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Citation for published version (APA):

Groth, M., Bindl, U., Wang, K., & van Kleef, G. (Accepted/In press). How Social Roles Shape Interpersonal Affect Regulation at Work. *Organizational Psychology Review*.

Citing this paper

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Running Head: INTERPERSONAL AFFECT REGULATION

How Social Roles Shape Interpersonal Affect Regulation at Work

Abstract

Individuals often attempt to influence the affective states of others in the workplace. Such interpersonal affect regulation (IAR) occurs across social settings that are characterized by distinct roles and relationships between actors and targets. However, it is unclear whether and how IAR processes and outcomes differ across settings as pertinent research has developed in separate organizational literatures with different research traditions that have thus far not been compared or integrated. In addition, despite the social nature of IAR, the types of relationships between the actor engaging in IAR and the target of IAR have rarely been considered in prior research. Here, we present an integrative framework to establish why and how social roles at work shape motivation, strategies, and affective outcomes of IAR across three core actor-target configurations in organizations. Specifically, we theorize how *internal-vertical*, *internal-horizontal*, and *external* social role configurations influence IAR. We provide integrative insights into the nature and implications of IAR in organizations and generate a comprehensive agenda for future research on IAR.

Keywords: interpersonal affect regulation, emotions, social roles

How Social Roles Shape Interpersonal Affect Regulation at Work

Affect in organizations is pervasive (Barsade & Gibson, 2007; Brief & Weiss, 2002; Elfenbein, 2007). The social and professional challenges that organizational members face daily—interacting with colleagues, customers, and clients, completing projects, dealing with stressful situations, and navigating hierarchies in the organization—can trigger strong positive or negative emotional reactions in employees (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). The growing recognition of the importance of emotional factors at work has led to an "affective revolution" in organization science (Barsade et al., 2003). A fast-growing body of research attests to the numerous ways in which employees' affective states impact a wide range of important individual and organizational outcomes, such as work performance, well-being, and turnover (Barsade & Gibson, 2007; Brief & Weiss, 2002; Elfenbein, 2007; Van Kleef et al., 2012).

Given the pervasiveness of affective influences in organizations, understanding how individuals manage affect in the workplace is important. Most research to date has focused on intraindividual affect regulation, i.e., on how individuals regulate their *own* affective experiences (Brief & Weiss, 2002; Elfenbein, 2007; Grandey & Melloy, 2017). Despite the many social interactions that individuals navigate at work, relatively little is known about how people may attempt to regulate the affective states of *others* in professional contexts (e.g., co-workers, subordinates, customers). The limited research on such interpersonal affect regulation (IAR) in the extant literature is dispersed across different sets of organizational literatures (e.g., leadership, teams, negotiation, customer service), which stands in the way of an integrative understanding of IAR processes and outcomes. Moreover, despite the social nature of IAR, due to the fragmentation of the extant literature, the relationship between the actor engaging in IAR and the target of IAR, as well as the social roles, motivations, strategies, and affective outcomes associated with IAR, has rarely been considered.

This paper presents an integrative framework that details how the relationships between actors and targets shape IAR processes and outcomes, including actors' motives for engaging in IAR, the different kinds of IAR strategies used by actors, and the effectiveness of these strategies. With this framework, we make three core contributions. First, although IAR is 'social' at its core, given that it happens in interactions between individuals (Reeck et al., 2016; Zaki & Williams, 2013), existing research has not systematically considered how social roles and relationships influence IAR in organizations. We build on dispersed insights of IAR across different literatures within the organization sciences to provide insights into how IAR varies across social roles. By introducing and disentangling the roles of actors and targets within IAR processes, we contribute to the literature by identifying three core social role configurations of actors and targets in organizations (see Figure 1). The first configuration, *internal vertical IAR*, situates IAR in actor-target configurations that occur between organizational members that occupy clearly distinct roles in the organizational hierarchy (e.g., between leaders and followers). The second configuration, *internal horizontal IAR*, describes IAR that occurs between individuals on a similar hierarchical level in the organization (e.g., between team members). The third configuration, *external IAR*, encompasses IAR across organizational boundaries, capturing interactions between organizational members in their role as representatives of the organization and stakeholders outside the organization (e.g., between employees and customers). Incorporating these social role configurations in a unifying model of IAR in organizations provides an organizing framework for analyzing how motives, strategies, and affective outcomes of IAR are shaped by distinct actor-target configurations.

Second, we theoretically integrate insights from different organizational perspectives that are grounded in different research traditions to develop a unified conceptual framework of how social role configurations shape why (i.e., motives), how (i.e., strategies), and with

what effects (i.e., affective outcomes) individuals in organizations engage in IAR. There is currently a lack of systematic insights and theory regarding how social roles influence IAR, particularly in organizational contexts. Our aim is to develop a theoretical framework that helps to predict the occurrence and consequences of IAR within organizations. In doing so, we coalesce findings from divergent literatures (e.g., leadership, teams, negotiation, and customer service) grounded in different research traditions. Incorporating these social role configurations in which IAR processes occur within our integrative framework fosters theory development on IAR in organizations more widely. This enables us to identify patterns of relationships between motives, strategies, and affective outcomes of IAR in different actor-target configurations.

Third, we articulate how our framework can serve as a foundation for future research that systematically builds upon the insights of prior work. Building on our unique insights from different social role configurations of IAR, our framework advances a goal-regulatory perspective of IAR that accounts for purposeful IAR that individuals engage in at work. Doing so enables research to enhance and refine commonly proposed emotion regulation strategies (e.g., Gross, 1998; Little et al., 2012; Williams, 2007) and to better understand why individuals may be driven to choose to engage in different IAR strategies. Thus, our research agenda provides a starting point for new research into IAR that takes into account how the wider organizational context impinges on IAR motives and strategies.

Our paper is structured as follows. First, we provide an overview of existing perspectives on IAR that help us identify three predominant actor-target configurations of IAR in organizations. Next, we develop a theoretical framework of IAR in organizations by drawing on evidence from disparate organizational literatures to provide insights into patterns of relationships between motives (*why* individuals engage in IAR), the different strategies individuals use to regulate others' affect (*how* individuals engage in IAR), and what the

affective outcome is (*what* type of affect is evoked in targets). Our integrative framework synthesizes insights across different actor-target configurations, enabling us to provide testable propositions about how specific actor-target configurations impact IAR. Finally, we use the emerging insights from our conceptual framework to advance an agenda for future research on IAR in organizations.

 Insert Figure 1 about here

Perspectives of Interpersonal Affect Regulation across Social Roles

Given that many workplaces are inherently social as they involve frequent interactions with other people, work life is a notable trigger of affect (Van Kleef et al., 2012; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). However, employees are often constrained in their affective experiences and expressions by implicit or explicit expectations or norms imposed by the organization, managers, customers, or other stakeholders (Ekman & Friesen, 1969; Goffman, 1963; Hochschild, 1983; Thoits, 1990). Individuals, therefore, feel compelled not only to regulate their own feelings and expressions at work (intrapersonal affect regulation) often in ways to conform to normative expectations concerning affective experience and expression (Brief & Weiss, 2002; Elfenbein, 2007; Grandey & Melloy, 2017), but also to influence the feelings of others at work (interpersonal affect regulation).

In line with existing definitions of IAR (for an overview, see Table 1), we define IAR, as it pertains to organizational life, as actions (including emotional, cognitive, and behavioral efforts) by (an) actor(s) aimed at influencing the feelings of one or more other individuals they interact with in the work context. Previous research has predominantly assumed that employees are motivated to adhere to organizational norms in expressing affect at work that is conducive to organizational goals (Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1991), implying individuals' interests and goals are generally aligned with each other to

collectively pursue the attainment of organizational goals (Groth et al., 2019). In turn, we propose that IAR in the workplace is goal-oriented and that organizational members are often motivated to influence others' affect to obtain valued goals (see also Troth et al., 2017, for a review). This approach conceives of IAR as driven by individual motives in a given situation (Tamir & Millgram, 2017). For instance, leaders may have the motive of helping to improve followers' performance (Niven, 2016), which translates to the goal of selecting strategies to improve followers' enthusiasm and excitement, for example, through communication (Ashkanasy & Humphrey, 2011; Humphrey, 2002; Pescosolido, 2002). Similarly, employees may be driven to increase customer feelings of happiness, to help increase sales for the organization (Groth et al., 2019). Given the complex nature of goals as well as evidence for their automaticity (see Bargh & Ferguson, 2000), our goal-driven approach to IAR encompasses both intentional and automatic IAR, as well as the possibility for more deliberate IAR strategies to become automated and habituated over time (Bargh, 2014; Niven et al., 2009).

Insert Table 1 about here

The questions of why and how individuals choose to regulate others' affect in organizations have been studied in different, largely separated organizational literatures. Attempts to integrate this literature have largely ignored the dynamics of the social roles of the person instigating IAR (i.e., the actor) and the individuals it is intended to affect (i.e., the target(s) of IAR), which has resulted in divergent conclusions and limited integration of results. However, the social roles of actors and targets involved in IAR are critical. Individuals in workplaces are characterized by the distinct social roles they play, which are often embedded in a broader structure of team members, leaders, subordinates, and external stakeholders. Thus, it is surprising that the relationship between actors and targets in IAR

process remains largely unaddressed. Although previous conceptual work has advanced insights into the motives behind IAR strategies (Niven, 2016), we lack systematic insights and theory into how social roles shape IAR, including the outcomes of IAR in organizations. As we argue, theory building is needed to predict when and why IAR takes place in organizations and with what consequences. Thus, our paper advances IAR research by explicitly focusing on the social roles in which IAR occurs in organizations. Highlighting distinct actor-target configurations across organizational roles provides a unique perspective of how these roles and individuals' motives shape different IAR strategies and their effectiveness in organizations.

An Integrative Framework of Social Role Configurations in IAR at Work

Our framework of how social roles shape IAR aims to provide insights into when, how, and with what implications IAR takes place in different types of organizational settings (see Figure 2). Building on and expanding Niven's (2016) work on motives for IAR, we propose how distinct social role configurations shape how actors choose to engage in IAR in organizations, including the implications for targets. Social roles are "a socially defined pattern of behavior that is expected of a person who occupies a certain social position or belongs to a particular social category" (Bosak, 2018). Organizational role theory defines roles as a collection of obligations, entitlements, expectations, and norms that an individual must assume and execute. It is founded on the notion that individuals exhibit behaviors contingent on contextual factors, such as their social status and other relevant factors (Kahn et al., 1964). Thus, social roles within organizations consist of normative expectations that define social structures and their corresponding roles or behaviors in interactions with others at the workplace (Katz & Kahn, 1978). Effective role behaviors are essential for effective functioning in a particular role. Individual behavior in social contexts, tasks, and responsibilities in work groups and organizations is often organized into social roles, and

individuals are constrained by the scripts, norms, and expectations of their roles (Turner, 2002). We propose that social role configurations in which IAR is embedded shape target affect by driving distinct motives and strategies for actors to engage in IAR in these contexts.

Evidence suggests an overarching distinction between IAR strategies that focus on improving (e.g., aiming to make a target experience more excitement, happiness, or comfort) versus worsening others' affect (e.g., aiming to make a target feel more anxious, angry, or sad; Niven et al., 2009). We draw from examples of both affect-improving as well as affect-worsening affect regulation to illustrate the implications of each of the proposed social role configurations for IAR in organizations. Our integrative framework is based on evidence from the distinct social roles contained within the extant literature, which we derived through a detailed review of the literature. (Please see the appendix for a detailed description of how we analyzed the existing literature.) Tables 2-4 show a comprehensive overview of existing research for the vertical, horizontal, and external social role configurations, respectively. These tables contain all studies included in our review and list (inferred) motives, strategies, and affective outcomes, along with a summary of key findings.

We inductively draw from and integrate organizational literature across different domains to commence theory building by identifying three overarching social role configurations in which IAR takes place at work. First, the *internal vertical social role configuration* is characterized by interactions between actors and targets with social roles from different levels of the organization's hierarchy. IAR in this configuration includes actions by leaders (*downward*) or subordinates (*upward*) to influence one another's affect at work. Second, the *internal horizontal social role configuration* is characterized by interactions between actors and targets that have comparable roles with similar hierarchical positions, such as team members. IAR in this configuration entails actions taken by team members to regulate each others' affective states. Within both the vertical and horizontal

social role configurations, actors and targets typically work with one another on an ongoing basis and toward a shared goal. Third, the *external social role configuration* is characterized by interactions between organizational members and external stakeholders, such as interactions of employees with customers, which are often transactional and transient in nature, with limited opportunities for repeated interactions (Czepiel, 1990; Gutek et al., 1999). IAR in this configuration involves actions taken by organization members to influence the affective states of individuals outside of the organization (*outbound*) or actions taken by external stakeholders to influence the affective states of employees (*inbound*). As part of our framework, we establish each social role configuration of IAR in organizations and propose how these role configurations differentially influence the why, how, and what of IAR in organizations.

 Insert Tables 2-4 and Figure 2 about here

The Internal Vertical Social Role Configuration of IAR in Organizations

We define the internal vertical social role configuration of IAR as one that occurs between an actor and target whose relationship is characterized by salient differences in hierarchical roles. This configuration allows for downward (e.g., from leader to subordinates) or upward (e.g., from subordinates to leader) attempts at IAR. Downward IAR typically involves actions by leaders aiming to influence followers to achieve a shared organizational goal (Yukl, 2006). Roles of leaders that are functional to achieving organizational goals include task- and relational-oriented aspects (Hemphill & Coons, 1957; Stogdill, 1963), including clarifying objectives and coordinating follower actions, as well as showing concern for followers' well-being. They also include change-oriented aspects such as developing a vision for change (DeRue et al., 2011; Yukl et al., 2002). We propose that these core aspects of leadership roles (i.e., to provide structure in their tasks, support their well-being at work,

and inspire followers toward change at work) make IAR aimed at improving target affect (i.e., facilitating the experience of positive affect and/or decreasing the experience of negative affect of followers) particularly relevant in this social role configuration.

Evidence for affect-improving IAR in this social role configuration is largely rooted in positive leadership theories and perspectives, such as transformational (Bass, 1985; 1998), charismatic (Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Gardner & Avolio, 1998), and authentic leadership (Walumbwa et al., 2008). Transformational and charismatic leaders tend to be aware of their emotional impact on followers (Ashkanasy & Tse, 2000; Connelly et al., 2002; Erez et al., 2008). Such leaders use their own positive affect to deliberately shape and improve followers' affect to motivate their subordinates (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Dubinsky et al., 1995). For example, transformational leaders use positive emotions when communicating a vision to elicit positive responses from their subordinates (Lewis, 2000). These leaders also use their own affect to influence their employees by arousing similar feelings in their followers (Conger & Kanungo, 1998). Indeed, Berson and colleagues (2001, p. 54) argue that leaders use "transformational influence to excite followers to work towards long-term ideals and strategic objectives." Similarly, authentic leaders often purposely express their own feelings to influence their followers (Avolio et al., 2004). In turn, subordinates relate to their leaders' feelings because leaders hold power in influencing resources and interactions (Sy et al., 2005). As a result, leaders' emotional expressions can have a considerable impact on followers' affective states (Van Knippenberg & Van Kleef, 2016).

Leaders' influence toward achieving organizationally desirable goals may also include affect-worsening IAR, where leaders deliberately aim to induce more negative feelings in their followers, such as feeling distressed, angry, upset, afraid, and jittery (Warr et al., 2014). Such affect-worsening may be part of deliberate attempts by leaders to motivate underperforming teams to perform better (Schaumberg & Flynn, 2019; Van Kleef et al.,

2009). Support for this functional role of worsened affect is also evident, more broadly, in research on intrapersonal affect regulation (Tamir, 2016), which indicates that individuals sometimes deliberately worsen their moods and emotions to complete tasks more effectively. However, affect-worsening IAR can also occur for egoistic or self-interested reasons, such as can be observed in abusive leadership (Baron, 1988; Hobman et al., 2009; Hoobler & Hu, 2013; Kernan et al., 2011; Tepper, 2000; Tepper et al., 2007). Here, leaders may use their power advantage (Anderson & Brion, 2014; Pfeffer, 1992) to deliberately worsen followers' feelings not to achieve organizational goals but to reach self-serving goals.

In turn, due to the power asymmetry inherent in leader-follower relationships, where followers aim to influence leaders' affect, upward IAR is likely aimed at improving, rather than deliberately worsening, leaders' feelings (e.g., Scott et al., 2007).

Preliminary evidence suggests followers may choose to display acts of citizenship, increasing feelings of happiness in their leaders (Halbesleben et al., 2010). Similarly, Scott et al. (2007) show that followers' charismatic behaviors are associated with leaders' positive moods. In sum, although empirical evidence of upward IAR in internal vertical social role configurations is sparse, initial theorizing and evidence suggests that followers are likely motivated by impression management motives in order to improve their leader's positive affect for their own benefit, such as to receive preferential treatment and more favorable performance evaluations.

In sum, both affect-improving and, to a lesser extent, affect-worsening IAR likely occur in organizations in what we refer to as *internal vertical social role configurations* that are characterized by actors and targets occupying social roles that represent distinct hierarchies in the organization. Internal vertical IAR also likely happens in two directions: downward (e.g., from leader to subordinates) and upward (e.g., from subordinates to leader), although research on upward IAR is relatively scarce.

The Internal Horizontal Social Role Configuration of IAR in Organizations

We define the internal horizontal social role configuration of IAR as one that occurs between an actor and target whose relationship is characterized by similar hierarchical positions in the organization. Typically, this consists of interactions between team members working together to achieve outcomes beyond individual capabilities (Marks et al., 2001). Team researchers increasingly view teams as complex, adaptive, and dynamic as they change over time and contexts (Ilgen et al., 2005). As such, team members often need to work together and negotiate teamwork processes, such as the formulation of goals and strategies, and continuously monitor and coordinate action while simultaneously managing interpersonal processes (Kozlowski & Ilgen, 2006; Marks et al., 2001; Mathieu et al., 2008).

There has been a long tradition of studying the interpersonal interactions among team members as well as the motivations and relationships that impact the bonding among team members and that shape performance on the task at hand (Kozlowski & Ilgen, 2006). According to Marks et al. (2001) and Mathieu et al. (2008), interpersonal processes such as adaptive conflict management, motivation, and affect management are instrumental to the success of teams, with interpersonal affective perspectives often implicated in explaining how these processes impact team outcomes (Kozlowski & Ilgen, 2006).

In the internal horizontal social role configuration, the display of positive affect is often considered critical in promoting feeling states that enhance team cohesion, which is theorized to drive team effectiveness (Kozlowski & Ilgen, 2006). The team literature often builds on the broader affect literature, including emotion contagion (Hatfield et al., 1994), affective event perspectives (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), and the social interpretation of emotional displays (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978; Van Kleef., 2009). For instance, Barsade (2002) drew on emotion contagion perspectives in showing how a team member's positive or negative emotional displays can lead others in the team to experience and express similar positive or

negative feelings. Further, Kammeyer-Mueller et al. (2013) proposed that co-worker support, such as providing encouragement, constituted an “affective event” that enhanced the positive experience of a newcomer. Drawing on emotions as social information theory (Van Kleef, 2009), other research demonstrated that a team member’s displays of happiness may be interpreted by co-workers as signaling that they did a good job, which enhances positive affective experiences (Cheshin et al., 2011). Together, it appears that positive emotional displays and strategies constitute a way for teams to manage interpersonal processes and promote team cohesion to enhance team effectiveness.

Although the teams literature is characterized by efforts to uncover the antecedents of team effectiveness, it recognizes the critical role of disagreements in team contexts. Team conflict is a primary example of a setting in which affect-worsening IAR in the internal horizontal social role configuration is likely to occur. Team relationship conflict is associated with increased negative affective team experiences (e.g., increased feelings of tension and anxiousness) as well as decreased positive affective team experiences (e.g., decreased feelings of enthusiasm; Gamero et al., 2008). The experience of conflict in teams generally undermines interpersonal processes and engenders team dysfunction that typically leads teams to become less effective and less viable. Whether as a byproduct of conflict behaviors or as a deliberate action, team conflict creates a context in which team members may worsen each other’s affect.

In sum, both affect-improving and, to a lesser extent, affect-worsening IAR likely occur in organizations in what we refer to as *internal horizontal social role configurations*, which are characterized by actors and targets occupying social roles that represent similar hierarchies in the organization.

The External Social Role Configuration of IAR in Organizations

The external social role configuration of IAR is characterized by interactions between employees, in their role as representatives of the organization, and stakeholders outside the organization, such as customers. This configuration allows for outbound (e.g., from employee to external stakeholder) or inbound (e.g., from external stakeholder to employee) attempts at IAR. Unlike the internal vertical and horizontal social role configurations, where actors and targets typically have a history of shared social interactions, the external configuration represents more transient interactions between actors and targets who often have not met before and have no expectations to interact again in the future (Czepiel, 1990; Gutek et al., 1999). In this context, expectations are often based on service scripts, or similar forms of organizational norms, which specify actions and behaviors that are consistent with organizational goals (Nguyen et al., 2014). In addition, in the absence of prior experience and information about each other, affective displays become a particularly important source of information and critical signal about the quality of service and the relationship (Van Kleef, 2009; Wang & Groth, 2014). Social role expectations in service exchanges dictate that employees are expected to fulfill their role as service providers by maintaining professionalism, ensuring that the customers' needs are met to the best of their abilities, and representing their organization (Barnes, 1997). Customers' social role, on the other hand, is largely based on expectations to provide relevant information, communicate in appropriate ways, and be respectful in interpersonal interactions (Barnes, 1997). Ultimately, both parties play a crucial role in creating a successful service interaction, and a failure on either side can have negative consequences for the overall service experience. Thus, the external social role configuration of IAR is predominately situated within employee-customer interactions in which both aim to regulate –and typically improve– each other's affect to achieve a desired service outcome (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2006; Medler-Liraz, 2016; Tan et al., 2004).

As an example of affect-improving IAR, a vast body of evidence on service management has shown that employees generally aim to improve customers' positive affect through positive emotional displays. For example, Tan et al. (2004) showed that employees' positive emotional displays are related to increased customer satisfaction. Similarly, Mattila and Enz (2002) found a link between employee emotional display and customers' service encounter evaluations and positive mood after the encounter. These studies indicate that customers are often prone to imitating and 'catching' the service employee's display of positive emotions, which consequently enhances the customer's evaluation of the service (Pugh, 2001; Hennig-Thurau et al., 2006).

IAR in an external social role configuration may also include instances of affect-worsening IAR, which is most evident in the literature on customer mistreatment (Koopman et al., 2015). Customer mistreatment refers to low-quality interpersonal treatment employees receive from their customers (Wang et al., 2011) and often involves customers getting angry at employees, venting their frustration or impatience, and deliberately using condescending or aggressive language. For example, Rothbard and Wilk (2011) showed that customer hostility and negative affect resulted in increased negative emotions in employees. Thus, customers may aim to worsen employees' affect to "get even" or for purely self-interested reasons to achieve more favorable service outcomes (Fisk & Neville, 2011). Similarly, employees may occasionally engage in affect-worsening IAR towards customers to achieve the goals of their organization, such as in the case of debt collectors who instill feelings of frustration and urgency to compel customers to pay their debts (Sutton, 1991).

In sum, both affect-improving and, to a lesser extent, affect-worsening IAR likely occur in organizations in what we refer to as *external social role configurations*. External IAR is characterized by actors and targets who occupy social roles that span across organizational

boundaries, and it may occur in two distinct directions, outbound (e.g., from employee to external stakeholder) or inbound (e.g., from external stakeholder to employee).

The Impact of Social Role Configurations on Motivation and Strategies of IAR

Having established three core types of social role configurations of IAR in organizations, we next discuss how each of them shapes IAR at work (as shown in Figure 2). Specifically, we develop a model highlighting how distinct social role configurations influence the motives of IAR (i.e., *why* individuals engage in IAR at work; Path A in Figure 2), the IAR strategies used (i.e., *how* individuals engage in IAR; Path B in Figure 2) and the outcomes of IAR (i.e., *what* affective outcomes IAR has; Path C in Figure 2). We provide specific research propositions and illustrate our discussion with evidence from organizational studies across actor-target configurations incorporating internal vertical, internal horizontal, and external social role configurations of IAR, respectively.

The Influence of Social Role Configurations on IAR Motives at Work

Research on affect regulation more broadly suggests that individual motives matter when regulating one's own affective experience (Carver & Scheier, 2011; Tamir, 2009, 2016; Tamir & Millgram, 2017). For instance, research on *intrapersonal* affect regulation indicates that individuals' motives shape how and to what end they choose to regulate their own affect (Bindl et al., 2022; Bolton, 2005; Diefendorff & Gosserand, 2003; Tamir, 2009, 2016; Tamir & Millgram, 2017; Von Gilsa et al., 2014). Expanding this notion to the context of IAR, Niven (2016) developed a conceptual framework for why employees may choose to regulate *others'* affect in organizations. Using self-determination theory, Niven (2016) argued individuals may be driven to influence others' affect by a wide range of individual motives, including identity construction (i.e., promote a sense of self), impression management (i.e., promote career or reputation), conformity (i.e., promote the smooth running of social situations), emotional labor (i.e., promote organizational performance), hedonism (i.e.,

promote personal well-being), instrumentality (i.e., boost one's own performance), compassion (i.e., promote others' well-being), and coaching (i.e., promote others' performance). We build on Niven's (2016) work to propose how social role configurations shape actors' motives to engage in IAR in organizations and its implications for targets. For each proposition below, we focus on the most predominant motives within each social role configuration. That is, rather than providing an exhaustive description of every motive in each constellation, our theorizing focuses on those motives that we expect to be the most salient ones within each constellation that have received the most theory-driven and empirical attention in prior research (see Tables 2-4 for an overview of earlier indicative evidence).

First, as established above, within an internal vertical social role configuration, IAR often occurs between leaders and followers, with a particular focus on leaders regulating followers' affect to influence them to achieve shared goals (see Table 2 for indicative evidence from the organizational literature). In this context, we propose affect-improving IAR in the internal vertical social role configuration to be primarily driven by leaders' motives of coaching and compassion as well as instrumentality, in line with leaders' dual focus on task and relational aspects of work (Hemphill & Coons, 1957; DeRue et al., 2011; Stogdill, 1963; Yukl et al., 2002). For example, research on transformational, charismatic, and authentic leadership suggests leaders often engage in IAR to influence followers' feelings of excitement and inspiration to promote higher performance in followers (e.g., Lewis, 2000; Sutton, 2004; Sy et al., 2005; Yukl & Howell, 1999), resembling a coaching motive. Similarly, leaders frequently focus on improving followers' social functioning and well-being at work (Day & Antonakis, 2012; Judge et al., 2004). In this context, a compassion motive is evident as leaders attempt to improve followers' affect to promote their well-being, for instance, by offering support to followers and attending to their emotional needs (e.g., Huy,

2002; Lee et al., 2011; Nifadkar et al., 2012). Thus, the instrumentality motive will likely be salient in affect-improving IAR. In sum, we propose:

Proposition #1: Affect-improving IAR in the internal vertical social role configuration from higher- to lower-hierarchy employees (i.e., downward) is more frequently driven by coaching, compassion, and instrumentality motives, compared with other motives.

In addition, we propose affect-worsening IAR in the internal vertical social role configuration to be primarily driven by leaders' motives of hedonism and identity construction as well as by instrumentality motives. Regarding hedonism and identity construction motives, evidence suggests that power is associated with a loss of sensitivity to social disapproval, as well as reduced empathy, fairness, and compassion towards others at work (Anderson & Brion, 2014; Pfeffer, 1992; Van Kleef et al., 2008). Moreover, powerful individuals may use their power to gain personal benefits at the cost of others (Higgins et al., 2003). Within the internal vertical social role configuration, given the power asymmetry between leaders and followers (Yukl, 2006), we propose that leaders can be driven by motives to promote a sense of self (identity construction motive) or to advance their own well-being (hedonism motive), although these motives can be dysfunctional if they are pursued for nefarious, self-interested reasons that are not aligned with organizational goals. Evidence for affect-worsening IAR by leaders toward their followers is observed in abusive supervision (Tepper, 2000), where leaders deliberately engage in actions to make themselves feel better or to reinforce their own sense of self at the expense of followers (e.g., Atwater et al., 1997; Baron, 1988, 1990; Hobman et al., 2009). This may include leaders engaging in incivility and social undermining of their followers (e.g., Gianakos, 2002; Gant et al., 1993; Hobman et al., 2009). In sum, supervisors may use their hierarchal power to worsen followers' feelings (Hoobler & Brass, 2006; Restubog et al., 2011). However, supervisors may also deliberately aim to worsen follower's affect for functional purposes that align with shared organizational goals. In particular, leaders may aim to worsen follower affect to

benefit decision-making and performance in their overall team (Carson et al., 1993; French & Raven, 1959; Grossman, 2000; Pfeffer, 1981). Such instrumental motive for affect-worsening IAR by leaders is supported by social psychological research that suggests negative emotions, such as anxiety or anger, may, in some situations, be more effective than positive affect in promoting outcomes (e.g., analytical performance) and that individuals may be aware of the performance-related benefits of experiencing negative feelings (Gohm, 2003; Tamir et al., 2007). In this vein, evidence indicates that leaders may promote performance in followers by displaying negative, rather than positive, affect toward followers, particularly if the team is attuned to understanding the overall performance-related implications (Van Kleef et al., 2009). Thus, beyond motives related to making themselves feel better (hedonism and identity construction), affect-worsening IAR in the internal vertical social role configuration is also likely characterized by IAR driven by leaders wishing to enhance the overall performance of their team, reflecting instrumental motives of IAR. In sum, we propose:

Proposition #2: Affect-worsening IAR in the internal vertical social role configuration from higher- to lower-hierarchy employees (i.e., downward) is more frequently driven by hedonism, identity construction, and instrumentality motives, compared with other motives.

Given the apparent power asymmetry in internal vertical role configurations, we also expect that lower-hierarchy individuals seek to influence how leaders feel, mainly to gain favorable performance and career outcomes (Bolino et al., 2008; Gardner & Martinko, 1988). Therefore, we propose that affect-improving IAR in the internal vertical social role configuration also occurs upward, that is, from lower to higher hierarchy individuals driven by impression management motives. For instance, research on followership in organizations indicates that employees' charismatic behaviors may positively influence emotions that leaders experience toward them, such as feeling prouder and happier about the follower (Scott et al., 2007). In contrast, while it is conceivable that followers may engage in affect-worsening IAR at work, given the power differential to their leaders and the potential

backlash endured when making their leaders feel bad (Anderson & Brion, 2014; Pfeffer, 1992), we do not expect affect-worsening IAR to be predominant in the context of upward internal vertical social role configurations. In sum, we propose:

Proposition #3: Affect-improving IAR in the internal vertical social role configuration from lower-to higher-hierarchy employees (i.e., upward) is more frequently driven by impression management motives, compared with other motives.

In contrast to the internal vertical social role configuration, team members in the internal horizontal social role configuration share similar status in the organization and, therefore, often have considerable discretion in determining how and how much they commit to individual and team goals (Kozlowski & Ilgen, 2006). As a result, the goals of the individual and the team may be “independent, complementary or even contradictory” (DeShon et al., 2004, p.1036). The achievement of collective team goals requires an alignment of individual and collective goals. It requires team members to gain consensus on shared processes that engender cooperation, confidence, empowerment, cohesion, and trust (Mathieu et al., 2008). We propose that IAR in the internal horizontal social role configuration is characterized by affect-improving strategies to enhance overall team effectiveness (Marks et al., 2001; Mathieu et al., 2008). These affect-improving strategies not only enhance collective team effectiveness but, in doing so, also achieve individual goals when aligned with the team.

We argue that IAR strategies are primarily driven by team members’ compassion- and instrumentality-related motives. Compassion motives are apparent when team members attempt to uplift the positive experience of another target team member by providing care and support (e.g., Gant et al., 1993; Ilies et al., 2011; Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013; Peeters et al., 1995). Team members who are instrumental in their choice of nonverbal positive displays (e.g., smiling) or deliberate expressions of happiness to team members (e.g., Barsade, 2002; Cheshin et al., 2011), in contrast, may be primarily motivated to enhance the capacity of

teams to work cohesively and effectively. However, we acknowledge that when individual and team goals are aligned, compassion motives may also indirectly benefit team and individual performance; likewise, instrumental motives may also indirectly benefit team member well-being. Thus, we propose:

Proposition #4: Affect-improving IAR in the internal horizontal social role configuration is more frequently driven by compassion and instrumentality motives, compared with other motives.

Alignment of individual and collective goals is critical in determining team effectiveness (Kozlowski & Ilgen, 2006; Marks et al., 2001), but such consensus can be difficult to achieve. Team members can vary in their commitment to team goals and may endanger team goals in the pursuit of their self-interested individual goals (DeShon et al., 2004). Further, team members may fail to reach a common and collective understanding of their strategy, mission, or process (Marks et al., 2001). Research indicates that team goal clarity and team process clarity are critical to the formation of a shared understanding of each individual's role in the team, which in turn facilitates high-quality team interactions (Hu & Liden, 2011). Without such common understanding, team members may elevate their own self-serving goals and/or seek to undermine other goals within the team. In such situations, team members may prioritize their own goals at the expense of the team to elevate their own sense of self and to make themselves feel good, and self-focused motives such as hedonism, instrumentality, and identity construction may become evident. Thus, team members may engage in emotional conflict with co-workers (e.g., Gamero et al., 2008; Ilies et al., 2011; Medina et al., 2005; Sessa, 1996) and may purposely undermine another team member through personal attacks (e.g., Gant et al., 1993; Grandey et al., 2002; Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013). In sum, we propose:

Proposition #5: Affect-worsening IAR in the internal horizontal social role configuration is more frequently driven by identity construction, instrumentality, and hedonism motives, compared with other motives.

Finally, we propose that in external social role configurations of IAR (i.e., between employees and individuals outside the organization, such as customers), affect-improving IAR is primarily driven by emotional labor and instrumentality motives. For outbound IAR that occurs from employees (i.e., actors) to customers (i.e., targets), service employees often aim to positively impact the feelings of customers because positive emotions have been linked to increased customer satisfaction, loyalty, and positive word-of-mouth (Groth et al., 2019). Thus, evidence of affect-improving IAR in external social role configurations focuses on service employees' efforts to express and display positive emotions to promote organizational performance by creating an overall positive service experience for customers (e.g., Hennig-Thurau et al., 2006; Medler-Liraz, 2016; Tan et al., 2004). Such attempts at interpersonal affect regulation aim to change customers' emotions to benefit the organization. For example, evidence suggests expressing positive affect is a common strategy by which employees try to influence customers' affective reactions to the service delivery and, ultimately, the quality of the service performance itself (Hur et al., 2015; Medler-Liraz, 2016). Hence, we propose:

Proposition #6: Affect-improving IAR in the external social role configuration from employees to customers (i.e., outbound) is more frequently driven by emotional labor motives, compared with other motives.

Reversely, evidence for inbound affect-improving IAR from customers (i.e., actors) to employees (i.e., targets) is less common. However, some evidence suggests that customers are driven by instrumentality motives to elicit positive emotions in employees to receive better service. For example, Rothbard and Wilk (2011) showed that customer positive affective displays were associated with increased positive emotions in employees, thus ultimately leading to better service experiences/outcomes for customers themselves. Thus, we propose:

Proposition #7: Affect-improving IAR in the external social role configuration from customers to employees (i.e., inbound) is more frequently driven by instrumentality motives, compared with other motives.

Employees will rarely aim to worsen the feelings of customers, as this would be inconsistent with organizational goals of increasing customer satisfaction and loyalty. Yet, in some types of services (i.e., police officers, debt collectors), employees may aim to heighten feelings of fear and intimidation (Sutton, 1991; van Gelderen et al., 2007), usually in an attempt to enforce organizational compliance (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1991). However, affect-worsening IAR in external social roles can more often be observed in the opposite direction. Customers' perceived service failures or unmet service expectations may be a primary trigger of affect-worsening IAR. As a result of perceived failures by the employee, customers may display negative emotions such as anger (Rupp & Spencer, 2006) in their interactions with service employees (Rothbard & Wilk, 2011; Fisk & Neville, 2011), thus pursuing an instrumentality motive trying to influence how service employees feel to gain a more favorable service outcome as a result of their complaining behavior. In other words, affect-worsening IAR from customers to employees involves customers' display of negative emotions toward employees to achieve more favorable outcomes in the service transaction (Groth & Grandey, 2012).

Customers may also engage in affect-worsening IAR for self-serving hedonic or identity construct motives. Unlike many co-worker interactions, there are usually unequal goal expectations and power differentials in employee–customer interactions (Diefendorff et al., 2010). The misalignment of perceived power may lead customers to treat employees poorly just because ‘they can.’ At other times, customers may display negative affect toward employees because they feel entitled to do so due to their relative perceived power over frontline service employees (Diefendorff et al., 2010; Yagil, 2006). Poor affective treatment by customers then inevitably leads to negative affective responses by employees (Groth &

Grandey, 2012). This is underpinned by affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), which suggests that customer actions represent affective events that shape employees' feelings at work. For example, Grandey et al. (2002) found that personal attacks and incivility from customers to employees constitute an "affective event" that shapes the employee's affective experiences. These affective experiences (e.g., due to customer mistreatment; cf. Koopman et al., 2015) consequently negatively impact effective service delivery by employees (cf. Adams & Webster, 2013). In short, customers' motives for IAR within an external social role configuration may be primarily driven by instrumentality, hedonism, and identity construction motives. Thus, we propose:

Proposition #8: Affect-worsening IAR in the external social role configuration from customers to employees (i.e., inbound) is more frequently driven by instrumentality, hedonism, and identity construction motives, compared with other motives.

The Influence of Social Role Configurations on IAR Strategies at Work

In analyzing strategies for IAR, we draw on Gross' (1998) well-established emotion regulation framework, which distinguishes between antecedent-focused and response-focused affect regulation strategies (Gross, 1998; Gross & Munoz, 1995). Gross' model is situated at the intrapersonal level of analysis, but the two core strategies it highlights can be meaningfully extended to the interpersonal level. In Gross' model, antecedent-focused emotion regulation involves modifying the precursors that lead to an emotional experience, such as altering the emotion-arousing situation itself or one's way of thinking about the situation (Gross & John, 2003; Grandey, 2000). This approach to affect regulation aims to prevent negative emotions from arising or becoming too intense by altering the conditions that trigger them. Response-focused regulation, on the other hand, focuses on modifying the response to a given stimulus rather than altering the stimulus itself (Gross & John, 2003; Grandey, 2000). This approach is commonly used in situations where it may be difficult or

impossible to change the source of a problem or where individuals lack the ability or skill to change their feelings (Yang & Diefendorff, 2009).

A large body of evidence suggests that antecedent-related *intrapersonal* affect regulation leads to improved performance and well-being outcomes, as well as to better social functioning (e.g., Grandey & Gabriel, 2015; Gross, 1998; Gross & John, 2003; Hülshager & Schewe, 2011). This is due to the overall more effective outcomes of antecedent-related affect regulation regarding individuals' own self-regulatory processes, as well as more favorable outward appearance to other stakeholders (Gabriel et al., 2023; Gross, 2002). While all regulation strategies can be taxing for individuals and drain their resources (Hobfoll, 1989), response-focused regulation strategies may result in greater resource loss and, consequently, reduced well-being and performance (Grandey & Gabriel, 2015). Response-focused affect regulation has also been associated with poorer outcomes due to its propensity to appear inauthentic and to create a dissonance between felt and displayed emotions (Gabriel et al., 2023; Gross, 2002).

Core aspects of Gross' (1998) model have also been applied to the interpersonal domain. Most notably, Williams (2007) proposed that actors may engage in antecedent-focused efforts to influence targets' affect by *altering the situation* (i.e., changing the situation by removing some or all of the emotional impact for the target), *altering attention* (i.e., distracting targets' attention away from an emotional situation), or *altering the cognitive meaning of the situation* (i.e., initiating targets' reappraisal of a situation). In contrast, actors may try to influence targets' affect in response-focused ways by *modulating the emotional response* (i.e., interrupting targets' experiences of emotions).

Research has highlighted some contexts where response-focused interpersonal affect regulation may be more effective, for instance, in crisis and time-constrained situations (Huy, 2002; Thiel et al., 2015) when individuals do not have enough time and capacity to engage in

antecedent-related emotion regulation (e.g., Grandey & Melloy, 2017). For example, Pauw et al. (2019) found that, when down-regulating others' negative emotions, people provide less socio-affective support but help others to disengage from the emotional experience by encouraging suppression and distraction.

We propose that antecedent-focused IAR is likely to be more effective in changing target affect than response-focused IAR. In particular, by shifting attention and altering the meaning of affective experiences, we expect antecedent-focused IAR strategies to more effectively influence follower affect by facilitating social sensemaking processes (Weick, 1995). Antecedent-focused IAR strategies, such as deliberately displaying positive emotions (e.g., smiling at the target) to improve target affect, or expressing anger to worsen target affect, likely shape the target's interpretation of the situation, thereby promoting changes in the target's affect. These displays communicate the actor's motivations and intentions toward the target (Van Kleef, 2009), influencing a target's affective response. For instance, a team member's display of happiness may be interpreted by followers as a sign that they are doing a good job (Van Kleef et al., 2009), which enhances positive affective experiences. This strategy can be found across social role-configurations proposed in our model (e.g., Cheshin et al., 2011; Rothbard & Wilk, 2011; Visser et al., 2013). For instance, thanking others for inducing a positive affective experience appears to be a pervasive IAR strategy leading to an increase of positive affect in targets across social role configurations, including internal vertical (Kelloway et al., 2013), internal horizontal (Niven et al., 2012a), and external configurations (Tan et al., 2004). Likewise, communicating disrespect worsens target affect across social role configurations, including internal vertical (Hoobler & Hu, 2013), internal horizontal (Pearson et al., 2001), and external configurations (Yang & Diefendorff, 2009). Communicating disrespect, across all contexts, is likely to be interpreted as signaling poor interpersonal relations and worsening affective outcomes (Hoobler & Hu, 2013).

In contrast, response-focused IAR strategies require actors to instruct targets to change their expressions, which may undermine their self-concept (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Pugh et al., 2011). In addition, analogous to response-focused intraindividual affect regulation, we expect that response-focused IAR may be perceived as more reactive rather than proactive, and once an emotion has been elicited in a target, activate physiological processes that are more difficult to stop or reverse (Gross, 2002). Thus, response-focused IAR may only provide temporary relief as it fails to address the underlying causes of the emotions. In sum, we propose:

Proposition #9: Across all social role configurations in organizations and across both affect-improving and affect-worsening IAR, the use of antecedent-related IAR strategies is overall more likely to be effective in changing target affect than the use of response-focused IAR strategies.

Further, we propose that distinct social role constellations of IAR shape the range or flexibility of IAR strategies available to and used by actors. For instance, the relative perceived power of actors within an organizational context increases the influence of individuals to shape the actions of others (Pfeffer, 1981) as well as the breadth of their behavioral repertoire (Galinsky et al., 2003; Keltner et al., 2003). Thus, it is particularly those actors within an internal vertical social role configuration at a higher hierarchical position who will likely perceive that they are able to choose from a wide range of antecedent-focused strategies, in turn, by being able to choose a strategy most fitting for effectiveness in a particular situation. Leaders may choose from altering the situation for followers, altering aspects of the situation, or altering the cognitive meaning of the situation to regulate followers' affect when engaging in internal vertical IAR (Gross, 1998; Williams, 2007). For example, leaders may change the situation for their followers by assigning new assignments or projects that are experienced as inspiring (Yukl, 2006). Leaders also have the positional power to communicate an inspiring vision to heighten feelings of excitement or inspire followers to think about a situation in new ways (e.g., Bono et al., 2007; Liang & Chi, 2013;

McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002; Seo et al., 2012; Tsai et al., 2009). In addition, although followers have distinctly less power than leaders, follower-leader relationships are often characterized by working together over a longer amount of time to achieve shared goals (Yukl, 2006). For that reason, followers may aim to proactively influence their leaders' affect in a range of ways over time, for example, by choosing when and how to share positive news about their achievements with their leader.

Similarly, in internal horizontal social role configurations, team members often work together intensively and know each other intimately (Ilgen et al., 2005). Further, research indicates that teams develop their own unique affective norms that emerge over the course of team members' sustained interactions with one another, and these affective norms often vary between teams located in the same organization (Gamero et al., 2008; George, 1990; Sessa, 1996). In contrast to the internal vertical configurations in which those in higher hierarchical positions may be afforded more discretion in their choice of IAR strategies, team members are required to adapt to the changing dynamics of the task environment, and their behavior is less directly influenced by the organizational hierarchy. Therefore, team members may not be particularly constrained by organizational display rules regarding hierarchy and status in organizations (Diefendorff & Greguras, 2009), which opens up a wider range of IAR strategies. For example, team members not only provide a wide range of instrumental support to co-workers, such as providing advice and help to colleagues (e.g., Peeters et al., 2005), but also provide affective support to improve each other's feelings (e.g., Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013; Nivel et al., 2012b). Conversely, team members can also engage in social undermining and exhibit uncivil behaviors toward other team members (e.g., Grant et al., 1993; Gianakos, 2002) or become entangled in relationship conflict (e.g., Medina et al., 2005; Sessa et al., 1996), which disrupts team cohesion.

Compared with an internal (vertical or horizontal) social role configuration, where actors and targets usually have relatively long-standing social ties, a history of social interaction, and are embedded in ongoing work relationships, the external social role configuration of IAR is often characterized by transient interactions between employees and customers that are regulated by professional standards of conduct and organizational norms on how to interact with each other (Gutek, 1995). In particular, service situations are often guided by strong service scripts that guide employee behaviors in their interactions with customers (Nguyen et al., 2014). Expressive affective norms, known as display rules, dictate which emotions are appropriate in particular situations, as well as how those emotions should be expressed to others (Diefendorff et al., 2003). Both employees and customers are often constrained in their ability to select or change the situation in which IAR occurs, which further limits their ability to engage in a wide range of IAR strategies. Employees are usually constrained in their ability to choose which customers to serve and are not able to simply ‘walk away’ from difficult service encounters (Diefendorff et al., 2008). Similarly, customers often cannot change the situational characteristics of service delivery and/or the employees they interact with (Gutek et al., 1999). In sum, external social role configurations are rather confined in the scope of IAR strategies that are enabled in transient, one-off interactions between employees and external stakeholders, such as customers. Thus, we expect:

Proposition #10: The external social role configuration of IAR is characterized by a narrower range of IAR strategies to improve or worsen target affect, compared with internal (vertical and horizontal) social role configurations.

Finally, we propose that the more closely IAR motives are aligned with the respective social role expectations across each of the three social role configurations, the more automated the engagement in IAR will be. If IAR motives are close to the core of social role constellations (e.g., being a leader, a team worker, a customer service representative, etc.), individuals will be more familiar with a particular type of motivated IAR as part of their

routine core role requirements (Bindl et al., 2022; Wood & Rüniger, 2016). Thus, they will likely better understand how to regulate others' affect in ways that are functional for the desired purpose and will require fewer cognitive resources and less attention to effectively engage in IAR (Hobfoll, 1989; Frijda, 1988; Levenson, 1999). Similarly, individuals who habitually engage in IAR will likely require less deliberate effort to regulate others' affect (Gollwitzer et al., 2012), and they may be more effective in doing so (Carver & Scheier, 2011). This possibility is supported by research on emotional contagion processes, which has found that the spreading of emotions among people can happen largely automatically (Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1994), although more recent models highlight the role of conscious motivational processes in contagion (Wolf et al., in press). In addition, evidence suggests that IAR strategies become more automated over time as individuals become more familiar with social role expectations (Bargh, 2014). Thus, we propose that the less central, and hence more unusual, particular motives of IAR are to the core of actors' social roles, the more resources will be required, and the more deliberate IAR strategies will be.

In addition, as argued above, because social roles across configurations primarily involve cooperation and shared goals (for internal vertical and horizontal social role configurations) as well as trust and satisfaction (for external social role configurations), affect-improving (rather than affect-worsening) IAR will be more closely aligned with respective social roles and, hence, is more likely to be enacted in automated ways (e.g., Groth et al., 2019). In addition, some evidence suggests that positive emotions more easily spread from one person to another and can lead to positive affect regulation without deliberate effort (Hatfield et al., 1993). In contrast, negative emotions can be more difficult to regulate, thus requiring more resources and deliberate effort (Hobfoll, 1989). Therefore, we expect affect-worsening IAR to be typically unrelated, or even contradictory, to social roles across

organizational contexts and thus to require more deliberate, effortful engagement by actors.

In sum, we propose:

Proposition #11: The more strongly individual motives for IAR are aligned with the respective norms and expectations of social role configurations, the more automated IAR strategies will be.

Proposition #12: Across social role configurations in organizations, affect-improving IAR is more likely to be enacted through automated IAR strategies, whereas affect-worsening IAR is more likely to be enacted through deliberate strategies.

Advancing a Research Agenda

Despite important theoretical advances on IAR in organizations, there has been limited theorizing on the impact of social role configurations in shaping why and how individuals engage in IAR and the associated outcomes of IAR for target affect. Our conceptual framework shown in Figure 2 integrates and advances insights into how IAR is meaningfully shaped by distinct social role configurations in which individuals are embedded at work. This approach opens up several new directions for future research.

Agenda Item 1: Integrating IAR with Goal-Regulatory Theories

A critical consideration for future research is the congruence between an actor's motives and their choice of strategies. Future research could build on our framework of IAR with insights from goal-regulatory frameworks. For instance, regulatory focus research (Higgins, 1997) explains how individuals choose to strive toward pursuing different goals. Individuals with a promotion-focused approach may seek to maximize gains, whereas individuals with a prevention-focused approach may seek to minimize losses despite pursuing the same higher-order goal. Integrating regulatory focus theory with IAR may refine the overarching antecedent- and response-focused emotion regulation strategies proposed by Gross (1998; Little et al., 2012; Williams, 2007) by shedding light on the nuanced ways in which individuals deploy specific emotion regulation strategies based on their regulatory focus orientations. By considering an individual's regulatory focus, researchers and

practitioners can tailor emotion regulation interventions to better align with an individual's motivational orientation, thus enhancing the effectiveness of emotion regulation strategies in diverse contexts.

Future research should also consider an actor's willingness to persist in IAR at work over time. Research by Williams and Emich (2014) indicated that failed attempts to improve others' affect through humor led to more guilt and reduced self-efficacy on the part of the actor. This finding has important implications: The success and failure of previous IAR attempts likely impact future goal choice and pursuit (Locke & Latham, 2013), including the extent to which a goal is challenging, as well as the types of strategies used for goal pursuit. Understanding how individuals' IAR efforts influence their subsequent goal-setting and pursuit behaviors can provide valuable insights into the dynamic interplay between IAR and goal-directed actions in organizational contexts.

Agenda Item 2: Accounting for Ability (beyond Motivation) in IAR

Differences in individual ability are also known to shape the effectiveness of IAR, and actors can select inappropriate IAR strategies or be unskilled in implementing these strategies (Dixon-Gordon et al., 2015). For instance, Thiel and colleagues (2015) suggest that empathetic leaders can more effectively manage followers' emotions by asking them to suppress their feelings to improve affect by using empathy as an affective tool (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Thus, even though some strategies are generally less effective (e.g., suppression), they may be relatively more effective when employed by actors with particular characteristics and skills. Moreover, individuals with higher levels of emotional intelligence may select more appropriate IAR strategies given their motives, and they may have an easier time implementing their IAR strategies skillfully (O'Boyle et al., 2011). In sum, the effectiveness of IAR strategies likely reflects the actors' ability (e.g., emotional intelligence).

We call for future research to investigate the actors' ability to regulate others' affect in connection with the motivation- and goal-related pursuit of IAR.

Agenda Item 3: Investigating the Wider Organizational Context

Our theoretical model incorporates IAR motives and strategies within a framework of the different social roles individuals may have in organizations. We encourage future research to build on and expand our framework of IAR by considering contextual characteristics of the work setting more broadly. Our conceptual model suggests that social role configurations, as one type of organizational context, shape different motives of IAR, which inform the choice of possible strategies for changing a target's affect. Although we examined specific social role configurations as a direct predictor of IAT motives and strategies in our framework, it is possible that the social roles, and the social context more broadly, moderate some of the relationships in our framework. We call on future research to examine the potential moderating role of the wider social context of IAR processes. Potentially relevant characteristics of the broader work context include organizational culture (De Cremer, 2006), social-organizational characteristics such as social support, work conditions, and job complexity (Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006), and broader relational work design (Grant & Parker, 2009). These and other factors may have an impact on the effectiveness of IAR beyond social roles, and IAR strategies may be more or less effective in changing target affect in desirable ways.

Agenda Item 4: Advancing Research Design and Measurement of IAR

Our framework highlights the critical role played by actor motives in driving IAR strategies and outcomes. Although there are promising avenues of IAR assessment that have tried to establish different dimensions of IAR, such as those by Niven et al. (2011) and Swerdlow and Johnson (2020), these have yet to be measured through the lens of motives. Consequently, there is an urgent need for the development of assessment instruments that can

evaluate IAR motives to deepen our understanding of how specific motives impact strategies and the effectiveness of motive-strategy configurations. Further, these assessments may help identify the alignment or misalignment of goals between the actor and target and the associated consequences for IAR outcomes. Measures concerning the motives of *intrapersonal* affect regulation in organizations are now available (e.g., Bindl et al., 2022) and may be adapted to the *interpersonal* context. Incorporating these measures into future research may help uncover previously unknown relationships between IAR motives, strategies, and outcomes, which can ultimately inform effective IAR practices.

IAR studies to date use laboratory experiments and cross-sectional designs when investigating coaching goals, whereas hedonism- and identity-construction- goals are primarily associated with longitudinal field designs. These distinct areas of IAR can learn from one another in adopting research designs to achieve a broader range of insights in the field. Few studies have employed dynamic study designs such as event sampling procedures that capture IAR more proximately in time as it unfolds (for an exception, see Bono et al., 2007).

Agenda Item 5: Temporal Changes in IAR

We still need to understand more about what it takes for IAR strategies to influence target affect, and how temporality shapes the effectiveness of IAR strategies. Evidence suggests that as little as 30 seconds can effectively change a target's affect (e.g., Cherulnik et al., 2001). IAR strategies can be more diffuse and longer lasting, with evidence from longitudinal field studies suggesting that, in some cases, affect-worsening IAR strategies, such as abusive supervisory behaviors, influence target affective experiences over six months (Hobman et al., 2009; Tepper, 2000).

Research using more immediate assessments of IAR in organizations as it unfolds over time will yield an enhanced understanding of the temporal phenomena of IAR. This may

include insights into how different IAR strategies interact with each other, either when used simultaneously, across time, or when used by different actors. In this context, we encourage future research to more comprehensively and dynamically account for the different elements of the process of IAR—for instance, through the use of social network analysis (Totterdell et al., 2004), state-space grids analysis (Butler et al., 2013), and experience-sampling techniques (Ohly et al., 2010). In sum, future research may build on our overarching framework of IAR to investigate the goal-driven process as it happens.

Research that assesses the changing roles between actors and targets over time will also be important. Niven (2022) suggests that emotion regulation ability changes with age, suggesting that the processes discussed in our paper are subject to change. Research also indicates that individuals assess equity in IAR in terms of the social support provided to targets compared with the social support received from the targets. Individuals who feel their social support is reciprocated by the target report more positive moods at work than those who feel their social support is unreciprocated (Buunk et al., 1993). Thus, the roles of the actor and target likely vary over time, with previous experiences informing future expectations and social exchange. Similarly, the role of by-standers in episodes of IAR needs to be accounted for to understand the implications of IAR strategies for organizations overall (Henkel et al., 2017).

Conclusion

Why and how individuals choose to regulate others' affect in organizations is imperfectly understood. Research has developed in largely separate research silos across disparate organizational literatures, which have not accounted for the possibility that motives for and strategies of IAR depend on the nature of the context. We brought together insights in IAR from separate literatures in an integrative framework that considers how IAR unfolds across three prevalent actor-target configurations in organizations: internal-vertical, internal-

horizontal, and external social role configurations. Our framework suggests that different social roles differentially shape actors' motives for using IAR, IAR strategies used, and affective outcomes of IAR for targets in organizations. In contextualizing IAR within its social roles in organizations, our IAR framework provides a roadmap for future research that can contribute to a more complete understanding of the intricacies of interpersonal affect regulation at work.

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- *Denotes studies using approaches to IAR in organizations (Tables 2–4). ** Denotes exemplar definitions of IAR (see Table 1).
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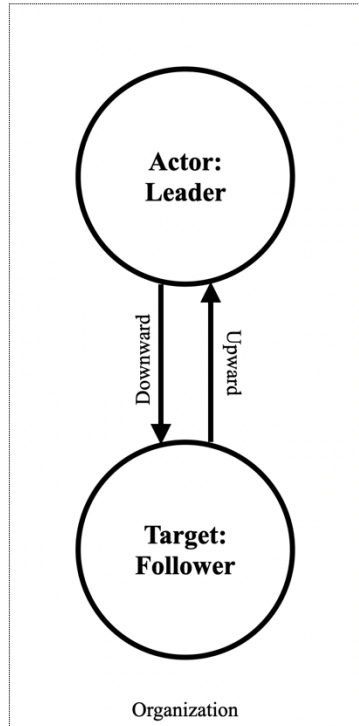
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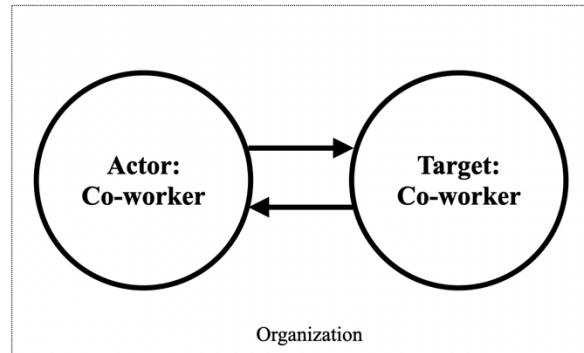
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Figure 1 *Three social role configurations for studying IAR in organizations.*

Internal Vertical IAR in Organizations



Internal Horizontal IAR in Organizations



External IAR in Organizations

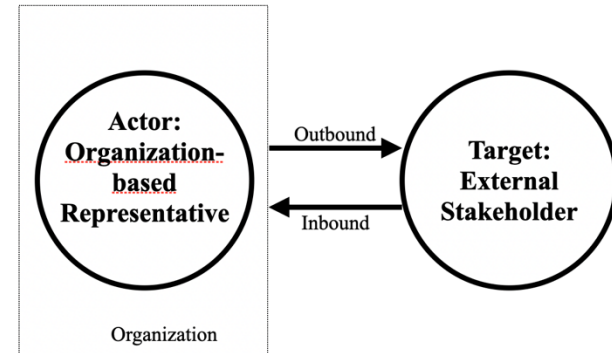


Figure 2 Integrative Model of Interpersonal Affect Regulation in Organizations

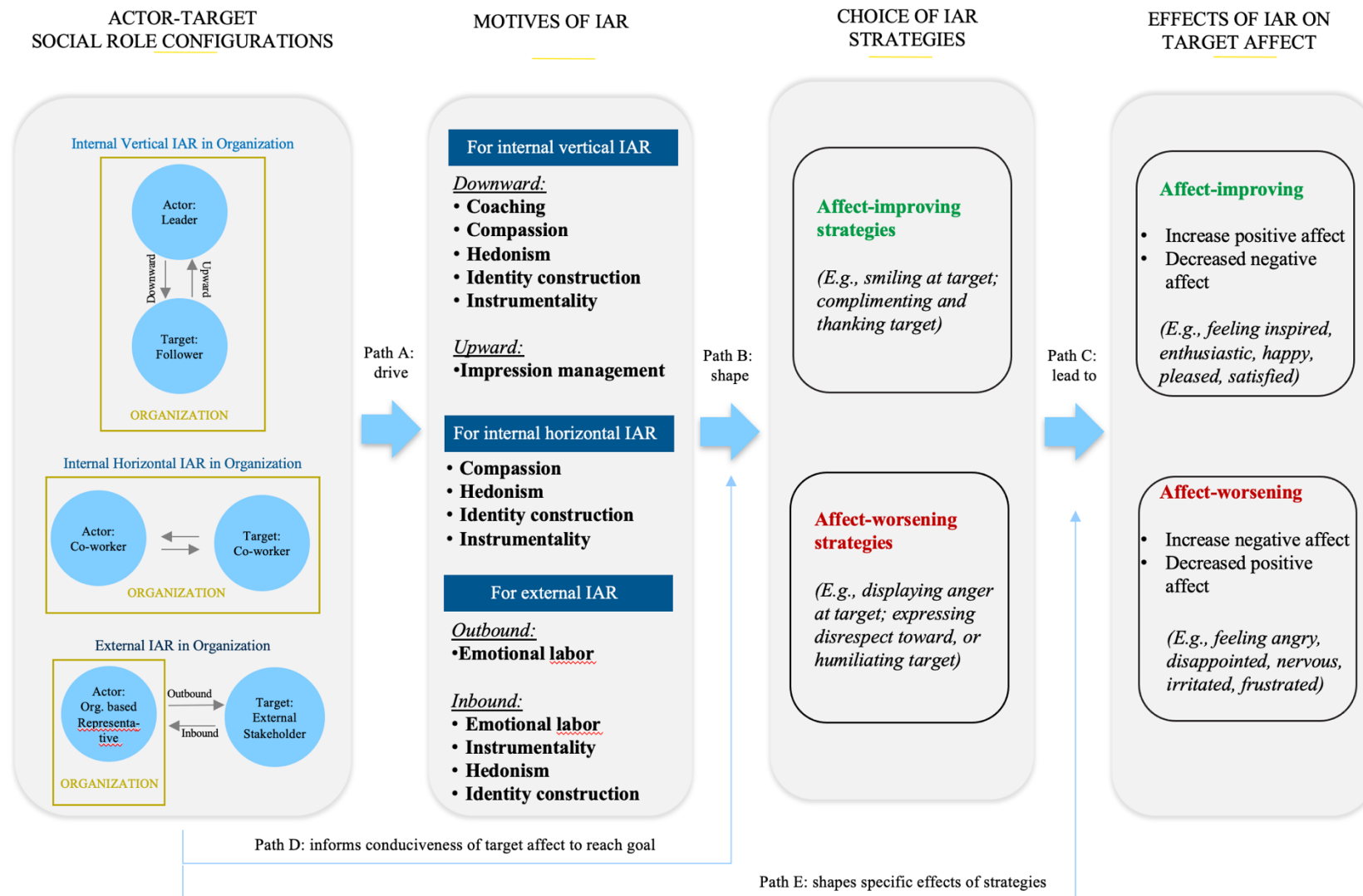


Table 1 Existing Definitions of Interpersonal Affect Regulation and Related Terms

Authors	Definition
Dixon-Gordon et al. (2015)	“We refer to IER [interpersonal emotion regulation] as encompassing processes that are motivated to modify emotional expressions or experiences... [it] focuses .. on .. interpersonal interactions deliberately devoted to influencing one’s own (intrinsic) or others’ (extrinsic) emotions.” (p.36)
Little et al. (2012)	“Interpersonal Emotion Management (IEM) strategies represent behaviours targeted at managing negative emotions in others.” (p. 407)
Lively & Weed (2014)	“We use the term “emotion management” to refer to all acts of emotional regulation, regardless of the setting in which they occur... Interpersonal emotion management is an attempt to bring not one’s own emotions but others’ emotions in line with existing feeling or display rules” (p.203).
Niven et al. (2009)	“Controlled interpersonal affect regulation refers to the deliberate regulation of someone else’s affect.” (p.498). and they referred to IAR more broadly as “interpersonal affect regulation—the process of influencing the internal feeling state(s) of another person” (ibid.). Finally, the authors state “... we use the term to refer to the regulation of emotions and mood states” (ibid.).
Reeck, Ames, & Ochsner (2016)	“The social regulation of emotion refers to one individual (the regulator) deliberately attempting to change the emotional response of another individual (the target)” (p. 47).
Williams (2007)	Interpersonal emotion management [consists of] “actively managing another person’s emotion” (p. 596)
Zaki & Williams (2013)	“By <u>intrinsic interpersonal regulation</u> , we refer to episodes in which an individual initiates social contact in order to regulate his own experience; by <u>extrinsic interpersonal regulation</u> , we refer to episodes in which a person attempts to regulate another person’s emotion.” (p. 804)

Table 2 Evidence on interpersonal affect regulation from a vertical IAR perspective (focusing on higher versus lower ranks)

Actor-target configuration	--- WHY ---	--- HOW ---		--- WHAT ---	Summary of key findings / Study design and sample	Reference
	Indicative IAR Motives	Evidence of IAR strategies		Target affective outcomes		
		Illustrations	Classification			
AFFECT-IMPROVING STRATEGIES						
Leader vs. followers	Coaching	Transformational leadership behaviors ('encouraging followers in stressful situations')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering cognitive meaning of situation)	↑ Positive moods during meetings with the project group (e.g., feeling joyful, happy, optimistic).	Transformational leader behaviors were positively associated with followers' positive moods during meetings with the project group. Quantitative field study; project groups in an academic learning context	Bierhoff & Müller (2005)
Leader vs. followers	Coaching	Transformational leader behaviors ('considering individuals' different needs, abilities and aspirations')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering situation)	↑ Positive moods (e.g., feeling excited, inspired, and enthusiastic).	Transformational leader behaviors were positively associated with activated positive moods (e.g., feeling excited, inspired, and enthusiastic). Quantitative field study; military teams	Boies & Howell (2009)
Leader vs. follower	Coaching	Transformational Leader behaviors ('considering individuals' different needs, abilities and aspirations')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering situation)	↑ Positive moods (e.g., feeling happy, enthusiastic, and optimistic).	Transformational leadership was positively associated with followers' current activated positive moods, while not influencing negative moods at work. Experience-sampling based field study; employees in an ambulatory health care organization	Bono et al. (2007)
Leader vs. followers	Coaching	Positive emotional expressions ('using positive emotions, such as <i>happy</i> and <i>good</i> , when communicating vision to followers')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering situation)	↑ Positive moods (e.g., feeling inspired, enthusiastic)	Leader's positive emotional expressions in speech predicted current activated positive moods in followers. Study 3: Laboratory experiment, lab-based groups	Bono & Ilies (2006)
Leader vs. followers	Coaching	Charismatic leader behaviors ('smiling, positive expressions of affect, direct gaze at target')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering situation)	↑ Expressed positive moods (increased and more frequent smiling)	Leader's charismatic behaviors predicted positive expressions of affect in followers. This effect was reversed when leaders were not perceived to be 'truly' charismatic. Laboratory experiment, lab-based groups	Cherulnik et al. (2001)
Leader vs. follower	Coaching	Leader emotion-evoking positive behaviors ('displaying awareness and respect, engaging in motivating and inspiring behaviors')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering cognitive meaning of situation)	↑ Positive emotions (e.g., feeling happy, comforted) and decreased negative emotions (feeling angry, annoyed)	Leader emotion-evoking positive behaviors akin to concept of transformational leadership were associated with increased positive, and decreased negative, emotions in followers. Qualitative field study; employees across organizations	Dasborough (2006)
Leader vs. followers	Coaching	Transformational leader behaviors ('acting inspirationally toward followers')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering cognitive meaning of situation)	↓ Negative moods (e.g., feeling angry and disappointed)	Transformational leadership was associated with decreased negative emotions in targets, such that negative moods in followers were higher in the low-	De Cremer (2006)

Actor-target configuration	--- WHY ---	--- HOW ---		--- WHAT ---	Summary of key findings / Study design and sample	Reference
	Indicative IAR Motives	Evidence of IAR strategies		Target affective outcomes		
		Illustrations	Classification			
					transformational leadership condition. In addition, the negative effects of procedural justice on negative moods in followers were amplified when leaders displayed high levels of transformational behaviors. Study 2: Laboratory experiment, lab-based groups	
Leader vs. followers	Coaching	Positive (vs. negative) emotional expressions ('I'm really happy to be here' vs. 'I'm not too thrilled about having to do this')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering situation)	↑ Positive moods (e.g., feeling excited, inspired and enthusiastic)	Followers who interacted with a leader who expressed positive emotions experienced significantly higher levels of activated positive moods than those that had interacted with a leader expressing negative emotions. Study 1: Laboratory experiment, lab-based groups	Eberly & Fong (2013)
Leader vs. followers	Coaching	Charismatic behaviors ('transmitting a sense of vision') Positive emotional expressions ('smiling a lot in interaction with target')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering cognitive meaning of situation)	↑ Positive moods (e.g., feeling happy, enthusiastic, excited and pleased)	Leader's charismatic behaviors were associated with higher levels in positive moods in group members. This effect was partially mediated by leader's positive affective expression. S1: Laboratory experiment, lab-based groups; S2: Quantitative field study; firefighters and their leaders	Erez et al. (2008)
Leader vs. followers	Coaching	Authentic leader behaviors ('say exactly what they mean', 'seek feedback to improve interactions with others')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering cognitive meaning of situation)	↑ Positive moods at work (e.g., feeling interested and enthusiastic).	Authentic leader behaviors were positively associated with followers' activated positive moods at work. Quantitative field study; workgroups in a real estate agent company in Taiwan	Hsiung (2012)
Leader vs. followers	Coaching	Leaders' expressions of positive (vs. negative) moods during speech to followers ('positive vs. negative tone of voice')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering situation)	↑ Positive moods (e.g., feeling elated, enthusiastic) and lower negative mood (e.g., feeling distressed, nervous)	Followers watching a speech by a leader expressing positive mood experienced higher levels of activated positive mood and lower levels of activated negative mood than those who had watched a speech by a leader expressing negative mood. Laboratory experiment, lab-based groups	Johnson (2009)
Leader vs. follower	Coaching	Positive leader behaviors ('complimenting, thanking, and praising follower')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering cognitive meaning of situation)	↑ Activated and low-activated positive moods	Positive leader behaviors predicted greater levels of positive moods in followers over and above transformational leader behaviors, while not predicting changes in negative affect. S1: quantitative field study; employees long-term care facility in Canada. S2: experience sampling-based field study, employees in a coffee retailer	Kelloway et al. (2013)

Actor-target configuration	--- WHY ---	--- HOW ---		--- WHAT ---	Summary of key findings / Study design and sample	Reference
	Indicative IAR Motives	Evidence of IAR strategies		Target affective outcomes		
		Illustrations	Classification			
Leader vs. followers	Coaching	Transformational leader behaviors ('stimulates me to rethink the way I do some things')	Antecedent-related: (esp., altering cognitive meaning of situation)	↑ Activated positive emotions toward the leader (e.g., feeling excited, inspired, and enthusiastic)	Transformational leadership behaviors were positively associated with followers' activated positive emotions toward the leader. Quantitative field study; managers of Chinese restaurants in South Korea	Lee et al. (2011)
Leader vs. followers	Coaching	Transformational Leadership ('talking optimistically about the future')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering cognitive meaning of situation)	↑ Positive moods (e.g., feeling calm, enthusiastic, and excited at work)	Transformational leadership was positively associated with followers' positive moods. This positive effect was strengthened when followers were susceptible to positive emotions. Quantitative field study; supervisors and their follower in military context	Liang & Chi (2013)
Leader vs. followers	Coaching	Transformational leader behaviors ('giving me personal attention')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering situation)	↑ Positive moods (e.g., feeling excited) and lower negative moods (feeling irritated, tense)	Transformational leadership was positively associated with followers' positive moods at work and negatively associated with their negative moods. Quantitative field study; sales representatives of a global pharmaceutical firm	McColl-Kennedy & Anderson (2002)
Leader vs. followers	Coaching	Transformational leader behaviors ('showing personal attention')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering situation)	↑ Positive moods (feelings of optimism)	In direct comparison of different leader behaviors, transformational behaviors had the highest probability of increasing followers' feelings of optimism at work and the lowest probability of increasing frustration. Quantitative field study; sales representatives of a global pharmaceutical firm	McColl-Kennedy & Anderson (2005)
Leader vs. followers	Coaching	Transformational leadership behaviors ('giving me personal attention')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering situation)	↑ Positive emotions (e.g., feeling enthusiastic, joyful) and lower negative emotions (e.g., feeling sad, angry)	Transformational leadership was positively associated with eliciting positive emotions in followers, as well as reduced negative emotions. Quantitative field study; musicians in non-profit orchestras	Rowold & Rohmann (2009)
Leader vs. followers	Coaching	Transformational leadership behaviors ('challenges us to think about old problems in new ways')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering cognitive meaning of situation)	↑ Positive moods (feeling happy, excited, enthusiastic) and lower negative moods (e.g., feeling nervous, irritable)	Transformational leader behaviors increased followers' activated positive moods at work during organizational change, while they lessened negative moods. Longitudinal quantitative field study (however, leadership behaviors-affect link investigated at the same time; employees in government agency	Seo et al. (2012)

Actor-target configuration	--- WHY ---	--- HOW ---		--- WHAT ---	Summary of key findings / Study design and sample	Reference
	Indicative IAR Motives	Evidence of IAR strategies		Target affective outcomes		
		Illustrations	Classification			
Leader vs. followers	Coaching	Charismatic behaviors ('transmitting a sense of vision')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering cognitive meaning of situation)	↑ Positive moods (e.g., feeling excited) and lower negative moods (feeling angry, frustrated)	Leader's charismatic behaviors were associated with increased activated positive moods and with decreased negative moods in team members. Longitudinal experimental study; self-managing student groups	Sy et al. (2013)
Leader vs. followers	Coaching	Transformational leader behaviors ('my leader talks about his important values and beliefs with me')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering cognitive meaning of situation)	↑ Positive moods (e.g., feeling happy, pleased, and joyful)	Transformational leader behaviors predicted higher positive moods in followers. Quantitative field study; insurance sales agents and their supervisors	Tsai et al. (2009)
Supervisors vs. co-worker	Compassion	Social support (e.g., 'how often are supervisors warm and friendly when you are troubled about something?')	Antecedent-related (esp. altering situation)	↓ Negative emotions (e.g., feeling anxious)	Social support by co-workers was negatively associated with depression. In addition, social support was negatively associated with feelings of anxiety. Quantitative field study; African American social workers	Gant et al. (1993)
Leader vs. followers	Compassion	Attending to change recipients emotions ('encouraging targets to express a wider range of emotions than had previously been allowed in the organization')	Response-focused (modulating emotional response)	↑ Low-activated positive (and reduced activated negative) moods	Middle-managers engagement in attending to change recipients' emotions to enable them to experience some continuity within a radical change process in the organization was associated with increased positive and reduced negative affect in targets. Qualitative field study; middle managers and their subordinates in a service-providing organization in IT	Huy (2002)
Supervisors vs. newcomers	Compassion	Supervisor support (e.g., providing target with encouragement, listening when target needed to talk)	Antecedent-related (esp., altering situation; altering cognitive meaning of situation)	↑ Positive moods (e.g., ↑ feeling happy; ↓ feeling less irritated, sad)	Initial levels of supervisor support were positively associated with initial levels of newcomer positive moods; an increased in supervisor support was associated with an increased in newcomer positive moods. Weekly self-report survey with professional / administrative university staff	Kammeyer-Mueller et al. (2013)
Leader vs. followers	Compassion	Supportive leader behaviors ('is friendly and approachable')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering situation)	↑ Activated positive emotions toward the leader (e.g., feeling excited, inspired, and enthusiastic).	Supportive leadership behaviors were positively associated with followers' activated positive emotions toward the leader. Quantitative field study; managers of Chinese restaurants in South Korea	Lee et al. (2011)

Actor-target configuration	--- WHY ---	--- HOW ---		--- WHAT ---	Summary of key findings / Study design and sample	Reference
	Indicative IAR Motives	Evidence of IAR strategies		Target affective outcomes		
		Illustrations	Classification			
Leader vs. follower	Compassion	Support ('my supervisor is willing to help me if I need a special favor')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering situation)	↑ Positive emotions in connection with supervisor (e.g., feeling enthusiastic, happy)	Supervisor support predicted higher levels of positive affect in targets (organizational newcomers). Longitudinal, quantitative field study; Organizational newcomers in India-based IT-company	Nifadkar et al. (2012)
Supervisor vs. follower	Compassion	Intimate support (e.g., 'showing that he/she likes target') Instrumental support (e.g., 'giving him/her advice on how to handle things')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering situation-instrumental support; altering cognitive meaning of situation –intimate support)	↓ Feeling less angry and irritated after the exposure to stressful work events	Individuals who received intimate or instrumental support felt less angry and irritated after the exposure to stressful work events, indicating IAR may buffer the effects of external, adverse events on target affect. Quantitative field study; female secretaries at a university	Peeters et al. (1995)
Follower vs. Leader	Impression management	Charismatic behaviors ('talk about their values and beliefs')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering cognitive meaning of situation)	↑ Activated positive emotions (e.g., being around this employee makes me feel happy)	Subordinates' charismatic behaviors were associated with managers increased positive (and decreased negative) feelings toward the subordinate. Quantitative field study; employee- supervisor dyads in an insurance company	Scott et al. (2007)
AFFECT-IMPROVING vs. AFFECT-WORSENING STRATEGIES						
Leader vs. followers	Coaching	Leaders' expressions of activated positive vs. negative moods at work ('feeling excited vs. nervous')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering situation)	↑ Positive moods vs. ↑ Negative moods	School principals' positive and negative expressed mood predicted higher vs. lower levels of positive mood at work in school teachers, particularly if teachers were highly susceptible to emotion contagion. Quantitative field study; school setting	Johnson (2008)
Leader vs. followers	Coaching	Leader's facial expressions of positive affect (happiness/reassurance) vs. negative affect (anger/threat; fear/evasion)	Antecedent-related (esp., altering situation)	↑ Positive moods (e.g., feeling joyful, happy) vs. ↑ negative moods (e.g., feeling angry, fearful)	Leader's expressions of positive vs. negative affect in a speech were associated with corresponding changes of positive vs. negative mood in followers. Laboratory experiment, lab-based groups	McHugo, et al. (1985)
Leader vs. followers	Coaching	Leaders' expressions of positive vs. negative moods during group task	Antecedent-related (esp., altering situation)	↑ Positive moods (feeling excited, enthusiastic) vs. ↑ negative mood (feeling nervous, distressed)	Leader's expressed positive vs. negative mood during team exercise (based on initial mood manipulation) was associated with positive vs. negative mood of individual team members and affective tone of groups. Laboratory experiment, lab-based groups	Sy et al. (2005)
Leader vs. followers	Coaching	Leader's positive affective displays ('speaking with an enthusiastic, upbeat tone of voice, smiling)	Antecedent-focused (esp., altering situation)	↑ Positive emotions (the leader made me feel enthusiastic) (for	Displays of happiness by leader were associated with more positive emotions of team members than were leader's displays of anger.	Van Kleef et al. (2009)

Actor-target configuration	--- WHY ---	--- HOW ---		--- WHAT ---	Summary of key findings / Study design and sample	Reference
	Indicative IAR Motives	Evidence of IAR strategies		Target affective outcomes		
		Illustrations	Classification			
		frequently') vs. negative affective displays ('frowning, speaking with an angry and irritable tone of voice')		positive, rather than negative, affective displays of leader)	Laboratory experiment, lab-based groups	
Leader vs. follower	Coaching	Positive vs. negative emotional expressions during team task ('smiling, looking cheerful, vs. looking glum and depressed')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering situation)	↑ Positive vs. negative emotions ('the leader made me feel happy vs. sad')	Leader's emotional expressions (happy/sad) during task was associated with correspondingly-valenced emotions in followers. Study 2: Quantitative laboratory experiment, laboratory groups	Visser et al. (2013)
Follower vs. Leader	Compassion (vs. Impression management)	Organizational citizenship behaviors ('doing something extra for the organization/ helping others')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering situation)	↑ Feelings of happiness, (vs. feelings of anger)	Followers' displays of organizational citizenship behaviors were positively associated with leader's feelings of happiness, in cases attributed to prosocial values. This effect was reversed when followers' actions were attributed to an impression-management motive (leading to feelings of anger). Quantitative field study; managers across industries	Halbesleben et al. (2010)
Team-members vs. leader	Instrumentality	Positive mood displays ('smiling, displaying open body language') vs. Negative mood displays ('avoiding eye contact, not smiling and exhibiting closed or defensive body language')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering situation)	↑ Positive moods (e.g., feeling excited) vs. ↑ Negative moods (e.g., feeling distressed)	Team members' displays of positive vs. negative moods during team task were associated with leader's subsequent activated positive vs. activated negative moods. Laboratory experiment, lab-based groups	Tee et al. (2013)
AFFECT-WORSENING STRATEGIES						
Leader vs. followers	Coaching	Leaders' expressions of negative affect (anger: 'raising their voice, looking stern'; sadness: 'tearing up, speaking in a quiet, pleading tone of voice').	Antecedent-related (esp., altering situation)	↑ Negative moods (e.g., feeling nervous vs. fatigued) and less positive moods (e.g., relaxedness vs. enthusiasm)	Leaders' expressions of anger were associated with feelings of nervousness in followers; leaders' expressions of sadness predicted greater fatigue. Laboratory experiment, laboratory groups	Lewis (2000)
Leader vs. followers	Hedonism; Identity construction	Punishment ('being critical to followers even when they perform well')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering cognitive meaning of situation)	↑ Negative emotions (e.g., feelings of anger)	Punishment by the leader predicted negative emotional reactions in cadets, particularly, anger. Lagged quantitative field study; cadets in military college	Atwater et al. (1997)
Supervisor vs. subordinate	Hedonism; Identity construction	Destructive feedback ('giving target performance feedback that is inconsiderate in tone and contains threats to target')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering cognitive meaning of situation)	↑ Negative moods (e.g., feeling angry and tense)	Destructive feedback was associated with increased feelings of anger and tension in targets.	Baron (1988)

Actor-target configuration	--- WHY ---	--- HOW ---		--- WHAT ---	Summary of key findings / Study design and sample	Reference
	Indicative IAR Motives	Evidence of IAR strategies		Target affective outcomes		
		Illustrations	Classification			
					Study 1: Quantitative laboratory experiment, lab-based groups	
Supervisor vs. subordinate	Hedonism; Identity construction	Destructive feedback ('giving target performance feedback that is inconsiderate in tone, contains threats, and attributes poor performance to causes internal to target')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering cognitive meaning of situation)	↑ Negative moods (e.g., feeling angry and tense)	Destructive criticism increased negative moods in target. This effect was mitigated by direct apologies of the actor, and or target's efforts to attribute cause to other than actor's harmful intentions. Study 1: Laboratory experiment, lab-based groups	Baron (1990)
Supervisor vs. subordinate	Hedonism; Identity construction	Immoral behaviors (e.g. being lazy, stealing, taking advantage of others) Unjust treatment (e.g. unjust criticism, false accusations)	Antecedent-related (esp., altering situation, altering cognitive meaning of situation)	↑ Feelings of anger toward supervisor	Supervisors elicit anger when behaving immorally or unjustly toward subordinates. Employees across a variety of jobs asked to recall incidents at work that provoked anger	Fitness (2000)
Supervisors vs. subordinate	Hedonism; Identity construction	Undermining (e.g., 'how often are supervisors acting in an unpleasant or angry manner toward you?')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering situation)	↑ Negative emotions (e.g., feeling irritable, anxious, and depressed)	Undermining by supervisors was associated with higher levels of target negative emotions. Quantitative field study; African American social workers	Gant et al. (1993)
Supervisor-subordinate	Hedonism; Identity construction	Incivility toward targets (e.g., being demeaning/rude toward target)	Antecedent-related (esp., altering situation)	↑ Feelings of anger	Supervisors elicit anger when they engage in incivility toward a subordinate. Undergraduate students asked to recall incidents at work that provoked anger	Gianakos (2002)
Project advisor vs. student	Hedonism; Identity construction	Abusive supervision ('putting me down in front of others')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering situation)	↑ Feelings of project-related anxiety	Abusive supervision by advisors predicted higher project-related anxiety in students. This effect was exacerbated when advisor support was high (vs. low). Lagged, quantitative field study; student-advisor pairs	Hobman et al. 2009
Supervisor vs. subordinate	Hedonism; Identity construction	Abusive supervision ('telling target his/her thoughts or feelings are stupid')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering cognitive meaning of situation)	↑ Activated negative moods (e.g., 'feeling distressed, upset,')	Abusive supervision was positively associated with activated negative moods at work. Quantitative field study; full-time workers across industries	Hoobler & Hu (2013)
Supervisors vs. newcomers	Hedonism; Identity construction	Social Undermining (e.g., making target's life difficult, acting in ways that show dislike to target, criticizing target)	Antecedent-related (esp., altering situation; altering cognitive meaning of situation)	Non-significantly associated with newcomers' positive moods	Initial levels of supervisor undermining were not significantly related to lower levels of newcomer positive moods. Weekly self-report survey with professional / administrative university staff	Kammeyer-Mueller et al. (2013)

Actor-target configuration	--- WHY ---	--- HOW ---		--- WHAT ---	Summary of key findings / Study design and sample	Reference
	Indicative IAR Motives	Evidence of IAR strategies		Target affective outcomes		
		Illustrations	Classification			
Supervisor vs. subordinate	Hedonism; Identity construction	Abusive supervision ('ridiculing the target')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering situation)	↑ Activated negative moods (e.g., feeling frustrated, angry and annoyed).	Abusive supervision was positively associate with activated negative moods at work. Quantitative field study; cross-cultural sample of US and South-Korean-based employees	Kernan et al. (2011)
Leader vs. follower	Hedonism; Identity construction	Verbal aggression ('leader shouts at me; makes fun of my ideas')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering cognitive meaning of situation)	↑ Negative emotions in connection with supervisor (e.g., feeling upset, angry)	Verbal aggression by supervisors was positively associated with increased negative affect in newcomers. Longitudinal, quantitative field study; organizational newcomers in India-based IT-company	Nifadkar et al. (2012)
Supervisor vs. subordinate	Hedonism; Identity construction	Incivility ('rudeness, discourteousness, displaying lack of regard')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering situation, altering cognitive meaning of situation)	↑ Experience of negative moods (e.g., feeling disappointed, irritated, hurt, angry)	Workplace incivility is associated with increased experience of negative moods. Mixed-methods study with managers, attorneys and physicians	Pearson et al. (2001)
Supervisor vs. subordinate	Hedonism; Identity construction	Abusive supervision ('giving me the silent treatment')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering situation)	↑ Anxiety-related moods (feeling irritable, feeling afraid for no reason)	Abusive supervision predicted higher levels of anxiety-related moods at work. Lagged, quantitative field study (6 months); working employees in a Midwestern city in the US	Tepper (2000)
Supervisor vs. subordinate	Hedonism; Identity construction	Abusive supervision ('making negative comments about me to others')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering situation)	↑ Anxiety-related moods at work ('feeling afraid for no reason')	Abusive supervision was positively associated with subordinates' anxiety-related moods. This effect was influenced by target's use of relationship-oriented communication with the supervisor. Lagged, quantitative field study (6 months); working employees in a Midwestern city in the US	Tepper et al. (2007)

Note. Evidence is sorted by affect-improving vs. worsening strategies, as well as by motives of IAR. Note that some research investigated both improvement as well as worsening effects of similar strategies– these are listed in the sub-heading of 'affect improving vs. worsening'. ↑ = increases in intensity of feelings; ↓ reductions in intensity of feelings.

Table 3 Evidence on interpersonal affect regulation from a horizontal IAR perspective (focusing on individuals at similar ranks)

Actor-target configuration	--- WHY ---	--- HOW ---		--- WHAT ---	Summary of key findings / Study design and sample	Reference
	Indicative IAR Motives	Evidence of IAR strategies		Target affective outcomes		
		Illustrations	Classification			
AFFECT-IMPROVING STRATEGIES						
Team members vs. co-worker	Compassion	Social support ('behaving warm and friendly, actively listening, showing approval to target')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering situation; altering cognitive meaning of situation)	↓ Less negative emotions (e.g., feeling depressed and emotionally exhausted)	Social support by co-workers was associated with decreased levels of target negative emotions. Quantitative field study; African American social workers	Gant et al. (1993)
Co-worker vs. co-worker	Compassion	Co-worker support ('helping, giving advice to target')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering situation; altering cognitive meaning of situation)	↓ Less negative moods (e.g., feeling upset, nervous, scared, distressed)	Co-worker support was associated with lower experiences of negative moods. 3 daily self-report surveys over 10 days with university staff	Ilies et al. (2011)
Co-worker vs. co-worker	Compassion	Co-worker support ('providing target with encouragement, listening when target needed to talk')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering situation; altering cognitive meaning of situation)	↑ Positive moods (e.g., feeling happy; feeling less irritated, sad)	Initial levels of co-worker support were positively associated with initial levels of newcomer positive moods. Weekly self-report survey with professional university staff	Kammeyer-Mueller et al. (2013)
Co-worker vs. co-worker	Compassion	Affect-improving strategies ('complimenting, joking, listening to target's problems')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering situation; altering attention; altering cognitive meaning of situation)	↑ Positive feelings (e.g., feeling enthusiastic and calm)	Affect-improving strategies were associated with targets' positive feelings. Study 2: 2 surveys administered 1 month apart with matching between staff, security and prisoners from prison	Niven et al. (2012)
Co-worker vs. co-worker	Compassion	Intimate support ('showing that he/she likes target') Instrumental support ('giving target advice on how to handle things')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering situation-instrumental support; altering cognitive meaning of situation –intimate support)	↓ Feeling less angry and irritated	Individuals who received intimate or instrumental support felt less angry and irritated after exposure to stressful work events, indicating IAR may buffer the effects of external, adversarial events on target affect. Quantitative field study; secretaries at a university	Peeters et al. (1995)
AFFECT-IMPROVING vs. AFFECT-WORSENING STRATEGIES						
Co-worker vs. team members	Conformity; Instrumentality	Nonverbal displays of pleasant ('cheerful, enthusiastic, warm') vs. unpleasant ('hostile, frustrated, anxious, irritable') affect	Antecedent-related (esp., altering situation)	↑ Positive moods (e.g., feeling happy, optimistic, warm) ↑ Negative moods (e.g., feeling sad, unhappy, pessimistic)	Confederate displays of positive (vs. negative) affect increased team members' positive (vs. negative) affect (both self-report and coded displays). Laboratory experiment, lab-based groups. University student self-report survey and coding	Barsade (2002)

Actor-target configuration	--- WHY ---	--- HOW ---		--- WHAT ---	Summary of key findings / Study design and sample	Reference
	Indicative IAR Motives	Evidence of IAR strategies		Target affective outcomes		
		Illustrations	Classification			
Co-worker vs. team members	Instrumentality	Expressing happiness ('I enjoy doing business with you') vs. anger ('your offer is making me angry')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering situation)	<p>↑ Positive moods (e.g., feeling determined, strong, proud)</p> <p>↑ Negative moods (e.g., feeling scared, nervous, irritable)</p>	<p>Confederate's text-based expressions of happiness (vs. anger) increased team-members' experiences of positive (vs. negative) mood, team feelings of happiness (vs. anger), and the number of positive (vs. negative) messages sent by team members.</p> <p>Laboratory experiment, lab-based groups. University student self-report survey and coding</p>	Cheshin et al. (2011)
AFFECT-WORSENING STRATEGIES						
Team members vs. team members	Hedonism; Identity construction	Team relationship conflict ('emotional conflict between team members')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering situation)	<p>↑ Tension climate (feeling tense, jittery, anxious)</p> <p>↓ Decreased enthusiasm (feeling less cheerful, enthusiastic)</p>	<p>Relationship conflict on the team-level was positively associated with tension climate and negatively associated with enthusiasm climate in team.</p> <p>2 self-report surveys, 6-month interval, with bank employees</p>	Gamero et al. (2008)
Team members vs. co-worker	Hedonism; Identity construction	Undermining ('acting in an unpleasant or angry manner toward target')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering situation)	↑ Negative emotions (e.g., feeling irritable, anxious, and depressed)	<p>Undermining by team members was associated with higher levels of a co-worker's negative emotions.</p> <p>Quantitative field study; African American social workers</p>	Gant et al. (1993)
Co-worker vs. co-worker	Hedonism; Identity construction	Incivility toward targets ('gossiping, being rude and unpleasant toward target')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering situation, altering cognitive meaning of situation)	↑ Feelings of anger	<p>Co-workers elicited feelings of anger when they engaged in incivility toward a co-worker.</p> <p>Analysis of critical incidents that provoked anger</p>	Gianakos (2002)
Team members vs. team members	Hedonism; Identity construction	<p>Personal attacks ('purposeful attacks on sense of target's sense of self')</p> <p>Incivility ('behaving inconsiderately toward target')</p>	Antecedent-focused (esp., altering situation)	↑ Feelings of anger	<p>Team members' personal attacks and displays of incivility increased the experience of anger in co-workers.</p> <p>Undergraduate students, diary study</p>	Grandey et al. (2002)
Co-worker vs. co-worker	Hedonism; Identity construction	Interpersonal conflict ('taking jabs at co-workers')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering situation)	↑ Negative moods (e.g., feeling upset, nervous)	<p>Interpersonal conflict predicted negative moods in co-workers.</p> <p>3 daily surveys over 10 days with university staff</p>	Ilies et al. (2011)

Actor-target configuration	--- WHY ---	--- HOW ---	--- WHAT ---	Summary of key findings / Study design and sample	Reference	
	Indicative IAR Motives	Evidence of IAR strategies				Target affective outcomes
		Illustrations	Classification			
Co-worker vs. co-worker	Hedonism; Identity construction	Undermining ('making target's life difficult; showing disliking, criticizing target')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering situation)	↓ Positive moods (e.g. feeling less happy; feeling more irritated, sad)	Initial levels of co-worker undermining were negatively associated with initial levels of newcomer positive moods. Weekly self-report survey with professional / administrative university staff	Kammeyer-Mueller et al. (2013)
Team members vs. team members	Hedonism; Identity construction	Relationship conflict ('one party frequently undermines the other')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering situation)	↓ Less positive moods (feeling calm, enthusiastic, contented)	Relationship conflict was associated with decreased positive moods in team members. Self-report survey with hotel staff	Medina et al. (2005)
Co-worker vs. co-worker	Hedonism; Identity construction	Incivility ('being rude and discourteous, displaying lack of regard')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering situation, altering cognitive meaning of situation)	↑ Experience of negative moods (e.g., feeling disappointed, irritated, hurt, angry)	Workplace incivility is associated with increased experience of negative moods in co-worker. Mixed-methods study with managers, attorneys and physicians	Pearson et al. (2001)
Team members vs. team members	Hedonism; Identity construction	Team relationship conflict ('directing arguments toward other people in the team')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering situation)	↓ Positive affective tone (observer-rated; very negative to very positive)	Relationship conflict was associated with poorer affective tone in team. Laboratory experiment, lab-based medical groups. Self-report surveys and coders	Sessa (1996)
Co-worker vs. co-worker	Hedonism; Identity construction; Instrumentality	Immoral behaviors ('being lazy, dishonest, lying, taking advantage of target') Unjust treatment ('engaging in unjust criticism, false accusations toward target')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering situation, altering cognitive meaning of situation)	↑ Feelings of anger toward actor	Co-workers' engagement in behaving immorally or engaging in unjust treatment prompted feelings of anger in co-worker. Employees across a variety of jobs asked to recall incidents at work that provoked anger in semi-structured interviews by university students	Fitness (2000)
Team members vs. team members	Hedonism; Instrumentality	Dysfunctional team behaviors ('hindering change and innovation, weakening others in the team')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering situation)	↑ Team negative affective tone (e.g., feeling angry, anxious)	Dysfunction team behaviors predicted negative team affective tone. Cross-sectional survey of manufacturing work teams	Cole et al. (2008)

Note. Evidence is sorted by affect-improving vs. worsening strategies, as well as by motives of IAR. Note that some research investigated both improvement as well as worsening effects of similar strategies— these are listed in the sub-heading of 'affect improving vs. worsening'. ↑ = increases in intensity of feelings; ↓ reductions in intensity of feelings.

Table 4 Evidence on interpersonal affect regulation from an external perspective (focusing on internal vs. external organizational members)

Actor-target configuration	--- WHY ---	--- HOW ---		--- WHAT ---	Summary of key findings / Study design and sample	Reference
	Indicative IAR Motives	Evidence of IAR strategies		Target affective outcomes		
		Illustrations	Classification			
AFFECT-IMPROVING STRATEGIES						
Employee vs. customer	Compassion	Enactment of comedic performances based on positive displays toward patients ('using humor toward target')	Antecedent-focused (esp., altering situation)	↑ Positive emotions (e.g., feeling joyful, comforted')	Physicians enacted comedic performances toward patients during treatment process, which led to positive affective responses and reduced negative emotions. Ethnographic study involving participant observation, and interviews with employees and customers	Locke (1996)
Employee vs. customer	Emotional labor	Expressing positive emotions toward customer with high authenticity, via deep acting ('feeling required emotions') vs. low authenticity, via surface acting ('pretending to have emotions') toward target	Antecedent-focused (esp., altering situation)	↑ Positive emotions (e.g., feeling elated, enthusiastic, excited)	Authenticity of employees' emotional labor display increased customers' positive emotions. Extent of employee smiling did not influence customer emotions. Laboratory experiment, lab-based groups'. Student participants in simulated employee-customer dyads	Hennig-Thurau et al. (2006)
Employee vs. customer and customer vs. employee	Emotional labor	Inauthentic positive affective display ('fake a good mood') and authentic positive affective display ('try to actually experience the emotions I must show') of employees Customers' positive affective display ('smiling, thanking target')	Antecedent-focused (esp., altering situation)	↑ Display of positive emotions (e.g., smiling)	Employee displays of positive emotions were associated with increased customer evaluations. Both customer and employee positive displays demonstrate reciprocal impact on positive service evaluation. Dyadic data from employees and customers collected through observation of emotional displays and self-report measures after service delivery	Medler-Liraz (2016)
Employee vs. customer	Emotional labor	Display of positive emotions ('smiling, thanking, attentiveness, pleasantness toward customer')	Antecedent-focused (esp., altering situation)	↑ Feeling satisfied (e.g., satisfied with the level of friendliness)	Employee displays of positive emotions were associated with increased customer satisfaction. Observation as well as survey with customers	Tan et al. (2004)
Employee vs. customer	Emotional labor	Expressing positive emotions toward customers ('smiling, thanking customer')	Antecedent-focused (esp., altering situation)	↑ Feeling satisfied (e.g., provides service in a friendly manner, treating me nicely)	Employee displays of positive emotions were associated with increased customer evaluations (incl. satisfaction). Observation as well as survey with customers	Tsai & Huang (2002)
Employee vs. customer	Emotional labor	Expressing positive affect with high authenticity, via deep acting ('trying to actually experience the (positive) emotions that I must show to customers')	Antecedent-focused (esp., altering situation)	↑ Positive emotions (e.g., feeling satisfied)	Employee deep acting was associated with increased customer satisfaction. No association with employee positive affective display. Survey of customer and service employee dyad	Hur et al. (2015)

Actor-target configuration	--- WHY ---	--- HOW ---		--- WHAT ---	Summary of key findings / Study design and sample	Reference
	Indicative IAR Motives	Evidence of IAR strategies		Target affective outcomes		
		Illustrations	Classification			
Employee vs. customer	Emotional labor	Inauthentic positive affective display toward customer ('suppressing expression of irritation, anger, contempt toward target')	Antecedent-related (esp., altering situation)	↑ Feeling satisfied (e.g., I like this service experience)	Suppressed negative emotions were associated with poorer customer service satisfaction depending on the service context (e.g., personalization of service). Employee-customer dyad survey	Wang & Groth (2014)
AFFECT-IMPROVING vs. AFFECT-WORSENING STRATEGIES						
Employee vs. customer	Emotional labor; Instrumentality	Problem-focused coping ('trying to remove the negative impact on the customer, told the customer to keep things in perspective') Emotion-focused coping ('changing the subject to something more positive, asking the customer to lower his/her voice or not to speak in a particular tone')	Antecedent-focused (esp., altering situation, attentional deployment and cognitive meaning of situation) and response-focused (modulating emotional response)	Problem-focused coping: ↓ customer negative tone of voice Emotion-focused coping: ↑ customer negative tone of voice	When customer service representatives dealt with negative customers, problem-focused strategies were associated with less negative customer tone of voice; emotion-focused strategies were associated with increased customers' negative tone of voice. Analysis of phone call recordings rated by coders	Little et al. (2013)
Employee vs. customer	Emotional labor	Acting with low authenticity via surface acting ('putting on an act') Acting with high authenticity via deep acting ('try to experience the emotions that I must show')	Antecedent-focused (esp., altering situation)	↑ Coded hostility (0 = no hostility; 1 = displayed hostility)	Employee inauthentic positive affective display was associated with increased coder perceptions of customer hostility. Survey of call service attendants with coded interactions	Medler-Liraz & Seger-Guttmann (2015)
Customer vs. employee	Hedonism; Instrumentality	Positive affective display ('calm, friendly, cheerful') vs. negative affective display ('upset, rude, insulting, frustrated')	Antecedent-focused (esp., altering situation)	Negative affective expression: ↑ employee activated negative emotions (upset, irritable) ↓ employee activated positive emotions (cheerful, friendly)	Customer positive (negative) affective displays were associated with increased positive (negative) emotions in employees. Experience sampling surveys with call center employees	Rothbard & Wilk (2011)
Customer vs. employee	Hedonism; Instrumentality	Customer fairness: reciprocating friendliness and warmth toward target; vs. unfairness: unfairly accusing the target of being slow and lazy, behaving impolite toward target	Antecedent-focused (esp., altering situation)	Customer interactional injustice ↑ feelings of anger ↓ feelings of happiness	Unfairly treated participants playing the role of employees experienced more anger and less happiness. Laboratory experiment, lab-based groups. University students playing the role of call center representative interacting with research confederate in the role of a customer	Rupp & Spencer (2006)

Actor-target configuration	--- WHY ---	--- HOW ---		--- WHAT ---	Summary of key findings / Study design and sample	Reference
	Indicative IAR Motives	Evidence of IAR strategies		Target affective outcomes		
		Illustrations	Classification			
AFFECT-WORSENING STRATEGIES						
Customer vs. employee	Hedonism; Identity construction	Customer entitlement ('demonstrating one is better than target, expecting special treatment from target')	Antecedent-focused (esp., altering situation)	↑ Negative emotions (e.g. feeling distressed, upset, irritable, nervous)	Participants reported physiological arousal and negative emotions dealing with entitled customers. Qualitative analysis of open-ended inquiry of employees	Fisk & Neville (2011)
Customer vs. employees	Hedonism; Instrumentality	Interpersonal mistreatment by customers, such as incivility ('customers made insulting comments')	Antecedent-focused (esp., altering situation)	↑ Psychological distress (e.g., feeling depressed)	Interpersonal mistreatment of employees by customers led to psychological distress, although the relationship was partly mediated by employee positive affective display. Two surveys of employees across two different studies	Adams & Webster (2013)
Customer vs. employee	Hedonism; Instrumentality	Communicating disproportionate expectations, being verbally aggressive	Antecedent-focused (esp., altering situation)	↑ Negative emotions (e.g., feeling distressed, nervous, afraid)	Customer incivility elicited changes in service providers' negative emotions. Service organization employees, diary surveys methodology	Dudenhöffer & Dormann (2013)
Customer vs. employee	Hedonism; Instrumentality	Personal attacks ('purposeful attacks on sense of target's sense of self') Incivility ('slighted or ignored the employee')	Antecedent-focused (esp., altering situation)	↑ Feelings of anger	Personal attacks and incivility from customers were a frequent cause of anger in employees. Undergraduate students, diary study	Grandey et al. (2002)
Customer vs. employee	Hedonism; Instrumentality	Social conflict ('criticizing, being unfriendly to target')	Antecedent-focused (esp., altering situation)	↑ Negative mood (e.g., feeling nervous, distressed, scared)	Social conflict with customers was related to employee negative moods after work Daily experience sampling surveys with civil service agencies over five days	Volmer et al. (2012)
Customer vs. employee	Hedonism; Instrumentality	Interpersonal injustice ('treating target with disrespect and in an impolite manner')	Antecedent-focused (esp., altering situation)	↑ Negative emotions (e.g., feeling angry, annoyed, anxious)	Interpersonal injustice was associated with more daily experienced negative emotions. On-line daily diary survey	Yang & Diefendorff, (2009)
Negotiator vs. negotiator	Instrumentality	Displaying anger or disappointment ('this is unpleasant. I am really disappointed') regarding target's earlier bargaining statements	Antecedent-focused (esp., altering situation)	↑ Feelings of guilt	Expressing disappointment of one negotiation partner led to increased guilt in the other partner and better negotiation outcomes, but this relationship was dependent on group membership and type of negotiation Four laboratory experiments, lab-based groups'. Student dyads as negotiators	Lelieveld et al. (2013)

Note. Evidence is sorted by affect-improving vs. worsening strategies, as well as by motives of IAR. Note that some research investigated both improvement as well as worsening effects of similar strategies— these are listed in the sub-heading of 'affect improving vs. worsening'. ↑ = increases in intensity of feelings; ↓ reductions in intensity of feelings.

Appendix: Method of Review

Databases, Journals and Keywords used in Search

We retrieved evidence from leading peer-reviewed publications specializing in topics related to organizational research, focusing on key databases in psychology (*PsycInfo*) and management (*Business Source Complete*). The journals included in our search were: Academy of Management Journal, Administrative Science Quarterly, Applied Psychology: An International Review, Career Development Quarterly, Cross Cultural Management, European Journal of Social Psychology, European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, Human Relations, International Journal of Hospitality Management, International Journal of Human Resource Management, Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, Journal of Applied Psychology, Journal of Applied Social Psychology, Journal of Business & Psychology, Journal of Business Ethics, Journal of Business Research, Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, Journal of Managerial Psychology Journal of Marketing, Journal of Occupational & Organizational Psychology, Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, Journal of Organizational Behavior, Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, Journal of Service Research, Journal of Services Marketing, Leadership Quarterly, Military Psychology, Motivation and Emotion, Nonprofit Management and Leadership, Organization Science, Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, Personnel Psychology, Services Marketing Quarterly, and Social Work.

We searched for publications that explicitly used the term “interpersonal affect/mood/emotion regulation.” as well as for publications that focused on related terms such as “emotion management,” “emotion work,” “emotional labor,” or “affect/mood/emotion contagion.” In addition, we identified research not explicitly using these search terms that nonetheless fell within the scope of our review. These studies

included work that empirically assessed affective experiences (“emotions/mood/affect”) in the context of actor-target dynamics in organizations.

Coding of Articles and Search Exclusions

We codified each article to identify the *why* (motives of IAR), *how* (the choice of different types of strategies) and *what* (effectiveness of these strategies in regulating target affect) of IAR. Next, we categorized articles according to their distinct actor-target relationship to capture *when* IAR occurs: *internal vertical* IAR, *internal horizontal* IAR, and *external* IAR. We also coded whether the IAR involves only one or multiple actors and one or multiple targets, respectively (coded as either *one-one*, *one-many*, *many-one*, or *many-many*).

We excluded any computer-based manipulations that replaced the role of a motivated human actor (e.g., Damen et al., 2008; Giumetti et al., 2013; Koning & Van Kleef, 2015). However, we retained papers that used trained confederate actors as these individuals were trained to undertake a specific social role, for instance of a leader (e.g., Eberly & Fong, 2013; Van Kleef et al., 2009), and meant to simulate real-life situations (Lord et al., 1984). In addition, in line with the core definition of IAR (i.e., aiming to cause affective change in targets), we only retained papers that empirically measured affective change in one or more social targets as a consequence of actors’ actions or behaviors toward the target. Specifically, we only included research that focused on actors’ actions or behaviors that were theoretically underpinned by an intention to regulate target affect. Because actors’ motives are typically theorized, rather than explicitly assessed, we coded each paper based on its theorized rationale and the social roles in which actors engaged in behaviors that changed target affect. Finally, we focused on IAR in organizational settings or settings that could be meaningfully generalized to organizations. Overall, our literature search and coding yielded 70 relevant articles on IAR in organizations.