and shame although some of the general coping strategies were also reported by participants in Study 1. Moreover, there may be a possibility that individual traits or contexts play a role in the relationships between guilt and shame and their emotion management strategies. A study investigated how salespeople within an interdependent-based culture (the Philippines) and an independent-based culture (the Netherlands) experience and respond to their felt shame (Boggazi et al., 2003). They found that both Filipino and Dutch salespeople experienced shame from interaction with customers. But, shame has a strong positive effect on protective actions and a significantly negative effect on adaptive resources utilization among Dutch salespeople whereas it has a nonsignificant effect on both responses among Filipino employees. Since Study 2 only included adults who were currently working in the United States, considering national culture might not be relevant in this study. However, cultural context can be integrated into future empirical studies to see how an individual's cultural background can influence the individual's responses to work events associated with these emotions (also related to the individual's self and social identity) in that modern workplaces have increasingly global and diverse workforce. Furthermore, other individual traits (e.g., personality) or external factors (e.g., organizational support) may influence how people regulate these emotions, which can be another future direction.

Effects of Self-Conscious Emotions on Workplace Outcomes

Self-conscious emotions significantly influenced the within-person variability of employees' psychological and behavioral outcomes. Most importantly, these emotions contributed to the within-person fluctuations in employees' daily stress, burnout, engagement, creative performance, and withdrawal even after daily general positive and negative affective states were explained. These results suggest that future research needs to differentiate these emotions from general positive and negative affect and examine the unique effects of discrete emotions on workplace outcomes.

Responding to researchers' call for research on the effect of self-conscious emotions on individuals' stress and health regarding their occupations or at work (e.g., Bugler, 2013), this study found that self-conscious emotions had important impacts on employees' stress, in particular. On days when employees felt guilty or ashamed from negative work events they had in fulfilling their job roles, they experienced higher levels of stress. Research has found that negative events or stressors are associated with higher stress in life in general or in the workplace (e.g., Lazarus, 1991b; Bono et al., 2013), and negative mood generated from negative work events impact stress (Bolger, DeLongis, Kessler, & Schilling, 1989). But, there is less empirical evidence of the associations between guilt and shame and individuals' stress in the workplace above and beyond general negative affect. The current study contributed to expanding previous research by demonstrating that guilt and shame as discrete emotions influenced daily fluctuation of one's stress beyond negative affective states. Examining what is the mechanism in which guilt and shame produce higher levels of stress may also be valuable. A study found that negative work events (e.g., negative customer interaction) led to higher levels of negative

mood in the next morning via more rumination at night (Wang et al., 2013).

Incorporating rumination in this study, investigating how rumination plays a role in the process driving self-conscious emotions or in the relationships between these emotions and workplace outcomes may be a promising direction for future research. Furthermore, more future studies on self-conscious emotions at work and stress will help organizations recognize and eliminate stressful and unhealthy working environments by revealing stressors and strains of self-conscious emotions in the work and organizational settings.

Limited prior research suggested the strong associations between pride and health using focus group study (Warna et al., 2007), but pride did not predict stress and health complaints in this study. Instead, pride influenced employees' psychological outcomes such as burnout and work engagement. On days that employees had more proud days due to their achievement or positive social relationships with others, they experienced lower levels of burnout and higher levels of engagement. As engagement is considered as the positive antipode of burnout in the literature (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004), pride buffered negative work-related psychological state of mind and enhanced positive state of mind. Consistent with the broaden-and-build theory (Fredrickson, 2000), but, expanding the previous research on positive emotions, daily momentary experiences of pride seems to build resilient psychological sources that contribute to reducing burnout and increasing engagement above and beyond positive affective states. This study contributes to emotion and positive psychology literature by adding important findings of the unique, beneficial role of pride in the workplace, which has been relatively less focused on in research on workplace emotions. In addition to this theoretical contribution, this result provides practical implications to organizational practitioners. Engagement is associated with

positive individual and business-unit-level outcomes such as employee well-being, productivity, profit, customer satisfaction, and retention (e.g., Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002). Practitioners need to pay more attention to creating work events eliciting pride and workplace practices to seize employees' proud feelings since pride can not only boost individuals' positive psychological state of mind and but also mitigate burnout, which can, in turn, help organizational success.

Pride also had a positive effect on creative performance. While previous work has shown that general positive mood and emotions are associated with creativity, this study demonstrated that state pride contributed to creative performance at work. This result suggests that experience of proud feelings may also be helpful in being exposed to a new environment, taking a novel perspective, having an open mind, and willing to take a risk to overcome limitations in the workplace. As research suggests that feeling proud reinforces adaptive behavior in the achievement domain (Tracy & Robins, 2007), perceiving the self as a valued person or being responsible for a valued outcome may motivate individuals to actively find new ideas and a more creative solution to a problem in the workplace. Future research can investigate the beneficial role of pride on other workplace performances.

Self-conscious emotions literature suggests that guilt tends to be associated with more adaptive and constructive responses whereas shame is likely to be associated with avoidance responses (Tangney & Dearing, 2002). Based on the theories, I predicted guilt would be negatively associated with withdrawal whereas shame would be positively associated with withdrawal. However, guilt was positively related to withdrawal whereas shame was not related to it. These results indicated that on days when people felt guilty,

they engaged in more work withdrawal whereas on days that people felt ashamed, their feelings did not influence in their work withdrawal behavior. This result was also inconsistent with the findings of Study 1 that employees who felt guilty or ashamed about a negative work situation engaged in more constructive responses than avoidance responses including withdrawal. One potential explanation regarding this result is that the items of work withdrawal I used in Study 2 may not capture the work withdrawal behavior after feeling ashamed. The items include “I did poor quality of work,” “I allowed other people to do my work for me,” and “I made excuses to go somewhere to get out of work.” Since I added a small set of items for each measure to make the daily survey shorter, these items may not fully assess withdrawal behavior ashamed employees are likely to choose. It would be helpful that future research replicates this relationship using entire items of work withdrawal scale in a daily work setting.

Inconsistent with previous research suggesting the adaptive and prosocial motivational tendency of guilt, daily guilt did not influence in employees’ organizational citizenship behavior either. A recent study tested a reparatory model of OCB by proposing that violation of important social norms induces guilt, which in turn, lead to organizational citizenship behavior (Ilies et al., 2013). While they focused on guilt after violation of social norms, I assessed the guilt scale by averaging scores of all reported events including poor task performance, negative social relationships, and immorality-related issues; it may obscure the effects of guilty feeling from specific types of events. Therefore, future research can focus on the effects of each of the self-conscious emotions elicited from specific work events on work attitudes and behavior including OCB.

Moderators

Emotion management strategies moderated a few relationships between self-conscious emotions and work attitudes and behaviors, but, the moderating effects showed the opposite directions of Hypotheses. I found problem-solving strategies moderated the relationship between guilt and engagement. Interestingly, on days that people who have lower levels of guilt, they can benefit from the higher use of active problem-solving strategies by experiencing higher engagement. However, on days that people who felt higher levels of guilt, when they used more problem-solving strategies, they experienced lower levels of engagement in contrary to my prediction. The interaction effect of NSCE and problem-solving on engagement was also significant in the similar direction.

Furthermore, on days that people felt lower levels of NSCE, they experienced lower burnout when they used acceptance strategies more. However, those with higher levels of NSCE did not benefit from the strategies. Positive emotion management strategies moderated the relationship between pride and stress, but, the effect was beneficial for people who feel lower pride. On days that people felt lower pride, their stress was decreased when they used more positive emotion management strategies such as sharing and celebrating their events with others or savoring their proud feeling. However, for those who have higher levels of pride, higher use of positive emotion management strategies did not decrease their stress level significantly.

Overall, emotion management strategies were helpful to employees when they have lower levels of self-conscious emotions. However, the strategies were not so much helpful to those who experience higher levels of the emotions. Behavioral plasticity theory may be relevant in explaining these results. Behavioral plasticity is defined as the

extent what an individual is influenced by external factors (Pierce, Gardner, Dunham, & Cummings, 1993). This theory suggests that low self-esteem individuals are more malleable to external sources and more susceptible than high self-esteem individuals, which is called as 'behaviorally plastic' (Brockner, 1988; Pierce et al., 1993). Low self-esteem individuals' attitudes and behaviors are more strongly influenced external factors, environmental events, and social influences than high self-esteem individuals (Brockner, 1988; Saks & Ashforth, 2000). Accordingly, in the workplace, low self-esteem individuals are more strongly affected conditions in their work environment and organizational characteristics (Pierce et al., 1993; Turban and Keon, 1993). Although this theory focuses on the influence of external factors on individuals' stable trait, it may be applied to this study. The effects of self-conscious emotions on workplace outcomes may be also influenced by individuals' proneness to feel self-conscious emotions or social influences in the workplace. It would be promising that future research investigates how other individual traits (e.g. guilt-, shame-, and pride-proneness, contingency self-esteem) or organizational characteristics (e.g., perceived organizational support) moderate the relationships between self-conscious emotions and workplace outcomes.

Limitations and Future Research

The contributions of this study should be viewed in light of its limitations, which I offer promising opportunities for further investigation. First, although this study provided the statistically significant within-person effects of self-conscious on workplace outcomes, it is cautious in interpreting the causal relationships. Since workplace attitudes and behaviors were assessed at a day level, it might be difficult to say that the outcomes

were predicted by self-conscious emotions elicited from particular events. Likewise, I measured participants' overall daily emotion management strategies rather than assessing the following strategies in responses to self-conscious emotions. Since the strategies are not linked to self-conscious emotions provoked by specific events, it may explain why self-conscious emotions do not predict any types of emotion management strategies. Regarding the associations between self-conscious emotions and workplace outcomes, the reverse causality may also be possible. For example, I predicted proud people would produce more creative performance, but, creative performance also might make people feel proud. More careful assessment to capture spontaneous emotional experiences and the subsequent workplace attitudes and behavior will improve the prediction of causality.

Study 2 used self-reports to assess individuals' work events, self-conscious emotions, and workplace outcomes, which may be a limitation of this study. But, I believe that the use of self-reports is appropriate for this study with the subsequent reasons. Regarding an individual's self-conscious emotions, the individual's own feelings based on self-reflection and self-evaluation may not be able to be reported exactly by others in particular. Furthermore, the individual's workplace attitudes and behavior such as work withdrawal may not always be observed to others at work (Ilies et al., 2013). Given that the individual might be the most knowledgeable source of those assessments (Berry, Carpenter, & Barratt, 2012), the use of self-reports was adequate to capture an individuals' emotional experiences and some types of behavioral responses.

However, the identification of events from the same individual who is also reporting emotional reactions could be critiqued. Although the individual may be the best source to report his or her own feelings, the events may be observed by others better. It

might be a future research direction to incorporate other people's reports of events, with a specific focus on the performance appraisal context. That seems like a time when there would be a lot of self-conscious emotions arising, and it would be easy to identify a person who could give those reports of events more objectively (e.g., supervisor). Another limitation is that strategies to alleviate guilt and shame were assessed by the person having the self-conscious emotion. A person having such strong feelings might not be the most objective reporter on whether these strategies are effective in making up for the negative behavior. Consequently, it would make sense to have someone else (e.g., coworker, family member) evaluate the outcomes of strategies as a future research direction.

Next, response rates for negative events that elicited guilt and shame were pretty low compared with events that elicited pride. The low base rate is not surprising in that prior research found that people experienced positive events more frequently than negative events (e.g., Bono et al., 2013), and people may experience guilty and ashamed feelings less frequently than other negative affective states. However, participants might be reluctant to report their guilty and ashamed work events and recall their painful feelings. In addition, when they were asked to report their guilt and shame at the end of their workdays, they might already use some coping strategies such as problem appraisal and suppression to mitigate the aversive feelings. The use of emotion regulation strategy might increase memory distortions regarding work events provoked guilt and shame and thus have affected the number of work events and the extent of self-conscious emotions reported by some participants (Richards & Gross, 2006; Ohly & Schmitt, 2015). As another potential reason for the low response rate, participants may not want to invest

extra effort in completing the diary surveys three times over ten workdays. To prevent this situation, I tried to shorten the survey length, but, reporting their work events, emotions, and behaviors repeatedly for two weeks might increase participants' fatigue and decrease their motivation to participate in the diary survey. Event contingent ESM may be helpful in reducing participants' fatigue and more effective in capturing momentary emotional reactions and responses, which can be an additional future research.

Furthermore, I did not conduct a validation process for work events scale I created in Study 2. I selected positive and negative work events associated with self-conscious emotions from a careful review of prior research and qualitative information obtained in Study 1. But, I did not employ an additional validation approach to developing the taxonomy. As an alternative approach, I could use concept mapping, which is an appropriate methodology for analyzing data obtained through open-ended survey responses (Jackson & Trochim, 2002). This methodology combines statistical analysis with participants' judgments to create conceptually linked categories (Ohly & Schmitt, 2015). Instead, I conducted content analysis by coding all data with a trained research assistant and provided the highly acceptable levels of interrater reliability based on Cohen's Kappa. Applying concept mapping may provide more credible validity of the taxonomy of work events associated with guilt, shame, and pride, which future research can pursue.

The sample used in Study 1 was recruited from Qualtrics, and the sample used in Study 2 was mostly recruited from a subject pool at a large university. Researchers are more increasingly recruit participants from the open online marketplace such as Qualtrics and Amazon Mechanical Turk. Mechanical Turk is considered as providing data that is at

least as reliable as traditional methods (Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011). However, the data obtained from these sources and the subject pool at the University may be still less generalizable to the broader workforce due to some characteristics of participants registered in the online marketplace and the pool regarding age, occupations, and salary. To prevent this issue, I tried to have nationally representative samples by including a broad range of age (i.e. 23-64), a similar proportion of female and male (only in Study 1), full-time working adults in a variety of occupations. Future studies can replicate testing the within-person relationships with other employed adults.

Despite these limitations, this study suggests valuable future directions. The findings of this study reveal the importance of within-person effects of self-conscious emotions on individual and organizational performance. Future research can investigate momentary effects of these emotions on the within-person variability of other individual and organizationally relevant consequences above and beyond general positive and negative affective states. Although the social process is a central part in self-conscious emotions, the outcome variables assessed in this study were individual workplace attitudes and behavior (e.g., stress, engagement) rather than outcomes including social components except OCB. Therefore, it would be more useful and interesting to examine other social consequences (e.g., social behaviors) at work. Further, I recommend that future theoretical and empirical work test the between- and within-person relationships between guilt and OCB and withdrawal especially since this study found inconsistent results with the adaptive and prosocial functions of guilt responses that have been commonly proposed in the literature. It would be helpful that future research investigates

in which conditions guilt motivates an individual to engage in prosocial or maladaptive behaviors in the workplace.

Individual personality traits may influence one's emotional reactions to events that reflect on one's own competence, social relationship, and morality and the following behavioral responses to self-conscious emotions. In particular, individuals' general view of themselves such as core self-evaluation (Ilies et al., 2013; Judge, Erez, Bono, & Thoresen, 2003) may affect how an individual interpret their self-relevant events, reflect on self, and choose their responses. Ilies et al. (2013, p. 1057) suggested that one's self-worth in the workplace, referred as "*one's view of one's worth in the context of one's relationship with one's organization and colleagues,*" might influence one's positive and negative work behavior. I also agree individual dispositional characteristics related to self-view may affect how an individual react and respond to work events that reflect their self-worth and social value (e.g., as a coworker or an organizational member). Future research can test core self-evaluation as a moderator in the relationships among work events, self-conscious emotions, and workplace behavior.

CHAPTER 5. GENERAL DISCUSSION

This dissertation aimed to contribute to achieving a better understanding of self-conscious emotions in the workplace by combining a qualitative and a quantitative study. The two studies advance our knowledge of self-conscious emotions at work by 1) elaborating employed adults' emotional experiences regarding self-conscious emotions through their rich narrative descriptions and 2) investigating within-person effects of these emotions on workplace attitudes and behaviors above and beyond general affective states in a daily work life. Analyses of qualitative and quantitative data yield several insights and contributions to the theoretical and practical understanding of self-conscious emotions at work.

This research contributes to the broader literature on emotions by advancing our understanding of discrete self-conscious emotions. Organizational researchers have frequently combined discrete emotions into global positive and negative affective dimensions (Barsade & Gibson, 2007). Guilt and shame often are combined with states like fear and anger to form a general "negative affect" (Shockley, Ispas, Rossi, & Levine, 2012). This combination is useful for summarizing clusters of related constructs, but obscures the different drivers, motivations, and outcomes across these discrete emotions (Tangney & Dearing, 2002). For example, discrete emotions have different appraisal and attribution processes as guilt and shame are provoked from internal attribution whereas anger is aroused from external attribution. Accordingly, these studies sought to fill the lack of empirical studies on discrete emotions differentiated from general negative and positive affect in work and organizational settings (Barsade & Gibson, 2007; Gooty et al.,

2009) and the lack of empirical study on self-conscious emotions in the workplace as well (De Hooge, 2013; Poulson, 2000).

Positive psychology literature has suggested that positive affective experiences contribute to the development of long-lasting resources such as growth and well-being, rather than focusing on solving immediate life-threatening problems (e.g., Fredrickson, 2001). As predicted in the broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions, prior studies have found that positive emotions initiated an “upward spiral” toward enhancing subjective well-being through broadened scopes of attention and cognition (Diener & Larsen, 1993; Fredrickson & Joiner, 2002). However, the research fails to capture the unique self-evaluative appraisal process driving pride that differentiates it from other positive emotional states and thus the unique effects of pride in individual and organizational performance above general positive affective states, despite its importance in achievement and social interaction domains (Tracy & Robins, 2004; Leary, 2007). The current study suggests that daily repeated proud feelings from positive self-states can reduce individuals’ emotional exhaustion from job-related stress, boost positive work-related state of mind by experiencing more energy and absorption, and stimulate newer and more creative ideas in the workplace. In sum, this study contributes to positive psychology literature by providing empirical findings that discrete emotion, pride, leads to more positive attitudinal and stronger motivational behaviors than other general positive affective states. In other words, the incremental effects of pride on these workplace outcomes above general positive affective states imply the importance of positive self-reflection in the appraisal process and maintaining one’s positive self-regard as well as social and moral values at work in understanding pride. Future research should

investigate the unique role of pride in other individual and organizationally relevant consequences compared to general positive affective states.

On the other hand, this study showed mixed empirical findings about responses of guilt and shame (i.e. adaptive or maladaptive functions). Previous theories and research have more prevalently suggested that guilt accompanied by approach and proactive action tendency is a more moral and adaptive emotion than shame accompanied by avoidance action tendency. In Study 1, both guilt and shame are adaptive by motivating people to choose more constructive responses than avoidance responses. Furthermore, both emotions are related to concerns for others, different from previous research suggesting that shame focuses on self-oriented distress rather than considering the impact of the shaming-inducing situations to others. However, both guilt and shame are harmful by increasing an individual's stress and withdrawal behavior (guilt only) in Study 2. In line with previous research on negative emotions and stress, a guilty or ashamed feeling from negative self-reflection on one's behavior or the self produced higher levels of stress. Although the cognitive appraisal of outcome interdependencies between guilt and shame are different (i.e. concern for others vs. self-oriented distress, Manstead & Tetlock, 1989; Tangney, 1992), both appraisals can exacerbate an individual's stress. In other words, both guilty feeling from the appraisal that an individual's action harmed his coworkers and ashamed feeling from the appraisal that an individual's supervisor evaluated him negatively are likely to produce higher stress. In contrast with the reparative function of guilt, Study 2 found that work-related guilt motivated people to produce poor quality work and detach themselves from their work environment rather than engaging in more constructive behaviors.

This study provides important theoretical and empirical inquiries that need further investigation in self-conscious emotions literature. The mixed findings regarding responses to guilt and shame contribute to one of the major themes that have been asked in self-conscious emotions literature - whether self-conscious emotions are good or bad (Tracy et al., 2007). Researchers still struggle with whether guilt and shame are helpful or damaging, but, some of them have a consensus that any emotion can be good or bad, depending on context (Tracy et al., 2007). Consequently, researchers call for the extra investigation of context to see how self-conscious emotions can be good or bad. This current study also suggests future research on which condition or context makes these emotions adaptive or maladaptive. As a potential idea, it might be interesting to examine how these emotions play a role in a work team context (e.g., whether feeling or expressing these emotions are helpful in maintaining or protecting one's self-image, social status, and sense of belongingness or in achieving the goals of the work team). Moreover, this study provided qualitative evidence (i.e., causes of events) that self-reflection and appraisal of other's evaluation of oneself are both important in the process of self-conscious emotions. Tangney et al. (2007) suggested more future empirical research that investigates whether self-conscious emotions can be other-conscious emotions since these emotions are also elicited by appraising others (e.g., whether another person is expressing an emotion about the focal person), not mostly reflecting on one's own emotions. Therefore, the findings of Study 1 also supports the idea that future research should focus more on the role of others in the appraisal process of self-conscious emotions (e.g., others' emotional expression or evaluation). Finally, this study brought attention on pride which has been relatively overlooked in self-conscious emotions

literature. The findings of this study contribute to broader emotions as well as self-conscious emotions by demonstrating that pride elicited based on positive self-worth and one's social value is a more impactful emotion for an individual's psychological well-being and motivational, behavioral consequences than general positive affective states.

Regarding methodological implications, Study 1 contributes to organization and emotion literature by exploring the phenomena associated with self-conscious emotions at work and identifying relevant specific work events in various domains using a qualitative method. Typologies of emotion-linked events in existing literature on self-conscious emotions are a starting point, but are possibly not relevant to the work environment, for reasons discussed previously. The information obtained through qualitative methodology can serve as a starting point for field research projects that measure the antecedents and consequences of self-conscious emotions, with a structured survey methodology that fits the scope and nature of phenomena identified in this open-ended work.

Supplementing the limitations of the qualitative approach of Study 1 such as memory loss in retrospective reports and lack of statistical inferences, Study 2 represents a methodological improvement over Study 1 and previous research on self-conscious emotions by using an experience sampling methodology. This method assesses the intra-personal variability in emotions and outcomes that are variable over time within a person (Beal et al., 2005). Examining the effects of the emotions in response to these real-time events provides more reliable interpretation of outcomes of these emotions than understanding them from remembered or imagined events, which has been commonly used in self-conscious emotions literature.

Integrating a qualitative and a quantitative method allowed me to achieve the better methodological fit, suggesting that this combined approach is helpful in reinvestigating a theory or construct that sits within a mature stream of research to challenge or modify prior work (Edmonson & McManus, 2007). I did not intend to challenge the responses of self-conscious emotions, but, aimed to dig into the role of these emotions in the work context, which has been relatively overlooked. Careful analysis of both qualitative and quantitative data improves confidence that the researchers' explanations of the phenomena are more credible (Edmonson & McManus, 2007). As a result, I believe that the blend of qualitative data to help elaborate phenomena regarding self-conscious emotions at work and quantitative data to offer preliminary tests of hypothetical relationships can provide more insights and accuracy (e.g., Yauch & Steudel, 2003; Edmonson & McManus, 2007) to this topic.

Past research on guilt and shame has accumulated findings on the consequence of these emotions in general life. There is some research on responses to negative feelings of guilt and shame (Tangney & Dearing, 2002; Tangney, Stuewig, & Mashek, 2007b) in life in general, but apologizing to a supervisor for a missed deadline will be a completely different affective situation than apologizing to a loved one for missing an important event. There is even less research on how people maintain or boost positive feelings of pride in the self-conscious emotion literature. Thus, this study aimed to investigate self-regulatory emotion management strategies people engage in for avoiding or mitigating discrete negative emotions as well as maintaining or promoting a positive emotion evoked by work events. However, Study 2 did not provide any statistically significant associations between self-conscious emotions and emotion management strategies. This

result suggests that future research on these emotions in the workplace can develop specific measures for emotion management strategies in response to self-conscious emotions rather than using general coping or emotion regulation measures.

In future research, including other coping strategies may also be useful to better assess the associations between self-conscious emotions and emotion management strategies. In Study 1, I found that many people used problem-reappraisal including justification and rationalization, but, did not include this strategy in Study 2 to make the daily survey shorter. Also, since problem-reappraisal coping strategies include both approach- and avoidance-related coping items, it was less clear to categorize them into approach vs. avoidance strategies in hypothesis development. Perrewe & Zellars (1999) also suggested cognitive appraisal as one of the coping choices in response to shame. Therefore, future research should test the relationships between guilt and shame and coping strategies in a more sophisticated way by adding the problem-reappraisal subscale of the coping scale. Despite the nonsignificant effects of self-conscious emotions on emotion management strategies, supplementary analyses revealed the importance of emotion management strategies on workplace outcomes. Future research should assess the effectiveness of each of the emotional regulation strategies to manage self-conscious emotions on individual's psychological and behavioral outcomes in the workplace.

Although positive emotion management strategies scale was created by averaging four items (i.e., capitalizing, celebrating, rewarding, and savoring) that were selected from the findings of Study 1 and prior research on responses to positive emotions (e.g., Langston, 1994; Gable et al., 2004), pride did not have a significant association with positive emotion management strategies. As “no reaction” in response to pride was one of

the frequent responses reported in Study 1, employees may not do any special thing to maintain or maximize their proud feelings due to the positivity of the emotion itself. Another potential explanation for the inconsistent findings of emotion management strategies between Study 1 and Study 2 is that emotion management strategies used in Study 2 do not capture the full range of strategies people use to manage pride. Analyzing the relationship between pride and each type of the emotion management strategies may be another approach to understanding which strategy people use more frequently to maintain or promote pride at work.

Implication for Practice

This study informs organizations and managers of the work-related sources of self-conscious emotions and the detrimental effects of guilt and shame on individual and organizational performance as well as beneficial effects of pride on those outcomes. Since it is not possible to prevent the occurrence of the events that elicit guilt and shame in the workplace, it may be more useful to consider how managers can help employees regulate these aversive feelings and the following responses in a more constructive way. Related to this, a future study using an experimental intervention seems to be worthwhile in a practical standpoint. For example, the experiment assigning people to specific conditions that would either alleviate guilt or build pride may be useful to understand if such induced self-conscious emotions can produce positive results. The application of the findings to a workplace will allow managers to recognize their important roles in helping employees manage these emotions in a more healthy and constructive manner. Further,

the findings will assist managers to create ideas regarding workplace practices to promote pride events as well as adaptive responses to guilt and shame in day-to-day management.

Concerning guilt and shame, managers can provide constructive feedback focusing on specific task-related behavior rather than employees' personal traits, which make employees motivate to correct their actions and improve their work-related skills. Furthermore, creating a supportive workplace culture with more access to social support such as supervisors, mentors, coworkers will be also useful in mitigating maladaptive responses of guilt and shame and influencing successful employees' emotional regulation.

Regarding pride, small work practices such as positive feedback, appreciation, and recognition implemented by managers will magnify employees' proud feelings and higher motivation. Moreover, managers may need to consider an individual tendency of responses to pride and various options to reinforce pride including internal (e.g., savoring, reflection), social (e.g., capitalization), and behavioral ways (e.g., helping, a new challenging project) at work. Considering benefits or risks of capitalizing positive events with others at work (Hadley, 2014), positive reflection may be more effective than capitalization for less extroverted individuals. Applying the positive reflection intervention techniques used and suggested in prior research (e.g., three good things, Bono et al., 2013; Seligman, Steen, Park, & Peterson, 2005), an individual exercise such as "three proud things" may be useful to seize the positive feelings and facilitate proactive and prosocial responses of pride.

CONCLUSION

Overall, the exploratory nature of Study 1 helps to define some of the key issues that should be incorporated into future research on self-conscious emotions at work. The open-ended prompt technique, paired with a relatively large and heterogeneous sample for a qualitative study, gave me the ability to see the big picture of perceived antecedents and consequences of these understudied discrete emotional episodes in the workplace. Supplementing Study 1, Study 2 demonstrated the statistically significant within-person effects of self-conscious emotions on individual and organizationally relevant outcomes using a daily diary study. It's clear that self-conscious emotions are important at work, and it is my belief that I have provided a foundation for building a comprehensive understanding of this topic. As a result, I hope this multi-method study helps us better understand employees' responses to work events associated with self-conscious emotions, find more constructive ways to enhance their performance and well-being, and ultimately make a better and healthy workplace.

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APPENDIX A. Study 1 Survey

Background Information: Please provide some background information about yourself. This information is to have a better understanding of participants' characteristics and how these characteristics affect their workplace experiences. Please remember your responses are confidential.

What is your **gender**?

- Male
- Female
- Choose not to answer

What is your **age**? _____

What is your **current marital status**?

- Single
- Married
- Living with significant other or partner
- Divorced or separated
- Widowed
- Choose not to answer

Which country did you grow up in? If you were in more than one country when you were growing up, which one do you identify with most strongly? _____

What is your **ethnic background**? (Select as many as apply to you.)

- African / Black
- East Asian / Pacific Islander
- Hispanic / Latino
- Middle Eastern
- Native American / Alaska Native
- South Asian (e.g., Pakistani, Indian, Bangladeshi)
- White / Caucasian
- Other _____
- Choose not to answer

What is the **highest level of education** you have currently completed?

- less than a high school diploma
- high school diploma or GED
- high school plus technical training or apprenticeship
- some college
- college graduate
- some graduate school
- professional degree (MD, JD, MBA, MS, etc.)
- graduate degree (MA, PhD, etc.)
- Choose not to answer

How many hours do you work in a typical week? _____

How many years and months of **full-time work experience** do you have, in any occupation?

Please enter only numbers.

_____year(s) _____month(s)

How many years and months have you worked at your **current organization**? Please enter only numbers.

_____year(s) _____month(s)

What is your current **job title**? _____

How many years and months have you worked at **your current job title**? Please enter only numbers.

_____year(s) _____month(s)

What is your **primary function** in your current job? (*Select the **one** that most closely describes what you do.*)

- | | |
|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Accounting / financial analysis | <input type="checkbox"/> Office management / administration |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Advertising | <input type="checkbox"/> Patient care (e.g., RN, therapist, pharmacist, social worker) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Customer service | <input type="checkbox"/> Physician |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Distribution | <input type="checkbox"/> Production management |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Education (primary or secondary) | <input type="checkbox"/> Public relations |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Engineering / technical support | <input type="checkbox"/> Purchasing |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Facilities management | <input type="checkbox"/> Research and development |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Government relations / communications | <input type="checkbox"/> Sales |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Human resources / personnel | <input type="checkbox"/> Systems analysis / IT |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Law | <input type="checkbox"/> University faculty |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Marketing / market research | <input type="checkbox"/> Other _____ |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Occupational health and safety | |

In your present position, do you **supervise or manage** other employees?

_____Yes _____No

How many individuals do you directly supervise or manage? Count only those individuals who report directly to you, and whom you have the authority to hire or fire. _____

What is your current **annual salary**? \$_____

Instructions

The next set of questions from section 1 to 4 asks your experiences and feelings when you fulfill your job roles. Think of your recent or past experiences regarding your job roles including work effort, workload, goals, assignments, responsibilities, feedback, performance, and social interaction with others including supervisors, coworkers, or clients/customers, etc. Please answer all of the following questions as completely and honestly as possible.

Section 1. Feeling guilty at work

1-1. Please describe a recent or past negative event or situation that made you feel guilty when you were working because you did something poorly, wrong, that you didn't think was the right thing to do, or that you didn't try hard enough. Any minor incidents you didn't meet standards or expectations can be included. Think about very specific actions or behaviors you felt guilty about, and not about something that made you feel ashamed of yourself overall.

Please describe here:

1-2. When did this event occur?

- Today
- Within the past week
- Within the past month
- Within the past year
- More than a year ago

1-3. Keeping the event or situation you described above in mind, please indicate what extent you felt guilty by circling the appropriate response.

	Not feeling this way at all	Feeling this way a little	Feeling this way somewhat	Feeling this way quite a bit	Feeling this way very strongly
I felt remorse and regret.	1	2	3	4	5
I felt tension about what I did.	1	2	3	4	5
I could not stop thinking about what I did.	1	2	3	4	5
I felt like apologizing or confessing.	1	2	3	4	5
I felt bad about what I did.	1	2	3	4	5

1-4. Please describe anything you did after this experience to reduce or avoid the feelings you had. In other words, what did you do to feel less guilty?

Please describe here:

Section 2. Feeling proud of what you did at work

2-1. Please describe a recent or past positive event or situation in which you felt competent or proud when you were working because of something you did well or morally good, or you tried hard. Any minor incidents regarding actual achievement or accomplishment can be included. Think about very specific actions or behaviors you were proud of, and not about something that made you feel proud about yourself overall.

Please describe here:

2-2. When did this event occur?

- Today
- Within the past week
- Within the past month
- Within the past year
- More than a year ago

2-3. Keeping the event you described above in mind, please indicate to what extent you felt good or proud by circling the appropriate response.

	Not feeling this way at all	Feeling this way a little	Feeling this way somewhat	Feeling this way quite a bit	Feeling this way very strongly
I felt good about what I did.	1	2	3	4	5
I felt worthwhile and valuable because of what I did.	1	2	3	4	5
I felt capable and useful because of what I did.	1	2	3	4	5
I felt proud because of what I did.	1	2	3	4	5
I felt pleased about what I did.	1	2	3	4	5

2-4. Please describe anything you did after this experience to maintain the feelings you had. In other words, what did you do because you were feeling proud?

Please describe here:

Section 3. Feeling ashamed or bad about yourself at work

3-1. Please describe a recent or past negative event or situation that made you feel ashamed or bad about yourself overall when you were working because of your personality, lack of ability, or difficulty you have with consistently carrying through on doing what you think is right. Any minor incidents you didn't meet standards or expectations can be included. Think about some event that made you feel bad about yourself overall, and not about one very specific thing that you felt bad.

Please describe here:

3-2. When did this event occur?

- Today
- Within the past week
- Within the past month
- Within the past year
- More than a year ago

3-3. Keeping the event or situation you described above in mind, please indicate what extent you felt bad by circling the appropriate response.

	Not feeling this way at all	Feeling this way a little	Feeling this way somewhat	Feeling this way quite a bit	Feeling this way very strongly
I wanted to sink into the floor and disappear.	1	2	3	4	5
I felt small.	1	2	3	4	5
I felt like I was a bad person.	1	2	3	4	5
I felt humiliated and disgraced.	1	2	3	4	5
I felt worthless and powerless.	1	2	3	4	5

3-4. Please describe anything you did after this experience to reduce or avoid the feelings you had. In other words, what did you do to keep from feeling bad about yourself?

Please describe here:

Section 4. Feeling proud of yourself at work

4-1. Please describe a recent or past event or situation that made you feel competent or proud of yourself overall when you were working because of your personality, stable ability, competence, or morally good nature. Any minor incidents can be included. Think about something that made you feel proud about yourself overall, and not about one very specific thing that you were proud of.

Please describe here:

4-2. When did this event occur?

- Today
- Within the past week
- Within the past month
- Within the past year
- More than a year ago

4-3. Keeping the situation you described above in mind, please indicate to what extent you felt good or proud by circling the appropriate response.

	Not feeling this way at all	Feeling this way a little	Feeling this way somewhat	Feeling this way quite a bit	Feeling this way very strongly
I felt good about myself.	1	2	3	4	5
I felt worthwhile and valuable about myself.	1	2	3	4	5
I felt capable and useful about myself.	1	2	3	4	5
I felt proud of myself.	1	2	3	4	5
I felt pleased about myself.	1	2	3	4	5

4-4. Please describe anything you did after this experience to maintain the feelings you had. In other words, what did you do because you were feeling proud about yourself?

Please describe here:

Instructions

This is the final section of this survey. Please answer all of the following questions as completely and honestly as possible. Do not rush, but do not agonize over the answers either. Usually your first inclination is best. Please do not miss any of the questions, unless you are uncomfortable answering the item.

Personality

The next questions ask you about your personality. For each of the items, please indicate how well the following statements describe how you see yourself by circling the appropriate responses.

I see myself as someone who....	Strongly Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Strongly Agree
1. Is talkative	1	2	3	4	5
2. Tends to find fault with others	1	2	3	4	5
3. Does a thorough job	1	2	3	4	5
4. Is depressed, blue	1	2	3	4	5
5. Is original, comes up with new ideas	1	2	3	4	5
6. Is reserved	1	2	3	4	5
7. is helpful and unselfish with others	1	2	3	4	5
8. Can be somewhat careless	1	2	3	4	5
9. Is relaxed, handles stress well	1	2	3	4	5
10. Is curious about many different things	1	2	3	4	5
11. Is full of energy	1	2	3	4	5
12. Starts quarrels with others	1	2	3	4	5
13. Is a reliable worker	1	2	3	4	5
14. Can be tense	1	2	3	4	5
15. Is ingenious, a deep thinker	1	2	3	4	5
16. Generates a lot of enthusiasm	1	2	3	4	5
17. Has a forgiving nature	1	2	3	4	5
18. Tends to be disorganized	1	2	3	4	5
19. Worries a lot	1	2	3	4	5
20. Has an active imagination	1	2	3	4	5
21. Tends to be quiet	1	2	3	4	5
22. Is generally trusting	1	2	3	4	5
23. Tends to be lazy	1	2	3	4	5
24. Is emotionally stable, not easily upset	1	2	3	4	5
25. Is inventive	1	2	3	4	5
26. Has an assertive personality	1	2	3	4	5
27. Can be cold and aloof	1	2	3	4	5
28. Perseveres until the task is finished	1	2	3	4	5
29. Can be moody	1	2	3	4	5

30. Values artistic, aesthetic appearances	1	2	3	4	5
31. Is sometimes shy, inhibited	1	2	3	4	5
32. Is considerate and kind to almost everyone	1	2	3	4	5
33. Does things efficiently	1	2	3	4	5
34. Remains calm in tense situations	1	2	3	4	5
35. Prefers work that is routine	1	2	3	4	5
36. Is outgoing, sociable	1	2	3	4	5
37. Is sometimes rude to others	1	2	3	4	5
38. Makes plans and follows through with them	1	2	3	4	5
39. Gets nervous easily	1	2	3	4	5
40. Likes to reflect, play with ideas	1	2	3	4	5
41. Has few artistic interests	1	2	3	4	5
42. Likes to cooperate with others	1	2	3	4	5
43. Is easily distracted	1	2	3	4	5
44. Is sophisticated in art, music, or literature	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX B. Study 2 Survey

I. Pre-Survey Measures

What is your **gender**?

- Male
- Female
- Choose not to answer

What is your **age**? _____

What is your **current marital status**?

- Single
- Married
- Living with significant other or partner
- Divorced or separated
- Widowed
- Choose not to answer

Which country did you grow up in? If you were in more than one country when you were growing up, which one do you identify with most strongly? _____

What is your **ethnic background**? (Select as many as apply to you.)

- White / Caucasian (7)
- African / Black (1)
- Hispanic / Latino (3)
- East Asian / Pacific Islander (e.g., Japanese, Korean, Chinese) (2)
- South Asian (e.g., Pakistani, Indian, Bangladeshi) (6)
- Southeast Asian (e.g., Filipino, Indonesian, Cambodian, Taiwanese, Vietnamese) (10)
- Native American / Alaska Native (5)
- Middle Eastern (4)
- Other (8) _____
- Choose not to answer (9)

What is the **highest level of education** you have currently completed?

- less than a high school diploma (1)
- high school diploma or GED (2)
- high school plus technical training or apprenticeship (3)
- some college (4)
- college graduate (5)
- some graduate school (6)
- professional degree (MD, JD, MBA, MS, etc.) (7)
- graduate degree (MA, PhD, etc.) (8)
- Choose not to answer (9)

How many hours do you work in a typical week? _____

How many years and months of **full-time work experience** do you have, in any occupation?
Please enter only numbers.

_____year(s) _____month(s)

How many years and months have you worked at your **current organization**? Please enter only numbers.

_____year(s) _____month(s)

What is your current **job title**?

How many years and months have you worked at **your current job title**? Please enter only numbers.

_____year(s) _____month(s)

What is your **primary function** in your current job? (*Select the **one** that most closely describes what you do.*)

- Architecture and Engineering (1)
- Arts, Design, Entertainment, Sports, and Media (2)
- Building and Grounds Cleaning and Maintenance (3)
- Business and Financial Operations (4)
- Community and Social Service (5)
- Computer and Mathematical (6)
- Construction and Extraction (7)
- Education, Training, and Library (8)
- Farming, Fishing, and Forestry (9)
- Food Preparation and Serving Related (10)
- Healthcare Practitioners and Technical (11)
- Healthcare Support (12)
- Installation, Maintenance, and Repair (13)
- Legal (14)
- Life, Physical, and Social Science (15)
- Management (16)
- Military Specific (17)
- Office and Administrative Support (18)
- Personal Care and Service (19)
- Production (20)
- Protective Service (21)
- Sales and Related (22)
- Transportation and Material Moving (23)
- Other (24) _____

In your present position, do you **supervise or manage** other employees?

_____Yes _____No

How many individuals do you directly supervise or manage? Count only those individuals who report directly to you, and whom you have the authority to hire or fire. _____

What is your current **annual salary**? \$_____

II. Diary Survey (Within-person measures)

Survey 1 of 3: Pre-Work Survey

This is a pre-work survey asking about your mood prior to your work shift. Please submit it either before going to work, or soon after you arrive at your workplace.

Mood

Please indicate the extent to which you felt each of the following emotions or moods before starting work today, on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = very slightly or not at all, 2 = a little, 3 = moderately, 4 = quite a bit, 5 = extremely).

Positive Affect:

- 1) Active
- 2) Alert
- 3) attentive
- 4) determined
- 5) enthusiastic
- 6) excited
- 7) inspired
- 8) interested
- 9) strong

Negative affect:

- 1) afraid
- 2) scared
- 3) nervous
- 4) jittery
- 5) irritable
- 6) hostile
- 7) upset
- 8) distressed

Survey 2 of 3: End-of-Work Survey

Section 1 asks about your positive events that occurred at work today when you fulfilled your job roles. Section 2 asks about your negative events that occurred at work today. Please complete the following questions as completely and honestly as possible and submit the survey by the end of your work day. You will be able to change your survey responses while on each page, but once you advance to the next page, you cannot go back.

Section 1. Positive Events

Section 1 asks if you experienced, engaged in, or encountered the following five positive situations at work today. Please indicate if you had each of the five positive events at work today. (Yes or No)

1. Did you have an event in which you performed tasks exceptionally well, above and beyond what is expected or in the face of difficult conditions?
2. Did you have an event in which you received positive feedback, praise, an award, or other acknowledgment?
3. Did you have an event in which you maintained or built good social relationships with others?
4. Did you have an event in which you helped others beyond your job roles or requirements?
5. Did you have an event in which you made a right, moral, or ethical decision?
6. Did you have any other positive events or situations not listed above?

If participant indicates “Yes” for each of the events, they are asked to report the following questions.

1-1. Please briefly describe the event or situation.

1-2. Keeping the situation in mind, please rate each statement based on how you felt at that moment (1 = Didn't feel this way at all, 2 = Felt this way a little, 3= Felt this way somewhat, 4 = Felt this way quite a bit, 5 = Felt this way very strongly).

- 1) I felt worthwhile and valuable.
- 2) I felt capable and useful.
- 3) I felt proud.

Section 2. Negative Events

Section 2 asks if you experienced, engaged in, or encountered the following five negative situations at work today. Please indicate if you had each of the five negative events at work today.

1. Did you have an event in which you performed tasks at a level below what is usually expected or put in less effort into the job than you are supposed to do or usually do?
2. Did you have an event in which you received negative feedback, a warning, or other criticism?
3. Did you have an event in which you had work-related or interpersonal conflict?
4. Did you have an event in which you did not adhere to your work group norms or organization's rules or regulations?
5. Did you have an event in which you were to do something against your moral values?
6. Did you have any other negative events or situations not listed above?

If participant indicates “Yes” for each of the events, they are asked to report the following questions.

1-1. Please briefly describe the event or situation.

1-2. Keeping the situation in mind, please rate each statement based on how you felt at that moment (1 = Didn't feel this way at all, 2 = Felt this way a little, 3= Felt this way somewhat, 4 = Felt this way quite a bit, 5 = Felt this way very strongly).

Guilt

- 1) I felt remorse and regret.
- 2) I felt tension about what I did.
- 3) I felt guilty.

Shame

- 1) I felt small.
- 2) I felt like I was a bad person.
- 3) I felt ashamed.

Survey 3 of 3: Post-work Survey

Section 1 and 2 ask about your feelings and behaviors at work today respectively. Please answer all of the following questions as completely and honestly as possible and submit it by the end of the day after work today.

Section 1. How I felt at work

How many hours did you spend at work today? _____

Stress

Please indicate the extent to which you felt or thought each of the following ways at work today. (1 = Strongly Disagree, 5 = Strongly Agree)

- 1) I felt a great deal of stress because of my job today.
- 2) Very few stressful things happened to me at work today.
- 3) My job was extremely stressful today.
- 4) I almost never felt stressed at work today.

Burnout and Health Complaints

Please indicate to what extent you felt like the following ways today. (1 = Not at all, 5 = Severely)

- 1) I felt tired.
- 2) I felt physically exhausted.
- 3) I felt emotionally exhausted.
- 4) I had an upset stomach.

- 5) I had neck or back pain.
- 6) I had headaches.
- 7) I had painful or tense muscles.

Work Engagement

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements regarding your work-related state of mind today. (1 = Strongly Disagree, 5 = Strongly Agree)

- 1) At my job today, I felt strong and vigorous.
- 2) At my work today, I always persevered, even when things did not go well.
- 3) I was immersed in my work today.

Section 2. What I did at work

Please indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements regarding your behaviors at work today. (1 = Strongly Disagree, 5 = Strongly Agree, 6 = Does not apply)

Positive emotion management

- 1) I shared positive events with others (e.g., coworkers, employees, family, friends) today.
- 2) I celebrated positive events with others (e.g., coworkers, employees, family, friends) today.
- 3) I rewarded others (e.g., coworkers, employees, family, friends) today.
- 4) I just focused on my routine work as I usually do at work today.
- 5) I exerted greater effort on another task at work today.
- 6) I tried to help others more at work today.
- 7) I savored and enjoyed positive emotions today.
- 8) I was careful not to express positive emotions today.

Avoidance coping strategies.

- 1) I wished that I could change what happened or how I felt at work today.
- 2) I wished a situation would go away or somehow be over with at work today.
- 3) I avoided being with people in general at work today.

Planful problem-solving strategies.

- 1) I talked about a problem over with colleagues or supervisors at work today.
- 2) I talked to someone who could do something concrete about a problem at work today.
- 3) I came up with a couple of different solutions to the problems faced at work today.

Accepting responsibilities

- 1) I realized I brought any problems on myself today.
- 2) I made a promise to myself today that I could do things differently in the future.
- 3) I apologized or did something to make up for a mistake today.
- 4) I made sure not to express negative emotions today.

Please indicate how well each of the following statements describes your behavior at work today.
(1 = Strongly Disagree, 5 = Strongly Agree, 6 = Does not apply)

Organizational citizenship behaviors.

- 1) I helped others who had heavy workloads.
- 2) I took time to listen to co-workers' problems and worries.
- 3) I took a personal interest in other employees.

Withdrawal

- 1) I did poor quality work.
- 2) I made excuses to go somewhere to get out of work.
- 3) I allowed others to do my work for me.

Creativity

- 1) I had new and innovative ideas.
- 2) I exhibited creativity on the job when given the opportunity to.
- 3) I came up with creative solutions to problems.