A Day in the Life of Younger and Older workers: An Investigation of the Salience of Daily Events

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Resumo

Neste estudo a Teoria dos Eventos Afetivos, a Teoria da Seleção Socioemocional e da Abordagem de Processamento de Informação Social foram utilizadas para perceber as diferentes saliências presentes nos trabalhadores.

A Teoria dos Eventos Afetivos contribui com a sua macroestrutura e com a metodologia de estudo dos diários. A Teoria da Seleção Socioemotional contribui para perceber as diferenças entre trabalhadores mais velhos e mais novos e as diferentes motivações para uma interacção social. Devido a estas diferentes motivações que causam uma saliência na forma como se vê a interacção com os outros. A Abordagem do Processamento Social da Informação contribui com o peso que dá ao contexto e consequentemente à saliência contextual em que algo distinto chama a atenção.

Os resultados revelam que os mais velhos relatam mais emoções positivas de baixa activação em associação com eventos sociais diários. O apoio de colegas e managers está positivamente associado a eventos sociais confirmando a macroestrutura da Teoria dos Eventos Afetivos. Finalmente, o apoio dos managers está associado a emoções negativas de baixa activação, podendo por exemplo querer dizer que tem menos eventos depressivos. A moderação demonstra que para os trabalhadores mais velhos o apoio de managers não desperta emoções positivas e de alta activação associadas a eventos sociais. Limitações, implicações práticas e teóricas são discutidas.
Abstract

In this study the Affective Events theory, Socioemotional selectivity theory, and social information processing approach are used to understand differences in saliency in the workers.

Affective Events Theory contributes with its macrostructure and methodology of study. Socioemotional Selectivity Theory contributes to confirm the differences in younger and older adults in the motivation for social interaction that creates a saliency for generative motives for older adults. And Social Information Processing Approach contributes with the importance given to the context and contextual saliency, where something distinct stands out from the background.

The results reveal that allied with, low activation positive emotions, social events are predicted by age; managerial and colleague support are positively associated with social events and confirm AET macro-structure. And social events associated with low activation negative emotions are predicted by managerial support. A moderation is significant and shows a negative relationship for older workers when moderating managerial support and social events associated with high activation positive emotions. Meaning that older workers don’t experience happiness associated with social events (for example) when they receive managerial support. Limitations, practical and theoretic implications are discussed.
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Glossary

AET – Affective Events Theory
SST – Socioemotional Selectivity Theory
SIP – Social Information Processing Approach
HAPA – High Activation Pleasant Affect
LAPA – Low Activation Pleasant Affect
HAUA – High Activation Unpleasant Affect
LAUA – Low Activation Unpleasant Affect
Chapter I – Introduction

The population is aging and older people have a choice “to work or not to work”. According to Dawn Alley and Eileen Crimmins (2007) the aging of the population has two indicators: high life expectancy and low fertility rates (below replacement rates - that is 2.1). For this reason we will look at life expectancy rates and fertility rates in both in European Union and in Portugal.

The population is living longer. According to EUROSTAT data in 2012 the life expectancy at birth in the European Union, for females, was 83.1 and for Males was 77.5 and the tendency is to increase. In Portugal, also in 2012, the life expectancy for Males was 77.3 and for Females was 83.6. The life expectancy tendency is also increasing in this country. In 1960 the average life expectancy was of 61.1 in Males and 66.7 for females. As you can observe the life expectancy has been growing. Also according to the EUROSTAT, the fertility rates in the European Union indicate a 1.58 rate in 2012. In Portugal, there has been a decrease from 1.35 (2011) to 1.28 (2012). Both the European Union fertility rate and the Portuguese fertility rates are well below the replacement rate of 2.1. This means that the young population is decreasing and there are less young people than there were before.

Therefore if the population is living longer and the fertility rates are well below the replacement rate, there will be an age pyramid inversion, meaning that the cohorts of younger ages are smaller than those of older ages. But what does this mean to the labor force? It means that there is an older labor force. For example, the percentage of employment of older workers (aged 60-64) has increased both in the European Union (10%) and in OECD countries (5%) in the last 10 years. This is because the retirement age is increasing due to social security policies (in OECD countries it is now around 65). But does this also mean older people are retiring at the indicated age or after? According to OECD data the effective age of retirement tendency across OECD is below official age of retirement nevertheless this trend is flattening out and in some cases it even upturns. This means that it’s not only the population ageing but the labor force is also ageing. Therefore managing age diversity is important nowadays.

Social support is important to the well-being of the staff (Beehr, 1985; Fisher, 1985, Lim, 1997 in Ng and Sorensen, 2008) for this reason it is important to know the differences between managerial support and colleague support and exactly how it influences events. According with the Affect Events Theory events are important because context has a large
impact on behavior and attitudes of the workers (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996). For this reason and for practical implications it is important to study how older workers report social events. This is important given the increase in European Union of workers age, again how exactly older workers differentiate from younger workers in this aspect is unknown and could imply practical differences.
2.1. Differences between younger and older

*Interpersonal, emotion and affect*

The “positivity effect” consists in a general tendency to experience positive affect and emotions once a person has reached an older age. The effect is present when they experience more positive emotions and report less emotional intensity (Gross, Cartensen, Pasupathi, Tsai, Skorpen, and Hsu, 1997).

In accordance with this effect it would be expected a significant difference between negative and positive affect when they are asked to recall and recognize positive and negative images. This is what happened in the Charles, Mather, and Cartensen (2003) study. In the first study, they divided the participants in three age groups: Younger Adults; Middle Aged Adults; and Older Adults and showed 32 images (with 2s interval in random order) divided in positive images, negative images, and neutral images. Older participants did recall, overall, fewer images. In contrast, it did show significant differences between positive and negative images in both middle-aged adults and older adults, while younger didn’t show any significant difference. This study suggests that older and middle-aged recall events through a “positive filter”, this could mean a difference in the importance given to the positive affect that could be attributed later, since this effect was not shown in the second study with attentional processes. This study shows that indeed older people experience more positive emotions.

A longitudinal study by Charles, Reynolds and Gatz (2001) that crossed four generations, also confirmed the age differences in affect valence with people of various ages decreasing the reports of negative affect over time. In emotions this tendency was also verified in Gross et al (1997) scientific article that included 4 studies. This study demonstrated that as people age they tend to exhibit increased emotional control, there were inconsistent results for positive and negative expressions but this lack of significance might be due to the lack of expressivity shown by Chinese-Americans participants in this study. These 4 studies did demonstrate that although the “positivity effect” isn’t universal for emotion expressivity (because of Chinese-Americans participants) it does indicate to be universal for increased emotional control, reduced subjective experience of anger, sadness,
and fear and increased experience of happiness. There are three models that could be attributed to these data (Gross et al, 1997):

- **Environmental Change Model** - These differences are due to sudden changes in the life of older people when entering in retirement, meaning that leaving work would lead to less negative emotions. Since the “positivity effect” is also demonstrated in nuns (that don’t experience retirement) this explanation doesn’t seem to account for the data.

- **Maturational Change Model** – These differences are due to physiological differences that lead to a diminish in the strength of emotion. Following this model it would be expected that both positive and negative emotions would diminish although that is the case for some studies (Levenson, Cartensen, Friesen and Ekman, 1991) it isn’t in some studies.

- **Emotional Control Model** – Due to more emotional control, older people demonstrate a decrease in negative experiences and it would maintain or increase the positive emotional experience. This Model is supported by a number of studies (Charles et al, 2001; Gross et al, 1997; Charles et al, 2003).

These differences in findings suggest that both models (maturational and emotional control) account for the differences. If there is a decrease in emotions (Charles et al, 2003; Levenson et al, 1991) it is also true that older people report more positive emotions in comparison with younger adults (Charles et al, 2001; Charles et al, 2003; Gross et al, 1997; Birditt et al, 2003).

So, if the positivity effect is demonstrated in affect what role does age play in the description of emotions to interpersonal tensions? Birditt and Fingerman (2003) predicted that people with lower quality social ties would describe more anger, more aversive reactions and of longer duration, in those relationships. What they found was that older people reported less distress in interpersonal problems than younger adults. This might be because they have more emotionally close relationships and positively regarded relationships.

Another difference between younger and older adults in interpersonal matters is present in the study by Li, Fok and Fung (2011) where older adults report more satisfaction with over-benefited friendships while younger adults reported more satisfaction with reciprocal friendships meaning that older adults differ from the equity rule.
**Motivation**

There is a change in motivation as we age. Because “when time is limited – a perception strongly associated with chronological age – emotionally meaningful goals are more likely to be pursued than goals aimed at gaining new information” (Kennedy, Mather and Cartensen, 2004) (p.1), therefore if older people have a limited time perception (because they are closer to death), they will tend to seek more emotional related motives in a satisfying manner. For example, in the study of Kennedy and Colleagues (2004) older people remembered the events of their life as being more positive than when they evaluated in a questionnaire 14 years earlier demonstrating a clear positivity effect.

But older people, besides being more motivated by emotions and demonstrating the positivity effect, they also tend to be more social. According with Kanfer and Ackerman (2004) older people tend to have more generative motives as for example, caring, parenting, and helping society and future generations (Kanfer and Ackerman, 2004). According to research and theory besides the positivity effect, and better emotional control strategies than younger people (as we’ve mentioned before) they also prefer more generative motives where they take care and guide others. This suggests that older workers could react better to more cooperative managerial styles than competitive ones (Kanfer and Ackerman, 2004).

Concluding, because older people are more emotionally-oriented, they demonstrate the positivity effect and they also tend to be more cooperative and social (generative motives). These results can mean that older people want to better regulate their emotions to deal with the loss of time and so re-arrange their motives.

**Job Attitudes**

In agreement with the “positivity effect” and the studies we’ve mentioned until now, Ng and Feldman (2010) reported, in a meta-analysis, that older workers have more favorable job attitudes. Specifically, tenure and gender moderate the relationship between age and satisfaction with co-workers and, also, satisfaction with supervisors.

There are 3 categories of Job Attitudes:

- Task-based Attitudes – “are summary evaluations of the job tasks and role duties, which employees perform”
- People-based Attitudes – “are summary evaluations of other individuals and groups in their social environment and at work”
- Organization-based Attitudes – “are summary evaluations of the employer or the employment relationship” (Ng an Feldman, 2010) (p.680)

In support of the theory, and previous studies mentioned, there is a difference between younger and older workers on task-based attitudes and people-based attitudes with older people showing more people-based attitudes. Also in support of this finding might be a study made by Bal, Lange, Jansen and Vekle (2013) that reports that older workers are more committed and have more trust but also report less job satisfaction when a contract is breached by the company. The Alternatively, Barnes-Farrel and Mathews (2007) believe that the theory of older workers having more favorable attitudes toward their jobs is an oversimplification of the roles of age. They support that it might be to a lowering of expectations or aspirations, meaning that if older workers have lower expectations it would be easier to satisfy this expectations. However if this was true wouldn’t dissatisfaction with promotions be lower than that of younger workers? Research does not support this hypothesis (Ng and Feldman, 2010).

Therefore, older workers show the “positivity effect” even in job attitudes and also the generative motives lead to more people-based attitudes.

**Behaviors**

Cohn, Macfarlane, Imai and Yanez (1995) found that parents had greater optimism than their sons (adolescents) which supports the positivity effect. These results go against the belief that adolescents manifest risky behaviors because they are more optimistic of the results of their risky behaviors. This long-held belief, although not supported by the empiric evidences, comes from the Greek ancient times with Aristotle. Could this optimism in older people be the result of a change in emotional, interpersonal, motives, and attitudes? According to theory can be due a change from knowledge seeking behavior that can be risky, to emotional seeking behavior. Therefore, in this study parents are more optimistic and have less risky behaviors because they have more emotion-related motives. So, the fact that optimism is greater in the parents and risky behavior is greater in adolescents can make sense.

Because older workers experience the “positivity effect” it would be expected that they preferred jobs that would fit them better, White and Spector (1987) support this hypothesis with older workers preferring better Personal Characteristics-Job Fit. Also,
because of the increased generative motives it would be expected that older workers would show more extra-role behaviors and less counterproductive behaviors, this was supported by the Ng and Feldman (2008) study.

Concluding, because of the “positivity effect” and better emotion-regulation, older people have more generative motives, are more satisfied with their jobs and prefer to have people-based attitudes and, so, they show more extra-role behaviors and less counterproductive behaviors.

2.2. Daily differences between younger and older

There are differences between younger and older adults on reacting and reporting on daily events. In Almeida and Horn (2004) study, older participants considerate daily events as less stressful than younger adults. Also, the authors, Birditt, Fingerman and Almeida (2005) found, on a diary study, that there are differences between younger and older in reporting and reacting to interpersonal tensions, with older participants reporting fewer interpersonal tensions on a daily basis. That the daily tensions that older participants reported were more likely to occur with spouses and that they were more likely to use passive strategies to deal with the tensions. This study used short interviews about the daily tensions.

But older adults also select more effective strategies to deal with interpersonal problems in a study by Blanchard-Fields, Mienaltowski and Seay (2007). With equal number of young and older adults (n=53) and using an everyday problem-solving task randomly assigned. They concluded that older adults used more passive emotion-focused strategies for interpersonal problems and more proactive for instrumental problems.

But the age differences in reporting and reacting to specific stressor domain is not the only one. There is also a study that comprises a multiple stress domain by Neupert, Almeida and Charles (2007). In this study, the authors examined differences in emotional and physical reactivity. Using, as a method, a short daily interview for 8 consecutive days the authors concluded “that middle-aged and older adults were less physically and emotionally reactive to interpersonal stressors, and, before we considered the role of perceived control, middle aged adults were less physically reactive to work stressors.” (p.224)
For what motives could older adults deal better with interpersonal problems? For Brose, Scheibe and Schmiedek (2012) context plays a role. The fact that older adults have less work related problems, for example has a role in these results. On the other hand, emotion-regulation plays a role equally according with some life-span theories like Socioemotional Selectivity theory.

In a study by Bal et al (2013) the authors used affective events theory in their study and Socioemotional selectivity theory and arrived to the following conclusion: that age as significant impact on the relationship between contract breaches and following work outcomes. We can, therefore, confirm that also happens daily the positivity effect.

2.2 Affective Events Theory

Affective Events Theory (AET) was proposed by Weiss and Cropanzano in 1996 and it intended to study emotions and its structure, what events would cause certain emotions in the workplace and its consequences. In the authors’ words, AET “focuses on the structure, causes, and consequences of affective experiences at work” (p.11). The structure refers to the multidimensionality of the affective experiences at work; the causes and consequences refer to the causal antecedents and consequences of the emotional experience. What differs AET from the remaining approaches is the focus on the emotional experience, while the dispositional approach focus on personality and genetic influences in satisfaction; social influence approach focus on social causes of satisfaction; and cognitive judgment approach focus on the evaluation of satisfaction and the cognitive causes. This difference of approaches has led authors to operate job satisfaction as an affect when it’s the cognitive dimension that it’s measured. Because of this confusion, authors Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) defined job satisfaction as a judgment evaluation although it has affective causes. A study by Wegge, Dick, Fisher, West and Dawson (2006) confirmed this assumption thru a confirmatory factor analysis, where job satisfaction, positive emotion and negative emotion were distinguishable.

Also, correlations between supervisor support, autonomy, participation, welfare, and job satisfaction were mediated in part by work emotions. Events are classified by the authors as “things [that] happen to people in workplaces” and are reacted emotionally. Therefore, Mitchell (2011) defines AET as being “concerned with how employees feel while working, the workplace events that cause those feelings and the impact the feelings have on organizational attitudes and behavior.” (p.45)
What AET proposes is that, although work environment features are relevant, it is primarily by making affective events more or less likely that these features are relevant. Therefore, “events are proximal causes of affective reactions” (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996) (p.11). We can conclude that events are the most important factor to influence job satisfaction and it is important to understand job features to work events to understand job satisfaction.

In this theory, it is also relevant to mention the importance of time in emotions and moods because of endogenous and exogenous factors. Because, emotions fluctuate over time, meaning that they are not stable it is important to measure affective experiences in longitudinal studies and not just in an arbitrary point in time. Given those emotions, moods and job satisfaction fluctuate overtime it is important to understand the fluctuations and its specific causes and consequences, meaning that it is important to understand the pattern of the emotional experiences that influence job satisfaction and do dairy studies.

The macrostructure of AET emphasizes the importance of affective experience (see Figure 2.1). Although, it is given some relevance to work environment features that influence the amount and type of events that occur in the workplace, the work events influence directly the affective reactions, being extremely important in, ultimately, influencing affect driven behaviors and judgment driven behaviors. Even though dispositions are considered, affective reactions are perceived as influencing, attitudes and consequently cognitive related behaviors. On the other hand, affective reactions influences directly, affect driven behaviors both of which are not mediated by cognitive judgments. Judgment driven behaviors are mediated by satisfaction. Concluding, affective events are the mechanisms through which environment influences job attitudes.
This theory nevertheless being useful lacks specific testable hypotheses being therefore applied as a macro-structure instead (Ohly and Schmidt, 2011). To observe taxonomies of emotions and moods see the next section.

### 2.3.1 AET Empirical Research

It is important to classify positive and negative work events to specific emotions for a better understanding of this phenomenon. To have a comprehensive picture of this relation, taxonomies are needed. Therefore, three taxonomic studies are reviewed, a taxonomy is an exploratory approach to the Affective Events Theory.

The study of Ohly and Schmidt (2013) used concept mapping to do taxonomy, which doesn’t need pre-established categories. The lack of testable hypotheses by AET leads the authors to consider for this methodology although, that it can only give a comprehensive understanding of the results and not a causal one because it is an inductive method and not a
deductive one. So this method is an exploratory one, and should not be used to understand causal relations and may be specific to this sample. Another limitation of this study is that although they have 590 positive events and 383 negative events they choose only 70 of each, the numbers not being representative and being a small sample compared with the amount of events collected. They identified 11 categories that divided by four positive and seven negative clusters. Among the 5 most reported events were: “Goal Attainment, Problem Solving and Task Related Success”; “Positive Feedback”; “Perceived Competence in or through social interactions”; “Passively experienced, Externally Determined Positive Experiences” and “Obstacles in Completing Work Tasks”. Social related categories were among the 2 of the 3 most cited events, being one of the most important together with goal attainment.

Basch and Fisher (1998) used the incident classification system suggested by Bitner, Booms, and Tetreault (1990). The inter-rater reliability although acceptable was low and it might involve some limitations to the replicability of the study. Fourteen categories emerged and it was reported 9 positive events and 13 negative events, among those were “goals achievement”; “acts of colleagues”; and “acts of costumers” for positive events and “acts of colleagues”; “acts of management” for negative events. In this study “acts of colleagues” and “acts of management” accounted for 59% of events. Concluding, from this study emerges two general categories task-related and social- related being the social ones the majority of reported events.

2.4 The Circumplex Model of Affect

The study of emotions can be divided by two approaches: the theory of basic emotions is one of them (where humans have a discrete and limited number of basic emotions), this approach doesn’t give explanation for much of the recent findings. “The neural foundations of basic emotions have not yet been validated, peripheral physiological correlates for the basic emotions have been established, and specific facial expressions associated with each basic emotion have not been identified.” (Posner, Russel and Peterson, 2005) (p.4); the Circumplex Model of Affect, is the other approach, supports that emotions are highly interrelated between themselves supporting a dimensional model of emotions, this dimensional model divides emotions in two axis: one horizontal of unpleasant and pleasant emotions and on vertical axis of activation and deactivation.
Russell (1980) supports that there are two types of evidence that should be considered when talking about a circumplex of arousal on top; sleepiness on the bottom; misery on the left and pleasure on the right. On support of this Russell talks about how he found evidence for this hypothesis: “Supportive evidence was obtained by scaling 28 emotion-denoting adjectives in four different ways: Ross’s technique for a circular ordering of variables, a multidimensional scaling procedure based on perceived similarity among the terms, a unidimensional scaling on hypothesized pleasure-displeasure and degree of arousal dimensions, and a principal components analysis of 343 subjects self reports of their current affective states.” (p.1)

Later there were evidences that core affect “refers to the most elementary consciously accessible affective feelings that need not be directed at anything” (Russell and Barrett, 1999) (p.806), it is free-floating as moods. This elementary feeling can be divided in pleasantness - unpleasantness and activation- deactivation.

Later, Warr, Bindl, Parker and Inceoglu (2014) studied the circumplex and developed with its four-quadrant structure that was supported through studies. The four-quadrant structure is based in the circumplex. The four-quadrant involves as can be seen in the Figure 2.2 high activation positive emotions (HAPA) that involves emotions that are considerate positive and with high activation as enthusiastic and energetic; low activation Positive emotions (LAPA) involves pleasant emotions but more sleepy or deactivated like calm and relaxed on the right side. And high activation negative emotions (HANUA) involves emotions that maintains the person activated but with unpleasant emotions like being nervous and angry and, of course, low activation negative emotions (LAU) are emotions where the person is not active but the emotions are unpleasant, for example miserable and lethargic.
Figure 2.2 Circumplex of Affect – The circumplex is separated by 2 axes, one vertical that represents activation in a bipolar way (up: high activation; low: low activation) and an horizontal axis unpleasant on the left and pleasant on the right. HAPA is High activation with pleasant emotions and is situated in the upper right of the circumplex. LAPA is Low activation with pleasant emotions and is situated in the lower right of the circumplex. HAUA is an High activation unpleasant emotion and is situated in the upper left. LAUA is in the lower left and is a Low activation unpleasant emotion.

2.5 Socioemotional Selectivity Theory

For a long time it was thought that age was characterized by and only by a decline. In the past decades, research has proven this to be a simplistic view of the ageing process. Although, there is an evident decrease in fluid abilities, the same doesn’t seem to occur with emotional processes (Salthouse, 2012). In fact, it seems that older people regulate better their emotions than younger people. Therefore, the process of ageing is not just a negative process but a complex one, according to more recent research (Salthouse, 2012).
Socioemotional selectivity theory draws a theoretical background to these empirical evidences of differences between younger and older adults. Therefore, the discovery that ageing is not just a process of decline but a complex and malleable process is an important one.

As the core of the theory, Cartensen, Isaacowitz, and Charles (1999) present the following statement:

“First, the theory adopts as axiomatic the belief that social interaction is core to survival, with predispositions toward social interest and social attachment having evolved over the millennia. Second, it considers humans to be inherently agentic and to engage in behaviors guided by the anticipated realization of goals. Third, it presumes that because people simultaneously hold multiple—sometimes opposing—goals, the selection of goals is a precursor to action.” (p.166)

Time permits people to build their short-term and long-term goals, meaning that goals are always constructed in a time perspective. Because, younger and older have different time perceptions (while younger have an open-time perception, older people have a limited-time perception) they have different motives.

This difference is due to the approximation to death of older people, and not due to age. Age is just a proxy for the study of differences in time perception. A study with HIV-positive males confirms this theory. The study reveals that HIV-positive males of the same age cohort differed in the motives for social interaction with the males who where closer to death having more emotional-regulated motives (Cartensen, Isaacowitz, and Charles, 1999). This study supports that when people have limited-time perception they are more present-oriented. The fact that the end is nearing, in older people, provokes an adaptive mechanism of being present-oriented. If the end is near it is not adaptive to think in future terms, rather, it is adaptive to think how to take the best from the present moment. So, for example, it is more adaptive to an older person to seek social interactions to seek emotional comfort than for the transmission of cultural values.

Consequently, people who are present-oriented have a tendency to be emotionally motivated, while future-oriented people have a tendency to have knowledge-based motives. This difference can be explained by the fact that to take the best of the moment it is needed to know how to regulate emotions and, conversely, if what is needed is to build a life, it is more important to be future-oriented.
This is a difference in social attachment motives. While younger people prefer social interactions where they became inquisitive, older people prefer social interactions to regulate emotions (Cartensen and Turk-Charles, 1994). Motives are so important to this theory precisely because it views humans are agentic; it’s through motives that social interactions are shaped. They also select the goals, so although an older person might have primarily emotion-based motives, it doesn’t constrict him or herself just to that motive (Cartensen, Isaacowitz, and Charles, 1999).

Older people, because they are motivated to meaningful social interaction they direct their attention for social interactions because the motive is personally relevant. Because internal and external stimuli are not processed as they are, this means that there is an interaction between the person processing cognitive mechanisms and the stimuli. So a person to whom a social interaction is important and is one of his or hers main goals will direct their attention to that goal. In this case social interaction is a main goal for older people and for that reason they direct their attention and resources to social interactions. This attention allocation process exists because the person needs to derive meaning from social events. This attention allocation process also means that the individual is agentic in deriving meaning from the stimuli. “People have selective interests (reflected by their needs, motives, and goals), either transient or long term, that help to shape the construal of their social world” (Bless, Fiedler and Stack, 2003).

According with the Socioemotional selectivity theory occurs the following phenomena due to older people having a salience on emotions and emotion-regulation and consequently being more positive.

1. Social networks narrow and investments in meaningful relationships increase

There is a narrowing of the social networks in early adulthood (meaning that it can’t be due to a decline of old age). Cartensen (1992) explored the hypotheses of younger adults being more selective although emotional closeness to significant others increases rather than decreases. What she found through structured and unstructured clinical interviews was that the frequency of interactions with acquaintances decreased. While the closeness with siblings, parents, close friends, spouses, and children increases. The hypotheses were, consequently, supported. The satisfaction with the close relationships also increases, although these results might suffer some limitations due to an average inter-rater reliability lower than .70
These findings support the Socioemotional selectivity theory hypotheses that to better regulate their emotions older people prefer close social partners. According with this theory, older people reduce the interactions with acquaintances because they aren’t emotionally gratifying and might even entail some risks. Therefore older people prefer to focus on deepening the relationship with close ones rather than to enlarge their social network.

2. Emotions are more predictable and less labile

Older people are more stable meaning that their emotions are more predictable and labile than those of younger adults. According with SST, older people prefer more stable relationships because new relationships entail risk. To better regulate emotions it is expected that older people prefer predictable relationships to those that entail risks for not being as predictable.

Carstensen, Tura, Scheibe, Ram, Hershfield, Larkin, Brooks and Nesselroade (2011) in a longitudinal study, predicted that older people emotional experience is more stable in daily life. This hypothesis was confirmed, with older adults being less labile (or more stable) on both positive and negative emotions.

3. Negative emotions became more infrequent and Positive emotions more frequent

But older people don’t just prefer stability over risk, they also prefer positive emotions. They narrow their social network to people who are emotionally more gratifying, but not only that they have a positive bias regarding these relationships. As mentioned, various studies support that older people have a “positivity effect” that can be explained through emotion-regulation motives. A study by Mather and Cartensen (2003) showed that there is a positivity effect in attention on older adults. Besides an attention bias, there also seems to occur a positivity effect on older people memories. In a three part study, Turk-Charles, Mather and Cartensen (2003) didn’t found a significant effect in attention between positive and negative images; this might be due to the fact that the negative images might be threatening. The positivity effect, Mather and Cartensen (2005) predict, only occur with goal-direct control processes and not with automatic ones. This might explains why Turk-Charles et al (2003) didn’t have a significant effect. In the same study, they did find a significant effect for recall and recognition. The differences of valence X memory are also found in autobiographical memory. Kennedy et al (2004) studied autobiographical memory in nuns.
and found older nuns remembered the past more positively than younger nuns. Charles et al (2001) made a longitudinal study of 23 years with 3 generations. They concluded that “for people of all ages, negative affect decreased over time” whereas positive affect remained fairly stable.

Is there a long-term benefit to the emotion-regulation? Findings suggest that, older people that show the positivity effect live longer than older people that do not show the positivity effect. So, as Cartensen et al (1999) predicted this change in motives is an adaptation to the situation of older people (being closer to death). It can be suggested that the change in motivation is an adaptive mechanism to extend and improve life in the later years.

Concluding, time perception changes as people get older because of limited-time perception (due to closeness to death). They start to choose their social partners to have meaningful relationships, and prefer positive emotions. This gives them an emotional-regulation advantage to better deal with death and the end of their time, so they became more emotionally predictable and less labile, consequently older people with more social support and more positive affect have a higher life-expectancy.

### 2.6 Social Information Processing Approach

Social information Processing Approach states that an individual perceptions, attitudes and behaviors are affected by social information. For this reason, it is also important to understand how age related differences in attitudes and behaviors can also be influenced by context. SIP emerged from the difficulty that need-satisfaction theories had in accounting for studies about context and the lack of stability of the individual (Salancik and Pfeffer, 1977).

According to Salanciky and Pfeffer (1978) the fundamental premise of Social Information Processing Model is that “individuals, as adaptive organisms, adapt attitudes, behavior and beliefs to their social context and to the reality of their own past and present behavior and situation” (p.226). Therefore we can conclude that in this theory, context is the most important variable to influence attitudes and consequently behavior, and thus, the social context is crucial to understand attitudes in the workplace. Also from this statement we can extract that two fundamental influencers in an individual attitudes, behaviors, and beliefs are: social context, and the reality of their own past behaviors, meaning that the most important
influencers of a person’s attitudes, behavior and beliefs is the social environment of the workplace because the person adapts to the workplace. The authors also mentioned that this would be true in ambiguous job characteristics or uncertain situations, the more ambiguous or uncertain the situation the more the employee would rely on others to form his opinion. This is especially true for social aspects of the job characteristics.

Consequently the core of the model is the following: “When an individual develops statements about attitudes or needs, he or she uses social information – information about past behavior and about what others think which means that it is affected by commitment processes, by the saliency, by the relevance and the need to develop socially acceptable information.” (p.224)

The key theoretical contribution of the SIP framework is the connection it draws between the social environment and information processing in developing job attitudes, behaviors, and perceptions (Zalesny & Ford, 1990 in Bhave, Kramer and Glomb, 2010).

Social context provides cues of how others evaluate phenomena on the organization, or in other words the cues allow the worker to better interpret the environment. The environment emphasizes some of its characteristics to the individual attentional processes. So, for example if an employee sees a manager giving support to another employee when he is in emotional distress, he might think that there is managerial support in the organizations he works in. Following is a process of social information processing called saliency, where the social context gives cues about what is important to look at, for example, if it’s more important to be persistent than autonomous.

Saliency occurs when the individual directs his attention to something distinct or important, the individual directs attention to what is important, and something important can be something that is unique in the context. The “cocktail party effect” demonstrates this skill, if someone says your name in a party you will direct attention to it. This capacity is an important for dealing with the limitations of information processing (Bless, Fiedler and Stack, 2003). It is related with the controllability versus automaticity issue. If you direct your attention to something that is important you will process it more extensively. If the stimulus has a solo status meaning that it stands out in relation to the rest of the context it will attract more attention (Fiske and Taylor, 1991 in Bless, Fiedler and Stack, 2003). Salience occurs very early in the information processing and has subsequent consequences to the later processes. And it can affect recall performance as well as social judgment because of an increasing amount of processing. In social judgments people are seen as more influential and
responsible as well as having more causality attributed to them. If on one hand, saliency increases the attention given to the stimulus and consequently enters into subsequent processes it also increases, individuals may be aware of this influence and try to contradict it. It should also increase the amount of information recalled because it increases the subsequent processing of information. However, the results are mixed in this area of research. This can be due to several reasons such as difficulty to allocate the additional processing, the encoding and retrieval conditions are not compatible, it has been suggested that it doesn’t occur an increase in the amount of processing but rather it eases the recall from memory. Because individuals store the input of information but not the “raw data” they will remember the object that stands out better than the remaining information. Saliency is important because of the limited resources to process the information in the context revealing which information is important to the individual simplifying the process. The storage of information depends also on the goals and prior knowledge of the person (Bless, Fiedler and Stack, 2003).

This process will carve, therefore, what specific attitudes and job characteristics are important for the company. So, for example if there is little colleague support in the company, because it is distinct of the context, the worker will be more attentive for that characteristic. It will lead to behaviors that are influenced by norms and expectations.

Salancik and Pfeffer (1978) state that:

“Social context has two general effects on attitude and need statements:

(1) it provides a direct construction of meaning through guides to socially acceptable reasons for action;

(2) it focuses an individual’s attention on certain information, making that information more salient, and provides expectations concerning individual behavior and the logical consequences of such behavior (direct effect of informational social influence and the indirect effect of the social context on the processes by which action are used to construct attitude and need statements).” (p.227)

So, if a peer mentions that managerial support is negative for the company, in an ambiguous environment, the worker might endorse this statement. The influence in attitudes and behaviors can be of various sources and can work directly and indirectly. Also the authors mention that because the influence of the environment comes from various sources, it can have different effects depending from what source (Salancik and Pfeffer, 1978).
Both supervisor and colleagues have an indirect and direct effect on attitudes and behaviors of the worker, the direct effect occurs when a colleague or supervisor makes direct statements and the indirect effect occurs through watching behavioral cues of others (Kraus, Ahearne, Lam and Wieseke, 2012).

2.7 Colleague Support and Managerial Support

Social Support has demonstrated to be influential in employees well-being (Beer, 1985 in Ng and Sorensen, 2008). Social support be it managerial or from a colleague, has instrumental and emotional assistance components (Thoits, 1985 in Ng and Sorensen, 2008).

According with a meta-analysis by Ng and Sorensen (2008) colleague support and managerial support should be treated separately because those concepts don’t have necessarily the same antecedents and consequences. However they could be interrelated and named Perceived Organizational Support an concept coined by Eisenberg. According with the study of Ng and Sorensen (2008) although it would be expected, by many authors (Eisenberg, Stinglhamber, Vandenbergh, Sucharski and Rhoades, 2002), that only Perceived Supervisor support would be related with Perceived Organizational Support and not perceived co-worker support the same wasn’t confirmed by Ng and Sorensen (2008) meta-analysis. The Eisenberg et al (2002) study suggests that supervisors are seen as more connected with the Organization besides that Ng and Sorensen (2008) Perceived Supervisor support has shown to be more strongly linked with positive work attitudes such as job satisfaction, affective commitment and no turnover intention. Eisenberg et al (2002) found that “The findings were consistent with POS’s mediation of a negative relationship between Perceived Supervisor Support and voluntary employee turnover.” (p.570)

As for colleague support, maybe because supervisor support is thought to be more stable and common (Ng and Sorensen, 2008), was not studied as much as managerial support. However, Hayton, Carnabuci and Eisenberger (2012) did made a study about the importance of the coworkers. They studied the size of networks, density and quality was related with POS and that coworker support mediates these concepts with POS. They also controlled for supervisor support to be sure that it is coworker support that mediated the relationship between size of networks, density and quality with POS. Their findings suggest that coworkers “part of the informal structure of the organization that contributes to
organizational support” (p.245) although the mediation had equivocal results. The density, size, and quality of networks did demonstrated to be an antecedent of POS.

2.8 Summary

Concluding, events are an important part of emotional reactions and consequently of behavior and attitudes, as a result it influences work outcomes for this reason it is important to study events. Also there are deep differences in motivation across age due to differences in time perception of older workers reporting more emotion-based motives and younger workers reporting more knowledge-based motives. This is due to salience (to the motivation of different age groups) and consequent different relevance of events to them. We want to study if there is a difference between younger and older in reporting important social daily events.

Conversely there is the social information processing model that supports that the social context plays a major role in attitudes for this reason we want to investigate if the perception of context influences important events and its dynamics. Social context influences perceptions and consequently behavior through a dynamics of contextual saliency. Meaning that because of contextual saliency social events should stand out.

Concluding although each theory looks to an important aspect of work all of them can be articulated to understand better the workplace. So, both Socio-emotional Selectivity Theory and Social Information Processing Approach will focus on aspects of the Affective Events Theory, meaning that while Socio-emotional selectivity theory looks to the saliency by motivation social information processing approach looks to the saliency of context by verifying if social events stand out when support is low (if the workplace is seen as more social even though support is low). This will happen inside Affective events macro structure. Managerial support and Colleague support will be studied separately as Ng and Sorensen (2008) recommend. It will be explored the Affective Circumplex model, also.
Figure 2.3 Conceptual Model – Managerial support and colleague support have a negative main effect each one that will reverse when moderated by age. Age main effect is a positive one.
Chapter III – Hypotheses

According with the Socioemotional Selectivity Theory older people are more prone to be social than younger people because of the need to deal with the end of time, older people will be more prone to emotional regulation motives as social motives. Therefore social motives will be more salient. To see the conceptual model see Figure 2.3.

We expect age to influence social events because older people are more prone to social environments and behaviors, so as age increases it should also increase the number of social events reported. This will happen due to a saliency of motivation in older age to regulate their emotions.

**H1:** Age is positively related to social events

Environment is important at work and influences behavior, for this reason, we want to investigate what influences “social events”, and also to identify the dynamics of how the environment influences the social events. Then, if there is a low perception of support both by colleagues and by managers there will be salient social aspects in the environment and it will be reported more social events. This is because they are categorized as more important.

So, because saliency acts by distinguishing certain aspects of the context there will be a negative relationship between support and social events.

We expect that there will be a contextual saliency in reporting the number of events, consequently, as colleague support decreases it should increase the number of social events reported, the same for managerial support, as managerial support decreases it should also increase the number of social events.

**H2:** Managerial Support is negatively related with social events

**H3:** Colleague Support is negatively related with social events

Age should moderate the relationship between managerial support and social events and also colleague support and social events. This is due to the socio-emotional theory due to the saliency. According to SST, to regulate emotions older people tend to emotional-based motives and consequently have more social goals. It is, also, important to understand the
dynamics of person-environment interaction. Because of the limited perception of time older workers will tend to be more social, older employees will have a tendency to accept more the workplace social characteristics. Also, because social support leads to employee well-being and older workers will benefit more from it because it will serve as a tool to regulate their emotions.

Concluding, older workers will recognize more social behaviors because they seek to regulate their emotions through positive and social motives.

We expect that age will revert the negative causal relationship between managerial support and social events because of the motivation to social goals of older people. This will not happen to younger people since they don’t have an emotional-regulation motivation. The same should be expected for the colleague support and social events.

So the social saliency of the environment will be reverted by the social saliency of motivation.

**H4a:** Age moderates the relationship between managerial support and social events, older workers should revert the relationship between managerial support and social events.

**H4b:** Age moderates the relationship between colleague support and social events older workers should revert the relationship between colleague support and social events.
Chapter IV – Method

Participants

163 participated meaning that they completed the general survey and 3 out of 5 questionnaires in a diary study (because the analysis was conducted at the daily level sums up to more than 800 in the database). Regarding gender, 45.4% were female while the rest were male.

The mean of age is 38.83 and the standard deviation is 10.794, with the minimum age being 21 and the maximum age being 59 years old. Most participants operate in the area of services (41.7%) with 52% not responding to this question, and most work in the private sector (25.8%) with 52.1% not responding this question. Several nationalities participated in this study but the majorities belonged to the Spanish (50.3%) followed by the Portuguese participants (35.6%)

Procedure

There were two data collection one from Portugal and another from Spain. The majority of the data collection was from Spanish survey with 53.99% of the participants and from Portugal 46% participated in this study. Both samples were analyzed together. In Portugal, the participants were first contacted through either a snowball procedure, or through the night classes of the university. They were approached with the informed consent, presented the project DAILY. It was asked their email addresses to send links to the questionnaires, because of this it was mentioned that the data will be confidential and all the data will be processed and analyzed collectively and will only serve research purposes. Then the collaboration was thanked.

In Spain, participants were recruited through University’s psychology students. The questionnaires were filled through paper and pencil, so they received a booklet with all the questionnaires at the beginning of the study period and delivered it after to the researcher.

As a general procedural, the first questionnaire was a general questionnaire, a daily questionnaire was then sent over the five following days.
Measures

In the first and general questionnaire it was measured some individuals traits, work attitudes and job and context characteristics. For the purposes of this study the measures of interest taken in the general questionnaire were: Colleague Support measures how much the participants experience colleague support with 4 items ($\alpha = .872$). The items consist of “If work gets difficult my colleagues help me”, “I get help and support I need from colleagues”, “I receive respect at work I deserve for my colleagues”, “My colleagues are willing to listen to my work related problems”; Managerial Support: measures support from the managers (including encouragement, sponsorship and resources) with 5 items ($\alpha = .911$). “I am given supportive feedback on the work I do”, “I can rely on my line manager to help me out with a work problem”, I can talk with my line manager about something that has upset me or annoyed me at work”, “I am supported through emotional demanding work”, “My line manager encourages me at work”

Diary questionnaire

The diary measures consisted of job characteristics individual traits, quality of sleep and the intensity of emotions and an open question about the events of that day.

The open question about events taken from the questionnaire was the following:

“We would like to learn what you did and how you felt today. Not all days are the same – some are better, some are worse and others are pretty typical. Here we are only asking you about today. Think of your day as a continuous series of scenes or episodes in a film and report at least two episodes that happened (for example, one in the morning and one that happened in the afternoon). Besides, please indicate how you felt right after event by selecting one or more of the emotions reported in the list, and how strong you experienced those emotions. Finally, indicate what you did in relation to the event.”

The events were then classified in a content analysis. They were classified as: social and task for work related events. The definitions elaborated to fit the events were, for social “primarily concerned by social interaction with people that are involved with the job” for task related events the definition was “how the work itself is accomplished and the range and nature of tasks associated with a particular job”. The allocation of the events was done individually (the Cohen Kappa was of .83) and then discussed the discrepancies.
For this study we will only look to social work events reported daily that can vary from 0 to 2.

- **Emotions**

  After describing each event, participants were asked to report how they felt about the event. It was used the circumplex of Russell (1980): HAPA was an aggregated item for enthusiastic and peppy; LAPA for at ease and relaxed, HAUA for nervous; angry; and finally, LAUA for bored, discouraged. The intensity ranged from 0 to 100 and the participants could choose more than one emotion.
Chapter V – Results

In the table 4.1, we report the means, standard deviations and correlations among the study variables. We can observe that age is significantly and negatively correlated with Colleague Support (r = -0.198, p < 0.01) with Managerial Support (r = -0.163, p < 0.01), (which might originate some problems in the analysis). Age also correlated significantly and positively with low activation positive emotions (r = 0.157, p < 0.01). Colleague support has a high correlation with Managerial Support (r = 0.469, p < 0.01), therefore it was run two regressions with the daily social work event, the dependent variable, it was positively correlated with Colleague support (r = 0.138, p < 0.01), Managerial Support (r = 0.093, p < 0.05)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Colleague Support</th>
<th>Managerial Support</th>
<th>Daily Social work events</th>
<th>HPSocial Events</th>
<th>LP Social Events</th>
<th>HU Social Events</th>
<th>LU Social Events</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age (A)</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-0.198**</td>
<td>-0.163**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colleague support (CS)</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.469**</td>
<td>0.138**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managerial Support (MS)</td>
<td>38.86</td>
<td>10.72</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.093*</td>
<td>0.036</td>
<td>-0.007</td>
<td>-0.034</td>
<td>-0.141*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily Social work events (DSWE)</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.447**</td>
<td>0.399**</td>
<td>0.255**</td>
<td>0.245**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HPSocial Events (HP)</td>
<td>93.55</td>
<td>95.34</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.687**</td>
<td>0.119*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.027</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LP Social Events (LP)</td>
<td>86.90</td>
<td>89.11</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.067</td>
<td>-0.082</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>HU Social Events (HU)</td>
<td>55.42</td>
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<td></td>
<td>0.582**</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>LU Social Events (LU)</td>
<td>34.95</td>
<td>53.31</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.1 Correlations and descriptive statistics
5.1 Hypotheses testing

After the preliminary analysis, it was initiated the hypothesis testing. For the hypothesis testing it was utilized a hierarchical multiple regression. This section is divided by two hierarchical multiple regressions. First the assumptions were tested and met and the normality assumption was met through the approach of Kline (2005) with acceptable levels of skewness and kurtosis of around 1.

1st Hierarchical multiple regression

The IV’s were Managerial Support and Age the DV was the number of social work events reported in each day. The IV’s Managerial Support and age were centered by subtracting the mean to decrease multicollinearity. The model controls for sex ( see table 4.1).

It is concluded that the first model explains 1% of the social events variation and is statistically significant for both steps (model 1: $F_{(3;607)}=2.728; p< 0.05$ ; model 2 $F_{(4;606)}=2.465; p< 0.05$) (See table 4.2). Meaning that 1% managerial support explains 1% of daily social events and that it can be generalized for the general population. Managerial support is significant and a positive predictor of daily social work events, meaning that as managerial support increases, the number of social events reported each day increases too (model 1: $B=.073$ p-value< 0.05; model 2 $B=.082$; p-value <0.05) ( See table 4.2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model 1</th>
<th>Independent Variables</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Adjusted R square</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>.470***</td>
<td>.008**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>.064</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Managerial Support</td>
<td>.073**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.002</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model 2</td>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>.467***</td>
<td>.010**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>.061</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Managerial Support</td>
<td>.082**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interaction Term</td>
<td>- .003</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: **0.05  ***0.01

Table 5.2 – The table from the first model involving managerial support (coefficients, significance and adjusted R square)
2\textsuperscript{nd} Hierarchical multiple regression

This analysis had as IV’s Colleague Support and age, sex was used again as a control variable. The DV was “the number of social work events reported in each day”. In the second step was added the moderation. The variables age and colleague support were centered subtracting the mean.

The ANOVA tests were again significant (model 1: \( F (3;617)=4.930; \ p-value= <0.01 \); model 2: \( F (4;616)=3.744; \ p-value= <0.01 \)) and therefore the model is considered suitable for the general population. The model 1 explains 1.9\% of the variation of the dependent variable and 1.7\% in the second model. Colleague support was the only variable significant and a positive predictor. Meaning that colleague support increases social events increase too (model 1: \( B = .110; \ p-value = < 0.01 \); model 2: \( B = .104; \ p-value = < 0.01 \)) and that positive relationship is also significant in the general population (see table 4.3).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model 1</th>
<th>Independent Variables</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>.508***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>.035</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Colleague Support</td>
<td>.110***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model 2</th>
<th>Independent Variables</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>Constant</td>
<td>.509***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>.036</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Colleague Support</td>
<td>.104***</td>
<td>.017***</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Age</td>
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<td>Interaction Term</td>
<td>.001</td>
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</table>

Note: **0,05  ***0,01

Table 5.3 - The table from the second model involving colleague support (coefficients, significance and adjusted R square)

5.2 Additional Analysis

We conducted additional analyses involving four separate DV’s: positive emotions with high arousal (HAPA), positive emotions with low arousal (LAPA), negative emotions with high arousal (HAUA) and negative emotions with low arousal (LAUA) in association with social-work events.
Colleague Support and Age - HAPA associated with Social-work Events

This analysis had as IV’s Colleague Support and age, sex was used again as a control variable. The DV was the intensity of the positive emotions with high activation associated with the social events of that day. In the second step was added the moderation.

In this regression there were no significant values either of ANOVA or of the Coefficients meaning that there isn’t a significant relationship between the variables (table 4.4) (model 1: \( F_{(3,265)} = 1.728 > 0.1 \); model 2: \( F_{(4,264)} = 1.920 > 0.1 \)).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model 1 Independent Variables</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>Interaction Term</td>
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Note: ***0.05   ***0.01

Table 5.4 - The table from the additional analysis involving colleague support and HAPA emotions associated with social events (coefficients, significance and adjusted Rsquare)

Colleague Support and age – LAPA associated with Social Work Events

The IVs were colleague support and age and the control variable was Sex. The DV was the intensity of positive emotions with Low activation associated with the daily social events. The moderation was added in the second model.

The ANOVA tests were significant (table 4.4) and therefore the model is considered suitable (model 1: \( F_{3,265} = 2.670, \; p < 0.05 \); model 2: \( F_{4,264} = 2.954, \; p < 0.05 \)). The second model explains 2.8% of the variation of the dependent variable.
Model 1

<table>
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Model 2

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<td>Interaction Term</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Note: **0.05 ***0.01

Table 5.5 - The table from the additional analysis involving colleague support and LAPA emotions associated with social events (coefficients, significance and adjusted Rsquare)

As to the coefficients, only age was significant (B = 1.146 ; <0.05) (see table 4.4) meaning that there is a relationship between age and the intensity of positive emotions with low activation associated with the daily social events, in other words, age increases the report of positive emotions with low activation associated with the daily social events. In this analysis the relationship between colleague support and social events was not significant and the same occurred with the moderation term.

Colleague Support and age – HAUA associated with Social-work Events

The IVs were colleague support and age and the control variable was Sex. The dependent variable was “the intensity of the negative emotions with High activation associated with the social events of that day”.

The ANOVA tests were significant and therefore the model is considered suitable (model 1: F (3; 265)=2.641, p <0.05; model 2: F (4;264) = 2.411, p <0.05). The first model explains, 1.8% of the variation of the dependent variable and the second model explains 2.1% of the variation of the dependent variable.

No coefficients were significant with the exception of the control variable Sex. Only the model as a whole was significant as can be observed in table 4.6.
Table 5.6 - The table from the additional analyses involving colleague support and LAUA emotions associated with social events (coefficients, significance and adjusted Rsquare)

**Colleague Support and Age –LAUA associated with Social-work Events**

The IVs were colleague support and age and the control variable was Sex. The DV was “the intensity of the negative emotions with low activation associated with the social events of that day”. In this regression the models were not significant (model 1 – $F_{(3,265)} = .768 > 0.1$; model 2 – $F_{(4,264)} = 1.025 > 0.1$).

Table 5.7 - The table from the additional analyses involving colleague support and LAUA emotions associated with social events (coefficients, significance and adjusted Rsquare)

No coefficients or models were significant therefore there were no significant causal relationships between the VI’s or the moderation term and “the intensity of the negative emotions with low activation associated with the social events of that day” (see table 4.7).
Managerial Support and age – HAPA associated with Social-work Events

The IVs were managerial support and age and the control variable was Sex. The DV was “the intensity of the positive emotions with high activation associated with the social events of that day”.

In the first model the ANOVA is not significant ($F_{(3;263)} = 1.630; \text{p-value} >0.1$) although age is significant ($B = 1.163, p < 0.05$) (see table 4.8) but this seems to not be a real relationship and is due to a suppression effect since the correlation doesn’t show this relationship. The correlations although don’t show a definitive relationship are needed for a relationship in the regression. Meaning that, although a correlation might indicate a relationship in the regression when significant, a lack of correlation shows always a lack of relationship between the variables in the regression. (Cohen, Cohen, West and Aiken, 2003). As predicted the correlation between predictors gave some problems. There is a significant change from the first model to the second model ($F_{(4;262)} = 4.633, \text{p-value} <0.05$) the model that is now significant ($F_{(4;262)} = 2.398 \text{p-value} <0.05$) although barely significant. The explanation for the second model is of 2.1%. In this second model or step there was an interaction term that was negative and significant ($B=-1.279, \text{p-value} < 0.05$), the meaning of this value is more explicit in the figure 5.4.

![Table 5.8 - The table from the additional analyses involving managerial support and HAPA emotions associated with social events (coefficients, significance and adjusted Rsquare)](image)

According with the graphic the relationship for middle aged adults and younger adults is a positive one, only for older adults the relationship turns negative. There is an interaction
of the slopes therefore an interaction effect. In the older group the relationship between managerial support and HAPA associated with social events is a negative one. The older adults with high managerial support report less intense high activated positive emotions associated with social events at work.

Managerial Support and age - LAPA associated with Social-work Events

The IVs were managerial support and age and the control variable was Sex. The DV was “the intensity of the positive emotions with low activation associated with the social events of that day”.

The two ANOVAs are significant (Model 1 - $F(3,263) = 2.807, p < 0.05$; Model 2 - $F(4,262) = 2.752, p < 0.05$). The first model explains 2% and of the second model is of 2.6% the variation. Age is again significant, in the regression in the two steps (Model 1 - $B=1.294= .155$, $p <0.05$; and model 2 - $B= 1.255$, p-value <0.05) as seen in table 4.9.
### Model 1

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<td>Interaction Term</td>
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**Note:** **0.05   ***0.01

**Table 5.9** - The table from the additional analyses involving managerial support and IAPA emotions associated with social events (coefficients, significance and adjusted Rsquare)

### Managerial Support and age – HAUA associated with Social-work Events

The IVs were managerial support and age and the control variable was Sex. The DV was “the intensity of the negative emotions with high activation associated with the social events of that day”. The ANOVA of both models are non-significant with a p-value of 0.05 (model 1- F (3, 263) = 2.043 > 0.05; model 2- F (4, 262) = 2.275 > 0.05).

### Model 1

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### Model 2

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**Note:** **0.05   ***0.01

**Table 5.10** - The table from the additional analyses involving managerial support and HAUA emotions associated with social events (coefficients, significance and adjusted Rsquare)
Only the control variable sex is significant (B = 19.922, p-value < 0.05) all the IVs and moderation term don’t have a significant relationship with the dependent variable that can be transposed to the general population (see table 4.10).

**Managerial Support and age – LAUA associated with Social-work Events**

The IVs were managerial support and age and the control variable was Sex. The DV was “the intensity of the negative emotions with low activation associated with the social events of that day”.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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</thead>
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<td></td>
<td>Interaction Term</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: **0.05  ***0.01

*Table 5.11 - The table from the additional analyses involving managerial support and HAUA emotions associated with social events (coefficients, significance and adjusted Rsquare)*

Any of the ANOVA was significant (Model 1 – F (3;263) = 1.900; > 0.05; Model 2 – F (4;262) = 2.223; > 0.05). Managerial support is significant (B = - 7.311; p-value < 0.05) and negative. Meaning that as managerial support decreases the intensity of the negative emotions with low activation associated with social events of that day decreases too. This means that when there is low managerial support there is low negative emotions with low activation associated with social events of that day (see table 4.11).

Concluding, in the hypotheses only the colleague support and managerial support had a significant relationship with “the number of social work events reported in each day”. Meaning that there is a positive relationship (as the support variables increase also increases the number of social work events reported in each day). As for the emotions, with the
colleague support in the model, age had a positive relationship with LAPA; with managerial support in the model, age had a significant positive relationship with HAPA and LAPA; There was a negative moderation of age in the relationship between managerial support and high activation positive social work events. Managerial support had a significant negative relationship with low activation negative social work events.
Chapter VI – Discussion

The purpose of this study was to investigate the events that people of different age experience in their daily life at work. This purpose was fulfilled although none of the hypotheses were confirmed as it was established. Following will be discussed the results in relation with the hypotheses:

H1 predicted that age was positively related to social events. This happens only when associated to low activation positive emotions age associated with social events. This could be due to the positivity effect. This might have happened due to better emotional regulation of older workers. Meaning that older workers only give attention to the social events with low activation and positive outcomes, there could be a salience of social positive events and not just of social events this happens because the motivation of older workers is to regulate their emotions. Only LAPA and not HAPA was predicted by age. This could be because: emotions are more predictable and less labile so they help to better cope with negative tensions; older adults prefer low activation positive emotions. This is predicted by the “positivity effect”.

Socioemotional selectivity theory proposes that older people seek ways to deal with death and therefore social events are a mean to give meaning to life. This is what the hypothesis had established. On the other hand the theory also poses that older people only seek positive social interactions. Older people want quality and not numbers of social interaction because older people have different motives due to time constrictions. Older people prefer social interactions to regulate emotions (Cartensen, and Turk-Charles, 1994) but it is not just any social interaction, it has to be a positive social interaction

For hypotheses H2 and H3, managerial support and colleague support showed no differences being both positively related to social events in the hypothesized models. These hypotheses were not verified and it could be because workers utilized a motivation driven saliency instead of a contextual saliency. The individuals reported more daily social events when they had higher support, this could be because of the relevance that social support has to the worker. Maybe because the organization sees support as important and invests in it, the workers see social environment as more important for them.

As an additional result: Managerial support is negatively associated with LAUA meaning that managerial support is important to avoid low activation unpleasant emotions,
such as depression. This could be due the stronger relationship of managerial support and positive work attitudes (Ng and Sorensen, 2008), having a kind of stronger positive effect to the well-being than colleague support. This could be because managerial support is seen by many authors as being more supportive, because of their training they are more inclined to offer support even unsolicited.

One moderation was significant. The moderation of age in the relationship of managerial support and HAPA associated Social Events was negative, meaning that older workers don’t experience HAPA associated with daily social work events when managers support them. This could be because managerial support offers more instrumental than emotional support be it that following socioemotional selectivity theory younger workers should appreciate more instrumental support and older workers more emotional support. On the other hand, it could be because managerial support is an hygienic factor, to older workers, and not a motivator factor. By hygienic factor we mean “of extrinsic nature to work, and that lead to avoid pain and relief of insatisfaction in a short time period” and by motivator factor we mean that “it obeys to a dynamic of growing and lead to satisfaction and happiness in a long time period” (Pina e Cunha, Rego, Cunha and Cabral- Cardoso, 2005) (p.107)

**Limitations and implications for future research**

This study has some limitations that should be noted. The study asked the email of the participants, this could have ended with some biased answers. The fact that the individuals could be identified by emails and they knew that could be indentified may have lead to some socially desirable answers.

Finally, one possible limitation is that by using questionnaires and not using experimental procedures can’t obtain causal answers to the hypotheses. A very small amount of this studies are experimental, and science wins by a diversity of methods that could give answers that other methods can not. So, for example, we had very little control over what caused what in the support hypotheses that need it a bit more control.

For future research, it would be good to ask if the people that are about to leave the company influence the goals of these people while still working in the company. People about to retire or change companies have a limited time perception and for this reason it would be curious to know if in the final days they have more social and positive relationships.
Regarding Social Information Processing Approach it would be good to do an experimental study to discover if the managerial support and colleague support results are due to personal goals. If the saliency accounts for the present results because of the personal motives of the workers and not social context.

It is also a suggestion to know if managerial support decreases the number of workers with depression but colleague support does not. In other words repeat the results.

**Practical implications**

There are various practical implications from this study either from perceived support or the study of the factor of age. If, for example, managers should bet on support to have a more social environment, be it colleague support or managerial support. So, if you want a social environment, a good way to achieve it is through organizational support.

As it was predicted by socioemotional selectivity theory by Cartensen older people react differently comparing to younger people in a social environment and through their emotions. For this reason it was expected that older workers would be more social and seek more positive emotions, and for this reason be different to manage as to younger people that seek out information.

On an ageing workforce it is important to know how older people react to the job, to better manage them. According with this research, older workers will react more to low activation positive emotions but not to negative emotions regarding social events, meaning that they respond to LAPA social events but not to HAPA, HAU or LAUA. So if you want to keep older workers ought to keep the work environment social and positive. Stimulate the older workers with group activities that might turn out positive, for example a meeting where everyone gives each other positive feedback.

Although, managerial support is a social situation it does not produce high active positive emotions. It can be seen as a hygienic factor and not a motivator factor for older employees. That means that although managerial support isn’t a motivator for older workers it is still necessary to keep them productive. It can also mean that managerial support has more instrumental features that don’t satisfy as much the social cravings of older workers.
Chapter VII – Conclusion

An older workforce is staying in the job market. For this reason it is important to study possible managing differences between a younger workforce and an older workforce. The Socioemotional selectivity theory proposes a difference between younger and older in social motives that would lead younger adults to a more informational and instrumental interaction and older adults to more generative motives, such as caring for others. The AET proposes that work environment features are a precedent to work events, both theories were confirmed by our results. The social information processing approach could also explain the result obtained, although that was not the hypothesized result. For this reason, practical implications are discussed and to confirm the results more research in this area is needed.
Sources

www.pordata.pt

www.oecd.org

www.ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database
References


