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# **In pursuit of job satisfaction and happiness: Testing the interactive contribution of emotion-regulation ability and workplace social support**

## **Abstract**

The present study focuses on the interplay of emotion-regulation ability and perceived workplace social support as predictors of job satisfaction and happiness in a Spanish multi-occupational sample. A total of 494 working adults (39.4% females) took part in this study. Emotion-regulation ability and perceived support from colleagues and supervisors were positively associated. In addition, emotion-regulation ability and perceived support from colleagues and supervisors showed positive associations with job satisfaction and happiness. Furthermore, considering results from moderation analyses, when low levels of perceived workplace social support were reported, the relationship between emotion regulation and both job satisfaction and happiness was stronger than in cases of higher perceived workplace support. In line with previous studies, these findings suggest that training in emotion regulation abilities may take into consideration the potential moderating role of job characteristics such as support from colleagues and supervisors. Finally, theoretical and practical implications of the joint study of these factors in line with the Job Demands-Resources model and the Emotional Intelligence framework are discussed.

*Keywords:* Emotion-regulation ability, workplace social support, job satisfaction, happiness, interaction.

## INTRODUCTION

In recent decades, healthy organizations have become a goal for researchers and practitioners worldwide (Di Fabio, 2017a). This primary proposition has led to a number of studies focusing on the major challenges for organizations regarding the promotion of health and well-being (Di Fabio, 2017b; Lorente, Tordera & Peiró, 2018). In addition, since occupational health is not conceived of as simply the absence of illness, there is an increased interest in changing the focus from preventing ill health to promoting positive health within organizations (Tetrick & Peiró, 2012).

Prominent among the efforts to enhance employees' health, performance and retention are the job satisfaction and subjective happiness constructs, which have been widely considered to be crucial indicators of individuals' well-being in terms of occupational and personal domains (Judge, Weiss, Kammeyer-Mueller & Hullin, 2017; Lyubomirsky, King & Diener, 2005). Job satisfaction represents an evaluative state that expresses contentment with, and positive feelings about, one's job (Judge, Hulin & Dalal, 2009). Accordingly, this construct includes both cognitive (contentment) and affective components (positive feeling), with consistent effects on well-being and performance indicators (Bowling, Eschleman & Wang, 2010; Judge et al., 2009; 2017). Among different definitions of happiness offered by several authors, this construct is often referred as to the experience of frequent positive affect (Lyubomirsky et al., 2005). It is, hence, considered to be a relevant indicator of subjective well-being, constituting a precursor of individuals' success across multiple life domains, including work (Lyubomirsky et al., 2005).

Reviews of the existing job satisfaction and happiness literature have consistently showed that individuals show marked differences in these variables, thereby suggesting the role of potential dispositional factors (Judge et al., 2017; details removed for blind

review). Thus, assessment and promotion of employees' personal and occupational well-being have received ongoing attention in the field of individual differences (Mills, Fleck & Kozikowski, 2013). Relatedly, Emotional Intelligence (EI) is underlined as a psychological resource associated with positive personal and organizational outcomes (Côté, 2014; Lopes, 2016). Regarding theoretical approaches to EI, while trait models propose a broader understanding of emotional skills, from the ability EI model this construct is often referred to as the ability to deal effectively with affective information (Mayer, Caruso & Salovey, 2016).

Following the ability EI framework, emotion-regulation ability (ERA) is defined as the capacity to manage one's own and others' emotional states (Côté, DeCelles, McCarthy, Van Kleef & Hideg, 2011). This specific EI ability represents a core dimension associated with positive outcomes for individuals' psychological functioning, health and well-being (Mayer, Roberts & Barsade, 2008). Therefore, ERA has been proposed as a key facet of employees' personal resources with implications for job and personal outcomes (Côté, 2014). Regarding job satisfaction, recent reviews have provided empirical evidence of the associations between employees' emotion management abilities and positive job attitudes (details removed for blind review; Miao, Humphrey & Qian, 2017a). Similarly, ERA has shown positive links with indicators of subjective well-being (Sánchez-Álvarez et al., 2016), including positive affect (Brackett, Palomera, Mojsa-Kaja, Reyes & Salovey, 2010) and happiness (Cabello & Fernández-Berrocal, 2015; details removed for blind review).

In sum, ERA is considered a personal resource contributing job satisfaction and happiness. Nonetheless, the role of job resources as predictors of satisfaction and well-being has traditionally been underscored (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017). Considering the Job Demand-Resources (JD-R) theory, workplace social support is a key type of job

resource derived from interpersonal relationships within the organization (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017). Existing literature has shown that perceived organizational support influences job outcomes such as organizational commitment, job satisfaction or performance (Riggle, Edmondson & Hansen, 2009). In addition, support from colleagues and supervisors is negatively related to burnout (Ju, Lan, Li, Feng & You, 2015) and positively linked with employees' well-being (Caesens, Stinglhamber & Luypaert, 2014).

## THE PRESENT STUDY

In light of both JD-R theory (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017) and the EI ability approach (Mayer et al., 2016), there are several theoretical and empirical reasons for us to consider the interaction of ERA and perceived support from colleagues and supervisors as predictors of employees' job satisfaction and happiness. First, one of the propositions of JD-R theory is that personal and job resources interact in influencing job performance, health and well-being (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017). Second, regarding the situation-specific model described by Côté (2014), it is plausible to hypothesize that the magnitude of the associations between ERA and job satisfaction and between ERA and happiness might vary depending on contextual factors such as high or low perceived support from colleagues and supervisors.

Although the current literature suggests that both ERA and perceived workplace social support play a role in employees' job satisfaction and happiness, the evidence base is mostly limited to perspectives that examine the unique contributions of personal or job resources to these outcomes. A more integrative approach including both ERA and perceived workplace social support in relation to employees' job satisfaction and happiness should be adopted due to its theoretical and practical implications. In line with the recent review of the JD-R theory (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017), studies

focusing on interactions are needed in order to capture the associations that do not occur in isolation. Besides, the current study has practical implications for designing more effective EI training programmes in a specific work context (Côté, 2014).

Based on the aforementioned findings, the current research aimed to provide preliminary evidence on the relationships among ERA, perceived support from colleagues and supervisors, job satisfaction, and happiness in a multi-occupational sample. Furthermore, the purpose of this research was to examine the moderating role of supervisors and colleagues' support in the relationship of ERA with job satisfaction and happiness. According to the situation-specific model of EI (Côté, 2014), it was hypothesized that support from colleagues and supervisors would moderate the associations between ERA-job satisfaction/happiness; more specifically, those individuals with higher levels of ERA and higher perceived support from colleagues and supervisors would report higher levels of job satisfaction and happiness.

It has been suggested that certain sociodemographic variables should be controlled when conducting studies with personal and work outcomes such as job satisfaction and happiness. For instance, Unanue and colleagues (2017) have reported significant differences in life and job satisfaction regarding gender and age. As reported by Lyubomirsky and colleagues (2005), significant associations have been found between marital status and happiness. Similarly, job tenure and work experience are significantly related to job satisfaction (Brush, Mock & Pooyan, 1987; Riza, Ganzach & Liu, in press). In the same vein, Bakker and Demerouti (2017) have asserted that certain occupations may be related to a higher or lower availability of job resources. Based upon previous studies, we controlled for the potential confounding effects of several sociodemographic variables including age, gender, marital status, occupation, working experience and job tenure in the moderation analyses.

## METHOD

### *Participants*

Participants in this research were 494 employed adults (63.4 % male) with a mean age of 35 years ( $M= 34.72$ ;  $SD= 11.69$ ;  $Range= 18-65$  years). Occupations included construction (27.5%), education (15.8%), human services (13.4%), health care (11.5%), public administration (7.7%) and security services (4.5%), with the rest of employees spread across human resources, transportation, agriculture or utilities. Participants reported 12.61 years of work experience and an average job tenure of 7.71 years. The marital status of the participants was: 47.8% single, 38.3% married, 10% separated/divorced, 2.4% widow/widower and 1.5% couple.

### *Procedure*

Students enrolled in an industrial and organizational psychology course were instructed to collect data. The students received extra course credit for their participation. The self-administered questionnaires were in paper-and-pencil format with brief written instructions. Once the questionnaires were completed, they were returned to the research staff. The participants were given a brief introduction to the study and were informed that their participation was voluntary and anonymous. Previous studies have considered this “snowballing method” as a reliable technique in studies with employed adults (e.g., Bowling, 2010).

### *Measures*

*Emotion-regulation ability.* The managing emotion section of the MSCEIT v.2.0 (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2002) evaluates both intrapersonal and interpersonal emotion regulation abilities through 29 items including emotion management and emotional relationships tasks. Respondents judge the effectiveness of different actions

(1 = very ineffective, 5 = very effective) to identify the most adaptive ways to regulate their own feeling (emotion management tasks) and the feelings of others in social situations (emotional relationships tasks). We used standard scores that are interpreted in a similar way to common IQ tests (Mean= 100 and Standard Deviation= 15). Although the test publisher does not authorize reproduction of actual instrument items for fear of invalidating the test, the following is an example of an item when the MSCEIT was being developed: “Alicia just came back from vacation. She was feeling peaceful and content. How well would each action preserve her mood?: (1) She started to make a list of things at home that she needed to do; (2) She began thinking about where and when to go on her next vacation; (3) She called a friend to tell her about the vacation...” The Spanish version has shown excellent psychometric properties (details removed for blind review).

*Social support from colleagues and supervisors.* The Copenhagen Psychosocial Questionnaire II (Pejtersen, Kristensen, Borg & Bjorner, 2010) includes two brief subscales of items regarding the perceived support from colleagues (e.g., “How often do you get help and support from your colleagues?”) and supervisors (e.g., “How often is your nearest superior willing to listen to your problems at work?”) using a 5-point Likert scale. Scores were recoded so that higher scores reflect higher social support from colleagues and supervisors. We used a well-validated Spanish version (Moncada et al., 2014).

*Job satisfaction.* A measure of global job satisfaction was assessed using a brief measure (Judge, Locke, Durham & Kluger, 1998). The instrument comprises five items rated on a 7-point Likert scale from completely disagree (1) to completely agree (7). An example item for job satisfaction is ‘I find real enjoyment in my work’. The Spanish

adaptation has shown adequate validity and reliability (details removed for blind review).

*Happiness.* The Subjective Happiness Scale (SHS; Lyubomirsky & Lepper, 1999) is comprised of four items with a 7-point Likert scale (e.g., ‘In general I consider myself: 1 = not a very happy person to 7 = a very happy person’) The Spanish version has shown excellent validity and reliability (details removed for blind review).

## RESULTS

### *Descriptive analyses*

Means, standard deviations, reliabilities of the different scales and Pearson correlations are shown in Table 1. As expected, ERA was positively related to perceived support from both colleagues and supervisors. Similarly, ERA showed positive associations with job satisfaction and happiness. Finally, perceived support from colleagues as well as from supervisors were positively linked to both job satisfaction and happiness.

Table 1. *Means, standard deviations, internal consistency reliabilities and correlations*

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Emotion-regulation ability	-				
2. Support from colleagues	0.13**	-			
3. Support from supervisors	0.23**	0.50**	-		
4. Job satisfaction	0.37**	0.28**	0.30**	-	
5. Happiness	0.46**	0.23**	0.31**	0.49**	-
M	100.10	3.15	3.00	4.50	5.02
SD	14.33	0.98	1.07	1.30	1.08
Cronbach's alpha	0.87	0.86	0.89	0.87	0.83

Notes:  $N = 494$ . \*\*  $p < 0.01$ .

### *Moderation analyses*

To test the hypotheses, moderation analyses were conducted (see Table 2). We controlled for the potential confounding effects of several variables: Age, gender, marital status, occupation, work experience and job tenure. The SPSS macro PROCESS (Hayes, 2013) was used to run a series of OLS regressions with the centered product term representing the interaction of ERA and support from colleagues/supervisors serving as a predictor of job satisfaction and happiness. Following standard procedures, bootstrap resamples were set to 5000 with confidence intervals generated at the 95% level (Hayes, 2013). The interactions were plotted using procedures outlined by Hayes (2013). Furthermore, we took into consideration the effect size ( $f^2$ ) criteria based on Aguinis and colleagues' work (2005) to determine the unique variance explained by the interaction term in the two assessed dependent variables. In short, we determined whether the interaction products accounted for small ( $f^2 = 0.005$ ), medium ( $f^2 = 0.01$ ), and large effects ( $f^2 = 0.025$ ).

Table 2. *Tested moderation models with job satisfaction and happiness as outcomes predicted by ERA and interactions product*

	<b>Model 1. Job satisfaction</b>				<b>Model 2. Happiness</b>			
	b	SE b	R <sup>2</sup>	95% CI	b	SE b	R <sup>2</sup>	95% CI
<b>Support from colleagues</b>			0.23**				0.35**	
Constant	4.35**	0.40		3.57 to 5.14	5.41**	0.31		4.81 to 6.01
Gender	-0.10	0.12		-0.33 to 0.13	0.22*	0.09		0.05 to 0.40
Age	0.02	0.01		-0.01 to 0.05	-0.02	0.01		-0.04 to 0.01

Marital status	0.04	0.04		-0.04 to 0.13	0.01	0.03		-0.05 to 0.07
Occupation	-0.05	0.03		-0.11 to 0.01	-0.02	0.02		-0.06 to 0.03
Work experience	-0.04*	0.01		-0.06 to -0.01	-0.02*	0.01		-0.04 to 0.00
Job tenure	0.01	0.01		-0.01 to 0.03	0.02**	0.01		0.01 to 0.04
Support from colleagues	0.28**	0.06		0.17 to 0.39	0.19**	0.04		0.10 to 0.27
ERA	4.25**	0.71		2.84 to 5.65	3.82**	0.55		2.75 to 4.89
ERA x support from colleagues	-1.90**	0.67		-3.21 to -0.59	-1.82**	0.51		-2.82 to -0.81
<b>Support from supervisors</b>			0.23**				0.36**	
Constant	4.35**	0.40		3.57 to 5.14	5.42**	0.30		4.82 to 6.01
Gender	-0.13	0.12		-0.35 to 0.10	0.21*	0.09		0.03 to 0.38
Age	0.02	0.01		-0.01 to 0.05	-0.02	0.01		-0.04 to 0.01
Marital status	0.06	0.04		-0.02 to 0.14	0.02	0.03		-0.04 to 0.08
Occupation	-0.05	0.03		-0.10 to 0.01	-0.01	0.02		-0.05 to 0.03
Work experience	-0.03*	0.01		-0.06 to -0.01	-0.02	0.01		-0.04 to 0.00
Job tenure	0.01	0.01		-0.01 to 0.03	0.02	0.01		0.00 to 0.03
Support from supervisors	0.22**	0.05		0.12 to 0.32	0.18**	0.04		0.10 to 0.26
ERA	3.97**	0.72		2.57 to 5.38	3.62**	0.54		2.55 to 4.69
ERA x support from supervisors	-2.26**	0.65		-3.53 to -0.98	-1.94**	0.49		-2.91 to -0.97

Notes: b = Unstandardized beta; SE b = Standard error of beta; CI = Confidence Intervals.

\*  $p < 0.05$ .

\*\*  $p < 0.01$ .

With respect to job satisfaction, the full prediction model for the moderating variable support from colleagues was significant ( $F(9,484) = 16.09, p < 0.01$ ) and accounted for 23% of variance. As shown in Table 2, no covariate effects were found except for work

experience. The interaction term ERA x support from colleagues was found to contribute to explaining job satisfaction ( $\Delta R^2 = 0.013$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). According to Aguinis and colleagues (2005), the interaction accounted for a medium ( $f^2 = 0.013$ ) amount of variance in job satisfaction.

Figure 1 shows that the relationship between ERA and job satisfaction weakened as levels of perceived support from colleagues increased. Specifically, the association between ERA and job satisfaction at low levels of colleagues' support was significant ( $b = 6.10$ ,  $t_{(484)} = 7.16$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). At high levels of support from colleagues, the relationship between ERA and job satisfaction decreased but remained significant ( $b = 2.39$ ,  $t_{(484)} = 2.23$ ,  $p < 0.050$ ). Furthermore, post-hoc analyses showed that the slopes of the two lines were significantly different ( $t = 2.72$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ).

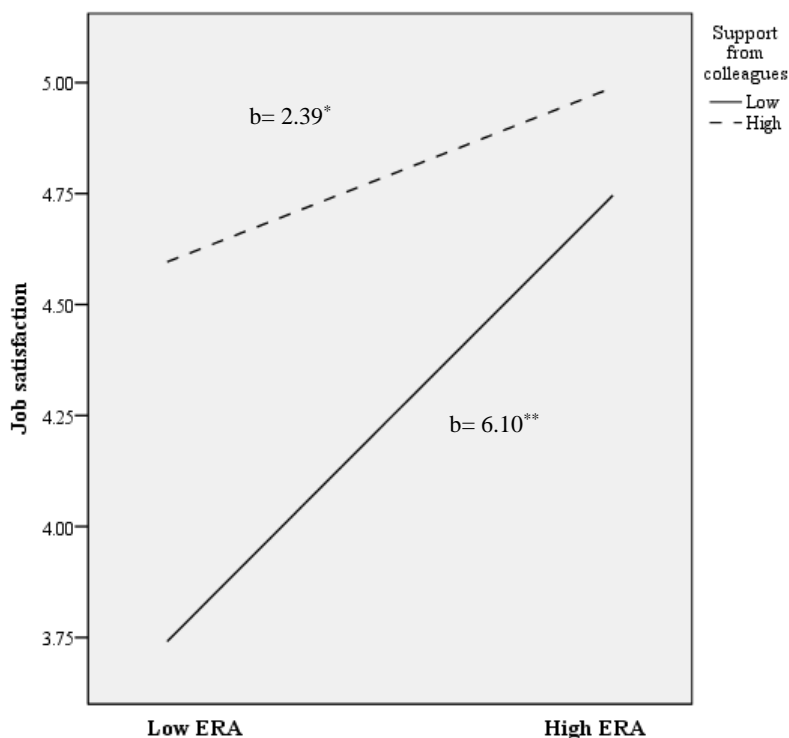
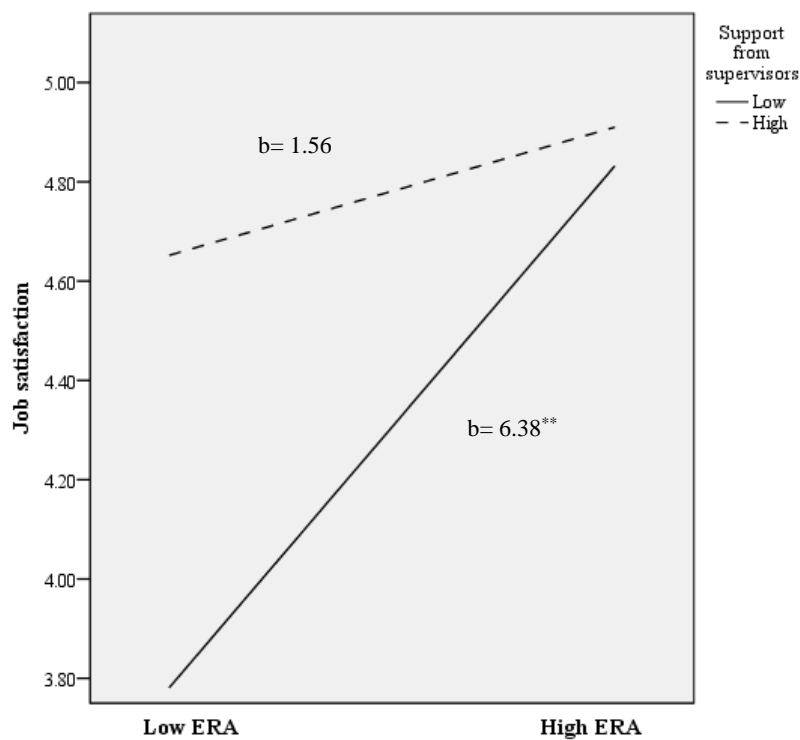


Fig. 1. Relationship of ERA and support from colleagues for predicting job satisfaction.

Notes: ERA = Emotion-regulation ability; \*  $p < 0.05$ ; \*\*  $p < 0.01$ .

The full prediction model including support from supervisors as a moderator explained 23% of variance in job satisfaction ( $F(9,484) = 16.23, p < 0.01$ ). Covariates effects were found for work experience. The interaction term ERA x support from supervisors was found to add unique variance in job satisfaction scores ( $\Delta R^2 = 0.019, p < 0.01$ ). The interaction accounted for a medium ( $f^2 = 0.019$ ) amount of variance. As shown in Figure 2, the association between ERA and job satisfaction at low levels of supervisors' support was significant ( $b = 6.38, t_{(484)} = 7.22, p < 0.01$ ). Contrarily, at high levels of support from supervisors, the relationship between ERA and job satisfaction was not significant ( $b = 1.56, t_{(484)} = 1.43, p = 0.155$ ). Results from post-hoc analyses showed significant differences between the slopes of the two lines ( $t = 3.42, p < 0.01$ ).



*Fig. 2.* Relationship of ERA and support from supervisors for predicting job satisfaction. *Notes:* ERA = Emotion-regulation ability; \*  $p < 0.05$ ; \*\*  $p < 0.01$ .

Regarding happiness, the full prediction model for the moderating variable support from colleagues was significant ( $F(9,484) = 28.56, p < 0.01$ ) and accounted for 35% of

variance (see table 2). Covariates effects were found for gender, work experience and job tenure. The interaction term ERA x support from colleagues was significant ( $\Delta R^2 = 0.017$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) and accounted for a medium ( $f^2 = 0.017$ ) amount of variance in happiness.

As shown in Figure 3, the relationship between ERA and happiness weakened as levels of perceived support from colleagues increased. At low levels of support from colleagues, the association between ERA and happiness was significant ( $b = 5.60$ ,  $t_{(484)} = 8.57$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). At high levels of colleagues' support, the relationship between ERA and happiness decreased but remained significant ( $b = 2.04$ ,  $t_{(484)} = 2.49$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). Post-hoc analyses showed the slopes were significantly different ( $t = 3.39$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ).

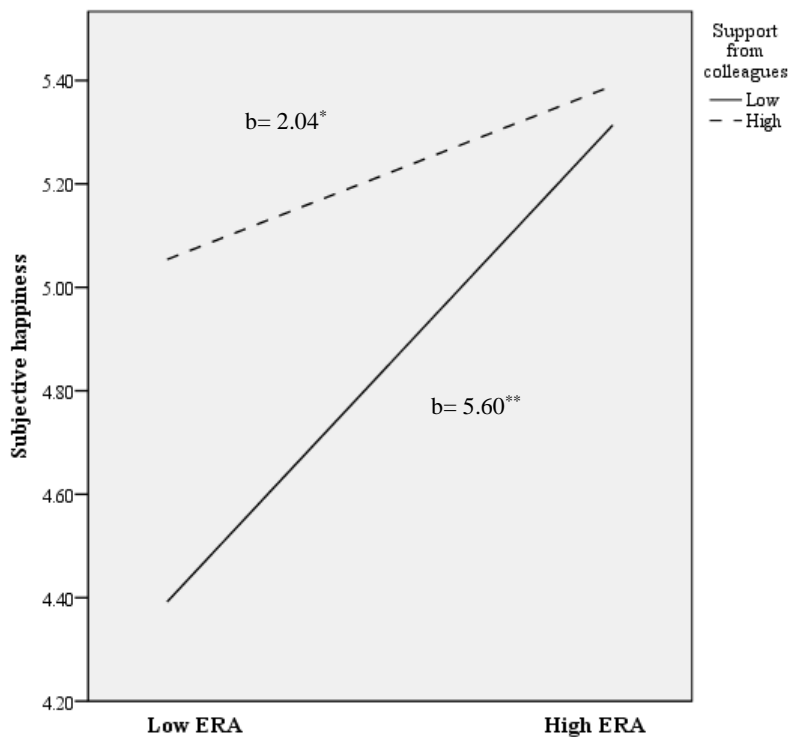
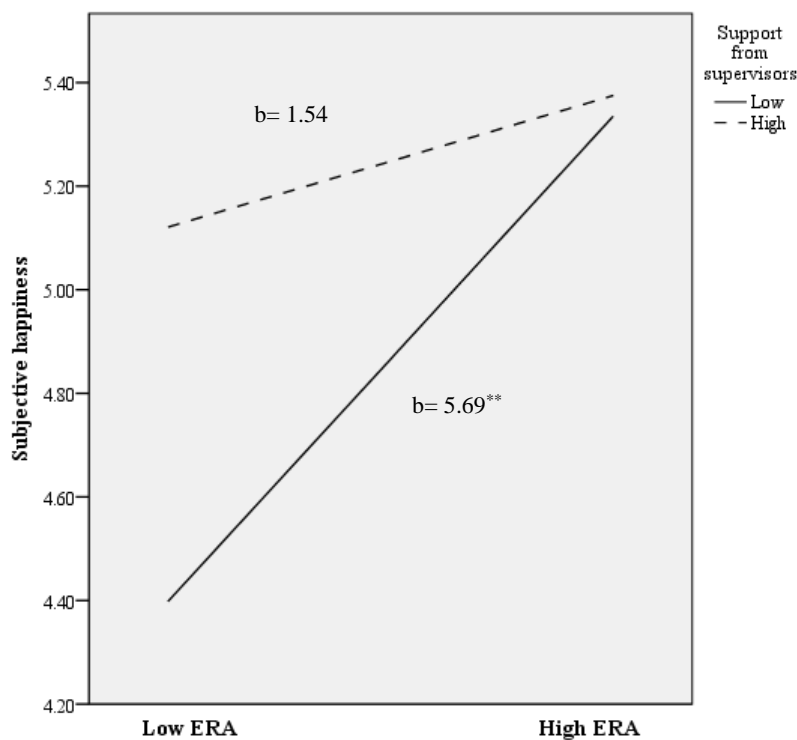


Fig. 3. Relationship of ERA and support from colleagues for predicting happiness.

Notes: ERA = Emotion-regulation ability; \*  $p < 0.05$ ; \*\*  $p < 0.01$ .

The full prediction model including support from supervisors explained 36% of the variance in happiness ( $F(9,484) = 29.83$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). Gender and job tenure showed

significant effects on happiness. The interaction term ERA x support from supervisors was found to add unique variance ( $\Delta R^2 = 0.021$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). According to Aguinis and colleagues (2005), the interaction accounted for a medium ( $f^2 = 0.021$ ) amount of variance. Figure 4 shows that the association between ERA and happiness at low levels of supervisor support was significant ( $b = 5.69$ ,  $t_{(484)} = 8.46$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), whereas it was not significant at high levels of support from supervisors ( $b = 1.54$ ,  $t_{(484)} = 1.85$ ,  $p = 0.065$ ). Post-hoc analyses revealed the slopes were statistically different ( $t = 3.87$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ).



*Fig. 4.* Relationship of ERA and support from supervisors for predicting happiness.

*Notes:* ERA = Emotion-regulation ability; \*  $p < 0.05$  ; \*\*  $p < 0.01$ .

## DISCUSSION

In a dynamic organizational context, promoting individuals' and organizations' resources has become a major goal for researchers and practitioners (Di Fabio, 2017a).

In recent decades, EI abilities have been suggested as crucial resources for promoting

health, well-being and satisfaction within organizations (Côté, 2014). This work aimed to extend the current literature, providing empirical support for the interaction between ERA, as a major dimension of the EI construct, and perceived support from colleagues and supervisors in predicting job satisfaction and happiness in a multi-occupational sample.

Regarding the associations between variables, ERA was positively related to social support from co-workers and supervisors, consistently with prior research (Côté, 2014). Consistent with previous findings, these data suggest that employees who display a higher tendency to be flexible when managing their own emotional states and set more appropriate goals for the particular circumstances may be more likely to count on colleagues and supervisors (Lopes, Salovey, Côté & Beers, 2005; Nelis et al., 2011). Additionally, employees skilled at emotion regulation strategies reported higher job satisfaction and happiness than their low ERA counterparts, which is supported by previous studies (Brackett et al., 2010; details removed for blind review).

With respect to the interaction between ERA and perceived workplace social support, higher levels of job satisfaction and happiness were reported by those employees with higher levels of ERA and higher perceived support from colleagues and supervisors. Interestingly, at low levels of perceived workplace social support, the association between ERA and job satisfaction/happiness was stronger than when higher support from colleagues/supervisors was reported. Following the conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 2002), a plausible explanation is that the lack of resources in the workplace, such as social support from colleagues and supervisors, may lead to increased salience of personal resources such as emotion-regulation abilities. Accordingly, employees perceiving low levels of workplace social support may be required to display a wider repertoire of emotion-regulation strategies than their

counterparts with higher perceived support. These novel findings are in line with prior research following the JD-R theory on the boosting effect of resources, that is, the salient effect of personal and job resources when employees deal with high job demands (Dicke, Stebner, Linninger, Kunter & Leutner, 2017; details removed for blind review).

## LIMITATIONS AND FURTHER RESEARCH

There are limitations to this study that may suggest further avenues for research. Regarding the potential common-method bias derived from the use of self-report measures, this issue has been considered as a risk for inflated results within organizational research (e.g., Bakker & Demerouti, 2017). However, there are several reasons that may lead us to find this issue less problematic such as the adequate construct validity of our main study variables or the inclusion of several control variables (Conway & Lance, 2010). Besides, in the present study a performance-based ability EI test was used (Côté, 2014). Nonetheless, as Bakker and Demerouti (2017) asserted, future studies are advised to use objective measures of job resources (e.g., observer ratings) and well-being (e.g., physical health indicators).

Given the empirical evidence on leaders' EI, subordinates' EI and job satisfaction, the replication of these findings adopting multi-level designs would be crucial (Miao, Humphrey & Qian, 2016). Moreover, it would also be a worth-while avenue to examine the interactive effects of ERA and workplace social support on crucial indicators of individuals' well-being such as work-family conflict and enrichment (Liu and Cheung, 2015). Besides, as job satisfaction was assessed using a global measure, further research measuring job satisfaction facets (i.e. satisfaction with pay or promotional opportunities) may yield differential association patterns amongst ERA and supervisors from colleagues and supervisor with job satisfaction facets (Bowling et al., 2010).

Furthermore, a fruitful avenue would be to replicate this research while taking into consideration relevant motivational and attitudinal outcomes such as work engagement or withdrawal intentions (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017, Miao et al., 2017a) and work criteria such as job performance (Judge et al., 2017). In the same vein, further research should examine the potential interaction of self-efficacy beliefs, ERA and workplace social support in predicting job satisfaction and happiness (Dicke et al., 2017; Strobel, Tumasjan & Spörrle, 2011). Finally, the cross-sectional design and the correlational data limit our ability to interpret the directionality of any causal relationships among the present variables. Undoubtedly, future studies may profitably adopt longitudinal and experimental designs to examine the associations between personal and job resources in predicting job satisfaction and happiness over time (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017).

#### PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

Limitations notwithstanding, this research provides insight into when ERA and support from colleagues and supervisors appear to be most likely to be linked to happiness and job satisfaction. Therefore, it has important practical implications for researchers and practitioners with the aim of enhancing employees' satisfaction and well-being, alongside with building healthy organizations. Given that EI training appears to represent an effective means of promoting a more emotionally intelligent workforce, (Mattingly & Kraiger, in press), these results might provide guidance in designing EI interventions tailored to the organizations' characteristics (i.e. perceived social support from colleagues and supervisors). The results from our research suggest ERA may complement positive psychology interventions fostering personal resources at work (Ouweneel, Le Blanc & Schaufeli, 2013), as it influences job and personal well-being (Côté, 2014; Sánchez-Álvarez et al., 2016).

Conceptualizing healthy organizations with a wider focus on individuals', groups' and organizations' resources (Di Fabio, 2017a; Tetrick and Peiró, 2012), ERA has implications for building meaningful and deep relationships (Lopes et al., 2005). In line with Di Fabio (2017a), interventions with the aim of developing personal resources in the workplace could help employees interact in a healthier manner. For instance, training focusing on helping employees managing their or others' emotions may contribute to creating better relationships with colleagues and supervisors (Lopes, 2016). This may in turn develop a more positive social atmosphere in which employees can feel supported and experience emotional or instrumental support. Besides, emotion regulation has shown associations with the empathy of workers (Berrios-Martos, López-Zafra, Pulido-Martos & Augusto, 2013). Therefore, these EI interventions may help prevent harmful behaviours within the organization and even start a virtuous cycle of flourishing both in employees' lives and at work (Miao, Humphrey & Qian, 2017b; Unanue, Gómez, Cortez, Oyanedel & Mendiburo-Seguel, 2017).

In sum, these results highlight the key role of ERA as a facet of employees' personal resources with effects on both positive attitudes towards work and happiness. This novel evidence suggests the need for implementing prevention programmes aimed at increasing positive individual resources while enhancing organizational support.

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