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Managing own and others' emotions: A weekly diary study on the enactment of emotional intelligence

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ABSTRACT

The present study tests a process model of emotional intelligence (EI) which distinguishes how individuals deal with their own and others' emotions during work – from week to week. Using dynamic EI theory, we hypothesize that the appraisal of self-emotions versus other-emotions elicits different emotion management strategies, respectively proactively seeking social job resources (job crafting) or self- or other-focused emotion regulation. These strategies, in turn, are expected to affect one's level of energy and active learning behavior. In addition, we predict that self-focused emotion regulation qualifies these self- and other-focused EI processes. Multilevel path analyses of 638 weekly diaries filled out by 226 trainees revealed that weekly appraisal of others' emotions was positively related to weekly active learning, through (a) other-focused emotion regulation and (b) crafting social job resources. Further, weekly appraisal of trainees' own emotions was positively related to their weekly level of energy, through (a) self-focused emotion regulation and (b) crafting social job resources. Consistent with the proposed model, the appraisal of own emotions only fostered job crafting when trainees regulated their emotions. These findings contribute to the literature by showing the enactment of EI during weekly working life.

1. Introduction

When working as a social worker, psychotherapist, or physician, one core element of the job is to help clients or patients to deal with negative emotions. In fact, the extent to which caring professionals are able to achieve this may partly determine the effectiveness of the treatment they provide (Elliott, Bohart, Watson, & Greenberg, 2011; Markowitz & Milrod, 2011; Neumann et al., 2009). For example, research showed that the level of empathy a physician displays protects patients from depressive symptoms and has a positive influence on patients' quality of life (Neumann et al., 2007). However, caring professionals are not always immune to the emotional impact that these tasks may have on their own well-being. There is a long-standing notion in the literature that daily exposure to patients' (mostly negative) emotions may elicit health care worker fatigue and stress, or even lead to job burnout or traumatization (Pearlman & Mac Ian, 1995; Shepherd & Hodgkinson, 1990). Moreover, caring professionals who cannot cope with this negative emotional impact are at risk to experience compassion fatigue, a state of reduced emotional care for others (Figley, 2002; Sabo, 2006). Hence, in order to work energetically and effectively in caring professions, employees need to adequately deal

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with the emotions of others and with their own emotions (Le, Impett, Lemay Jr, Muise, & Tskhay, 2018).

Emotional intelligence (EI) has been indicated to be one of the key factors in doing successful people work (Joseph & Newman, 2010; Lewis, Neville, & Ashkanasy, 2017). EI can broadly be described as the knowledge or ability to effectively process emotions of the self and others in order to regulate social and emotional behavior (Petrides, 2011; Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Zeidner, Roberts, & Matthews, 2008). The emotions that a caring professional perceives or experiences during work may activate the use of EI, which, in turn, may benefit patient care and employee well-being (e.g., energy level). Prior research has shown that EI is positively associated with performance and employee well-being in caring professions. To illustrate, health-care professionals high in EI have better relationships with their patients (Weng, 2008; Weng et al., 2011), and achieve higher clinical performance levels (Codier, Kooker, & Shoultz, 2008). They report lower levels of job stress (Karimi, Leggat, Donohue, Farrell, & Couper, 2014), suffer less from compassion fatigue (Zeidner, Hadar, Matthews, & Roberts, 2013), and are more engaged in their work (Zhu, Liu, Guo, Zhao, & Lou, 2015). Moreover, the positive effects of EI are already apparent in medical school. A recent review of the literature has concluded that EI buffers the experience of stress, promotes effective communication, and improves nursing performance among nurses in training (Lewis et al., 2017). We propose that this involves a dual process: (a) dealing with the emotions of the self (i.e., self-emotions), and (b) dealing with the emotions of others (i.e., other-emotions). However, research examining this phenomenon has primarily adopted cross-sectional research designs or longitudinal designs with long time lags using global EI scores. Such research designs cannot reveal the “dual processes” of dealing with own and others' emotions that caring professionals need to engage in on a weekly basis. Moreover, such research designs cannot show how these self- and other-focused EI processes might interact with each other and how they may relate to different types of employee behaviors and outcomes.

The present study aims to disclose how individuals use EI to deal with own and others' emotions at work by means of a weekly diary design. Such a design allows focusing on individuals' enactment of EI during a regular workweek and to relate this to the extent to which they engage in active learning and to their level of energy. Instead of examining global EI, the focus of this study thus is on the use of various specific EI facets that may run parallel or that may complement each other when interacting with others. The present study contributes to the existing literature in at least three ways. First, by conducting a weekly diary study, we aim to shed light on the actual usage of EI during individuals' weekly working life. This will help to understand what the enactment of EI looks like and what direct consequences it has on employees' workweeks. Second, disentangling how employees deal with their own versus others' emotions provides insight into two important emotion-related processes that individuals perform during social contact (i.e., the enactments of self-focused EI and other-focused EI). This differentiation may help to unravel the behavioral mechanisms and consequences that are associated with the exposure to own or others' emotions at work. Third, by examining how self- and other-focused EI processes interact it may be possible to disentangle under which conditions caring professionals are likely to function best, or conversely, under which conditions they are vulnerable to the potential negative emotional impact of working with others' emotions.

The current sample of social workers in training enables investigating these research questions among individuals who will still respond in an authentic and naturalistic manner to the emotions they are exposed to during work. Specifically, due to their limited work experience, the trainees are not yet used to highly adaptive coping mechanisms (Thomas & Otis, 2010), they do not suffer from reduced reactivity to others' emotions (Decety, Yang, & Cheng, 2010), and they are not self-selected out of their profession because of lacking the required emotional skills for the job (Wilk, Desmarais, & Sackett, 1995). Hence, the consequences of working with emotions may be more pronounced among trainees than among experienced caring professionals, which may facilitate conceptual clarity of the emotion-related processes involved.

2. Emotional intelligence

The construct of EI has been introduced a few decades ago (e.g., Goleman, 1995; Payne, 1985; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Ever since, researchers have used EI as a relevant factor to distinguish individuals in terms of their emotional knowledge or skills. This research tradition has developed against the background of an on-going debate on the conceptualization and measurement of EI (Zeidner et al., 2008). Specifically, the field broadly uses two different conceptualizations of EI, namely ability EI and trait EI (Siegling, Saklofske, & Petrides, 2015). Ability EI is often defined as a set of interrelated abilities that can best be measured using performance-based tests, the way in which cognitive intelligence is also measured. The Four-Branch Model of ability EI can be considered the most influential model in this field. This model describes EI as (1) the ability to perceive emotion, (2) the ability to use emotion to facilitate thinking, (3) the ability to understand emotion, and (4) the ability to regulate emotion (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Trait EI, on the other hand, is defined as a set of emotion-related traits or tendencies that can best be measured using self-reported questionnaires. This conceptualization and measurement is more in line with personality constructs. The theoretical and methodological differences between ability EI and trait EI can be illustrated by the relatively low correlations between measures capturing both types of EI, which typically range between 0.20 and 0.30 (Brannick et al., 2009; Petrides, 2011).

The predominant focus of the EI literature has been on individual differences and the consequences of such differences in various life domains (Peña-Sarrionandia, Mikolajczak, & Gross, 2015). Several meta-analyses have shown that EI has weak to moderate positive associations with outcomes such as job performance (Joseph & Newman, 2010; O'Boyle Jr, Humphrey, Pollack, Hawver, & Story, 2011), health (Martins, Ramalho, & Morin, 2010), and social effectiveness (Van der Linden et al., 2017). However, recently, this focus has begun to shift towards more process-based approaches that integrate knowledge stemming from other domains of the affective sciences (e.g., Barrett & Salovey, 2002; Joseph & Newman, 2010; Pekaar, Van der Linden, Bakker, & Born, 2017a; Peña-Sarrionandia et al., 2015). We consider this a positive development because it may help to understand how EI affects daily life and under which circumstances individuals profit most from it. Therefore, an important aim of the present study is to examine how

individuals respond to self-emotions and other-emotions during their work on a weekly basis.

Current knowledge on EI processes has yielded at least two relevant insights that are important for the present study. First of all, the enactment of EI starts with the appraisal of emotions before these emotions can be processed more thoroughly. Hence, the appraisal of emotions seems a prerequisite for more complex emotion-related processes such as the regulation of emotions. This highest and most complex level of emotion processing, emotion regulation, is the ultimate step through which external criteria such as job performance are affected (Gross & Thompson, 2007; Joseph & Newman, 2010; Peña-Sarrionandia et al., 2015). A second relevant insight is that EI facets can be distinguished in terms of their focus on emotions of the self or emotions of others (i.e., self-focused EI and other-focused EI; Pekaar, Bakker, Van der Linden, & Born, 2018; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Dealing with these two sources of emotions is conceptually different as self-emotions are internal experiences that directly influence one's mood, behavior, and/or cognitions (Frijda, 1986), whereas other-emotions belong to others, so dealing with these emotions is part of a social process that may also influence the other person (Niven, 2017).

Drawing from these insights, the present study aims to test how trainees use EI to deal with their own and others' emotions during a regular workweek, and how this impacts their active learning behavior and level of energy. We focus on active learning behavior because this is a valuable outcome for individuals in a learning environment, such as the trainees in the present study (Bakker, Demerouti, & Ten Brummelhuis, 2012). One of the main goals of working in a learning environment (i.e., a traineeship) is that individuals develop themselves professionally. Active learning behavior, defined as an active and open attitude in which new skills and knowledge can be learned and applied (Bakker et al., 2012), contributes to employee development (Simmering, Colquitt, Noe, & Porter, 2003), which makes it an important outcome for trainees. As a proxy of trainees' well-being at work we examine their level of energy. Coping with new and difficult affective situations at work costs energy (Zohar, Tzischinski, & Epstein, 2003). These energetic resources need to be replenished, for example by taking rest or seeking social support, in order to remain able to reach one's work goals (Frese & Zapf, 1994). The fleeting nature of energy and its potential to be replenished with adaptive emotion management strategies makes it a relevant outcome in the context of trainees' weekly work experience.

In the next sections of the paper, we describe self- and other-focused EI as core concepts of our model and develop our hypotheses. Specifically, we will first elaborate on the self- and other-focused EI processes and then describe how the regulation of own emotions may qualify these processes. Fig. 1 provides our conceptual model. In short, the left-hand side of this figure shows how the EI processes start with the appraisal of one's own and/or others' emotions. Consequently, these emotion appraisals lead to different emotion management strategies (self-focused emotion regulation, crafting social job resources, and other-focused emotion regulation) that are portrayed in the middle of the figure. The emotion management strategies, in turn, lead to the outcomes of active learning and energy that are depicted on the right-hand side of Fig. 1. The moderating role of self-focused emotion regulation on the proposed processes is represented with the diagonal arrows that are named H3a-c. In the following sections, we will elaborate on the

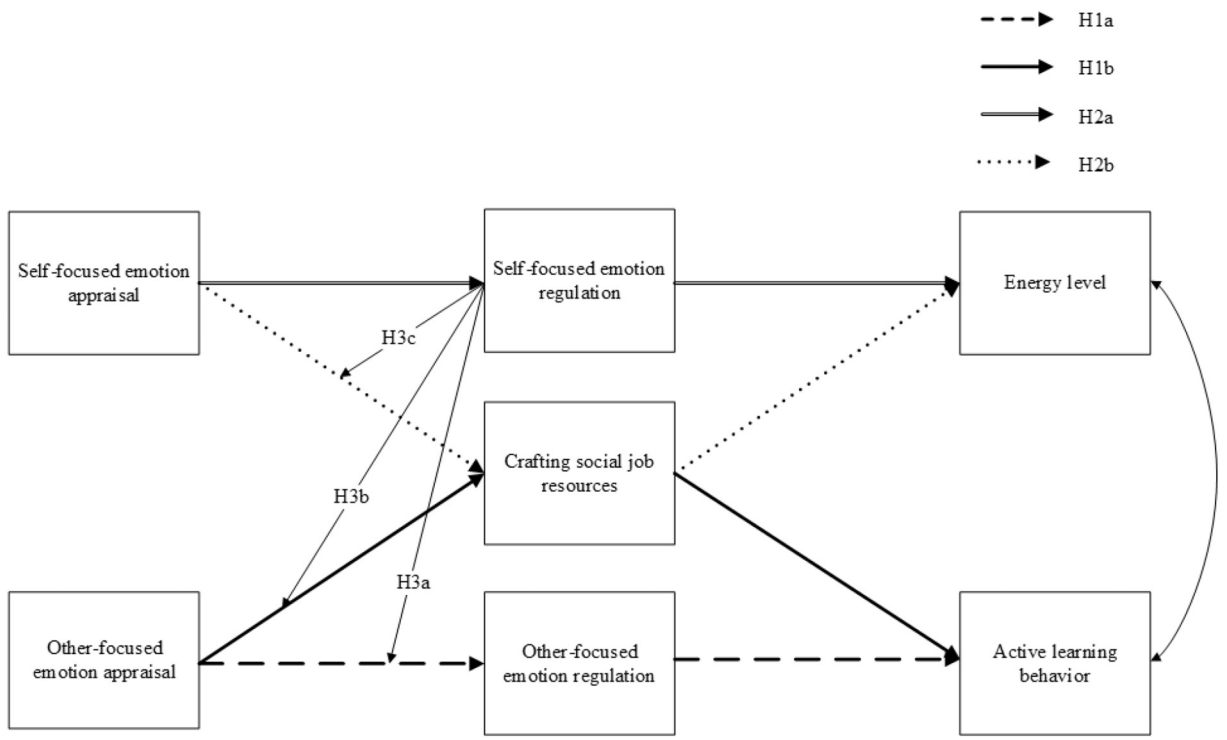

Fig. 1. Proposed process model of EI. The horizontal and diagonal arrows in bold represent the hypothesized self- and other-focused EI processes (Hypothesis 1a-2b). The vertical arrows including Hypothesis 3a-c represent the hypothesized moderating role of self-focused emotion regulation on the self- and other-focused EI processes. All hypothesized paths are positive.

main components as depicted in our conceptual model.

3. Other-focused emotional intelligence and active learning behavior

We start with the way individuals respond to the emotions of others. A first step that is needed to set this process in motion is that an individual becomes aware of the emotions of others (see other-focused emotion appraisal on the left-hand side of Fig. 1). Once these emotions are appraised, a subsequent step will be to manage them. There are numerous ways in which individuals may manage the emotions of others. An individual may typically use different strategies to do so, such as humor, listening, and eye contact (for an overview, see Niven, Totterdell, & Holman, 2009). Generally, intelligent emotion regulation can be characterized by a flexible and tailor-made use of various emotion management strategies (Mayer, Roberts, & Barsade, 2008; Mayer & Salovey, 1995). This intelligent way of responding to others' emotions has been shown to contribute to the communication with others or the effectiveness of patient treatment (Dube, Belanger, & Trudeau, 1996; Hueston et al., 2004). Consequently, when trainees get more experience in managing the emotions of patients they will most likely learn to communicate better with patients and to develop their treatment skills. Such learning and development processes are all part of active learning (Bakker et al., 2012).

We expect that the appraisal of others' emotions leads to the management of these emotions, which, in turn, contributes to active learning. This process is depicted in the lower part of Fig. 1. In the context of a traineeship in which one is expected to behave professionally and to respond to the emotions of patients, trainees have basically two options to manage these emotions. A first possibility is that trainees directly regulate the emotions of the patients themselves (i.e., other-focused emotion regulation). Fig. 1 shows this process with dashed arrows. However, as this task might be quite new and challenging for a trainee, a second possibility is to obtain assistance from colleagues or a supervisor. This alternative process is depicted with bold arrows in Fig. 1. This assistance could, for example, take the form of social support, supervisory coaching, or feedback (Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2012). Proactively increasing such social job resources in order to execute a work task is part of job crafting. Job crafting has been defined as employees' own initiatives to redesign parts of their job to create a better fit with their abilities and preferences (Tims et al., 2012; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Hence, crafting social job resources to deal with others' emotions may be a good alternative strategy for trainees as it may compensate for the limited experience or knowledge they have.

Hypothesis 1a. At the week-level, other-focused emotion appraisal is positively related to active learning behavior through other-focused emotion regulation.

Hypothesis 1b. At the week-level, other-focused emotion appraisal is positively related to active learning behavior through crafting social job resources.

4. Self-focused emotional intelligence and energy

We also examine how individuals respond to their own emotions at work. Stimulated by a high prevalence of job stress and burnout among caring professionals (e.g., Khamisa, Peltzer, & Oldenburg, 2013; Paris & Hoge, 2010), scholars and practitioners have only recently begun to place more emphasis on this process (Satterfield & Hughes, 2007; Shapiro, Shapiro, & Schwartz, 2000). The idea is that self-focused emotional skills, such as self-focused EI, are important for caring professionals as they may contribute to employee well-being by diminishing job stress or replenishing energy (Satterfield & Hughes, 2007). Following this, some scholars argue that self-focused emotional skills are equally important for the health care profession as other-focused emotional skills and should therefore be included in medical education and clinical practice (Novack et al., 1997). A recent meta-analysis confirmed that people who care for others but neglect to care for themselves suffer from lower levels of well-being (Le et al., 2018). Against this background, the current study examines how the self-focused EI process unfolds during a regular workweek – parallel to the aforementioned other-focused EI process.

The proposed self-focused EI process starts when individuals appraise their own emotions (see self-focused emotion appraisal on the left-hand side of Fig. 1). As caring professionals are confronted with patient suffering or distress on a daily basis, their emotions may be negatively influenced by their work (i.e., vicarious traumatization; Pearlman & Mac Ian, 1995), which, in turn, may negatively impact their well-being. Therefore, after appraising their own emotions, a consequent step is to manage these emotions. The literature has suggested several strategies by which caring professionals can effectively manage their own emotions ranging from mindfulness (Epstein, 1999) to improving their work-home balance (Novack et al., 1997). Hence, a first possibility is that the trainees directly regulate their own emotions (i.e., self-focused emotion regulation). The upper part of Fig. 1 shows this process with doubled arrows. An alternative effective way to cope with the emotional impact of caring work, however, is to mobilize one's social job resources (De Boer et al., 2011; Novack et al., 1997). This process is depicted with dotted arrows in the upper part of Fig. 1. Especially for trainees who work in a new environment and occupation, it could be valuable to receive social support, advice, or feedback from experienced colleagues or supervisors. Hence, crafting social job resources may be a useful and effective strategy to cope with the emotional impact of caring work. These social job resources are expected to positively affect trainees' levels of energy.

Hypothesis 2a. At the week-level, self-focused emotion appraisal is positively related to energy level through self-focused emotion regulation.

Hypothesis 2b. At the week-level, self-focused emotion appraisal is positively related to energy level through crafting social job resources.

5. Moderating role of self-focused emotion regulation

In the previous paragraphs, we have described the emotion-related processes that deal with one's own and others' emotions as two parallel processes: Managing the emotions of others contributes to active learning, whereas managing the emotions of the self protects or replenishes one's energetic resources. This first process is illustrated in the lower part of Fig. 1, whereas the latter process is illustrated in the upper part of Fig. 1. Yet, it may be clear that this is a simplification of what really happens when the emotions of others emotionally impact an individual (Pekaar et al., 2017a). In real life, the processing of one's own and others' emotions may influence each other reciprocally. Following this, we propose that there may be conditions under which individuals are better equipped to deal with self-emotions and other-emotions. One pivotal factor that may benefit the proposed self- and other-focused EI processes is the extent to which individuals have regulated their own emotions. Previous research showed that experienced therapists, as compared to non-therapists, are more skilled in the regulation of their own emotions (Hassenstab, Dziobek, Rogers, Wolf, & Convit, 2007; Pletzer, Sanchez, & Scheibe, 2015). This competence helps them to effectively manage the emotions of patients (Paivio, 2013), and also to safe-guard their own well-being (Berking & Wupperman, 2012). We expect that these effects generalize to the weekly work experience of trainees in the sense that they may benefit from regulating their own emotions before crafting their social job resources or managing the emotions of others.

There are several reasons to expect that the regulation of individuals' own emotions would moderate the relation between appraising the emotions of others and the use of effective emotion management strategies at work (see the diagonal arrows named H3a and H3b in Fig. 1). First, in weeks when individuals more strongly regulate their own emotions they may also more often engage in managing others' emotions because they will not be distracted by their own emotions. Being emotional may interfere with other activities because it can lead to ruminative thoughts or heightened levels of arousal that distract one's attention from the task at hand (Beal, Weiss, Barros, & MacDermid, 2005). Second, individuals who already have regulated their own emotions can use all their energetic and processing resources to focus on others, which is a better starting point than one in which these resources need to be allocated over others and the self (Pekaar, Van der Linden, Bakker, & Born, 2017b). Subsequently, we pose the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 3a. The weekly positive relationship between other-focused emotion appraisal and other-focused emotion regulation is stronger in weeks when trainees regulate their emotions more.

Hypothesis 3b. The weekly positive relationship between other-focused emotion appraisal and crafting social job resources is stronger in weeks when trainees regulate their emotions more.

We expect a similar pattern with regard to crafting social job resources in order to cope with own emotions. Namely, when individuals appraise their emotions at work, they will craft more social job resources in weeks when they do not let these emotions take over (see the diagonal arrow named H3c in Fig. 1). This effect may occur for the following reasons. First, when individuals regulate their emotions more, they may be better able to mobilize social resources when appraising their own emotional state. This idea draws from the proactivity literature, which states that appraisal processes give reason to engage in proactive behaviors, whereas regulation processes actually enable individuals to engage in proactive behaviors (Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010). Second, when individuals have their own emotions under control, they can spend all their energy on crafting social job resources (Beal et al., 2005). This may be a more optimal situation than one in which individuals appraise their emotions but lack the (emotional) control that is needed to ask others for help or advice.

Hypothesis 3c. The weekly positive relationship between self-focused emotion appraisal and crafting social job resources is stronger in weeks when trainees regulate their emotions more.

6. Method

6.1. Participants and procedure

Participants consisted of the entire cohort of third-year students that were enrolled in the Social Work track of a Dutch school for higher professional education in 2016–2017. Students in this track are in training to become social workers in domains like intellectual-disability nursing, addiction care, or child abuse. In the third year of the study program, students are required to work full-time as a trainee (a social worker in training) in a relevant organization. This traineeship is generally their first real work experience in the field for a longer period of time. As part of the traineeship, the students took part in the current study to help them reflect on their (learning) experience during the traineeship. All trainees were asked to fill out a general questionnaire at the start of their traineeship, and three weekly diary surveys during their traineeship in which they reflected on their functioning in the respective weeks. In these same weeks, the practical supervisors of the trainees (mostly senior employees working in the health care organizations) were asked to fill out rating forms on the active learning behavior (for a definition see below) of the trainees.

Participation was compulsory but anonymous. At the start of the different data collection periods, the trainees received links to the online questionnaires. As the practical supervisors were not formally required to participate, time and effort to evaluate the trainees were minimized by providing them with paper-and-pencil rating forms. Later, the researchers digitalized and merged the paper-pencil data with the self-reported data of the trainees.

The entire cohort included 281 students. However, several students could not participate in the study because they were doing their traineeship abroad. In total, 242 trainees answered the general questionnaire and completed 654 diary surveys. Because we

were interested in within-person relationships, at least two diary surveys per trainee were needed to examine within-person variation (Ilies et al., 2007). Therefore, we included only those trainees who provided a minimum of two diary surveys. This resulted in a final dataset of 638 diary surveys filled out by 226 trainees, which corresponds to a response rate of 80.4% with 5.9% missing diary surveys. The majority of the diary surveys (n = 530) could be matched with a supervisor rating form. The 108 diary surveys that lacked such a rating form were retained in the dataset because they provided information on the self-reported variables of the trainees.

Participants' average age was 21.46 (SD = 2.05) years, and 11.5% was male. The trainees were enrolled in three different minors, namely “cultural and social development” (n = 9), “social work and social services” (n = 83), or “social educational care” (n = 134). The majority of the trainees had none (46.9%) or limited (i.e., less than six months, 26.1%) work experience in the social work field when they started their traineeship. However, as one of the goals of the traineeship is to experience what it is like to work full-time as a caring professional, the work activities that are expected from trainees are comparable to those that employed caring professionals perform. The type of organizations in which the trainees did their traineeship was diverse and ranged from psychiatric hospitals to schools for blind and deaf children. Despite these differences, the overall aim of all organizations was to improve the life of vulnerable patient groups, and to provide them opportunities to participate independently in society.

6.2. Measures

6.2.1. General questionnaire

The general questionnaire included demographics and an informed consent. This informed consent stated that participation was anonymous and that the data would be treated confidentially.

6.2.2. Weekly diary survey

All measures included in the weekly surveys (i.e., the diary survey and the supervisor rating form) were adapted to measure the constructs week-specifically (Ohly, Sonnentag, Niessen, & Zapf, 2010). That is, the time frame was adjusted so that the items referred to the specific weeks, and the answer scales were broadened because fluctuations in weekly behaviors or feelings may be more subtle than general tendencies (Fisher & To, 2012; Ohly et al., 2010). Accordingly, we presented all items in the weekly surveys on seven-point Likert scales (1 = *totally disagree*, 7 = *totally agree*).

6.2.2.1. Emotional intelligence. The weekly enactment of EI was measured using the Rotterdam Emotional Intelligence Scale (REIS; Pekaar et al., 2018). The REIS is a 28-item self-reported EI measure and can, according to Siegling et al. (2015), therefore, be classified under the trait EI tradition. This measure was chosen because it consists of four distinct EI facets that differentiate between appraising and regulating emotions, and between processing emotions of the self versus others. The validity and reliability of the REIS has been demonstrated in eight different studies (Pekaar et al., 2018). Example items are “Last week during my traineeship, I was aware of my own emotions” (self-focused emotion appraisal), “Last week during my traineeship, I knew which feelings others experienced” (other-focused emotion appraisal), “Last week during my traineeship, I was in control of my own emotions” (self-focused emotion regulation), and “Last week during my traineeship, I was able to calm others down” (other-focused emotion regulation). Cronbach's alphas averaged over three weeks were 0.87 (self-focused emotion appraisal), 0.87 (other-focused emotion appraisal), 0.71 (self-focused emotion regulation), and 0.89 (other-focused emotion regulation).

6.2.2.2. Crafting social job resources. Crafting social job resources was measured with the five-item ‘Increasing Social Job Resources’ dimension of the Job Crafting Scale developed by Tims et al. (2012). These authors conceptualize the crafting of social job resources as individuals' proactive efforts to seek social support, supervisory coaching, and feedback at work. An example item is “Last week, I asked my colleagues for advice during my traineeship”. Cronbach's alpha averaged over three weeks was 0.74.

6.2.2.3. Energy level. Weekly level of energy refers to the energy, strength, and focus that employees can invest in their work during a regular week. We measured trainees' weekly energy level with the five-item Resource Depletion Scale of Johnson, Lanaj, and Barnes (2014). An example item is “Last week at my traineeship, I lacked the vigor to continue with my tasks” (reversed). Cronbach's alpha averaged over three weeks was 0.89.

6.2.3. Weekly supervisor-ratings

6.2.3.1. Active learning behavior. We measured trainees' weekly active learning behavior with the seven-item scale developed by Bakker et al. (2012). These authors describe active learning behavior as employees' active self-directed and self-initiated behavior to improve their skills and knowledge. We used supervisor-ratings of active learning because these may be more objective and reliable than self-reports. Example items are “Last week, my trainee tried to develop him/herself all the time”, and “Last week, my trainee tried to learn new things through work”. Cronbach's alpha averaged over three weeks was 0.87.

6.3. Analytic strategy

The current data are hierarchically structured with weeks on the first level (N = 638 weeks) nested within individuals on the second level (N = 226 trainees). To account for this hierarchical structure, the hypotheses were tested using multilevel path analyses in Mplus version 7.4 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998–2015). The (within-person) predictor variables were person-mean centered. In order

to account for the between-person variability in the weekly outcome measures (e.g., variance due to the supervisors who provided the active learning ratings), we decomposed their variances into a latent within-person and between-person component by modelling them on the within-person and between-person levels of our models. This approach is a recommended way to separate within-person variance from between-person variance in Mplus (Hox, 2010; Muthén & Muthén, 1998–2015). Prior to testing the hypotheses, several relevant multilevel confirmatory factor analyses were conducted to examine the measurement model and to empirically distinguish the variables in our models. The parameters of the hypothesized path models were estimated using maximum likelihood estimation with robust standard errors (MLR estimator), which is robust to non-normality of observed variables. Missing data were handled using full information maximum likelihood (FIML) estimation, and model fit was assessed with the RMSEA, CFI, and TLI indices using the conventional cut-off scores of Hu and Bentler (1999).

Hypotheses 1a–2b were tested in a path model including only main effects. In this model, we also tested the indirect (mediation) effects from self- and other-focused emotion appraisal on the outcomes through (a) crafting social job resources, (b) other-focused emotion regulation, and (c) self-focused emotion regulation. We followed the Monte Carlo method for assessing mediation and calculated the distribution of each indirect effect with a 95% confidence interval (CI) using 20,000 repetitions. There is support for mediation when the distribution of possible estimates for the indirect effect lies above or below zero (see Bauer, Preacher, & Gil, 2006; Preacher & Selig, 2012). Subsequently, the interaction terms (other-focused emotion appraisal × self-focused emotion regulation and self-focused emotion appraisal × self-focused emotion regulation) were added to the main effects model to test Hypotheses 3a–c. The predictor variables involved in these interactions were first person-mean centered before we multiplied them to create the interaction terms (Aiken & West, 1991). Simple slope analyses for multilevel models (Preacher, Curran, & Bauer, 2006) were used to explore the interactions further.

7. Results

7.1. Descriptive statistics

Table 1 shows the means, standard deviations, reliabilities, intraclass coefficients (ICC), and correlations among the variables at the within-person and between-person levels of analysis. The ICC reflects the percentage of variance in each weekly measured variable that is explained by between-person differences. The low to moderate ICC values (ranging from 0.32 to 0.45) indicate that there is relatively high within-person variability, which justifies the multilevel approach. Moreover, these ICC values are comparable to the ICC values found in other diary studies examining the use of emotion management strategies in daily life (e.g., Brans, Koval, Verduyn, Lim, & Kuppens, 2013; English, Lee, John, & Gross, 2017).

7.2. Multilevel confirmatory factor analyses

As a first step, the measurement model was examined to check the construct validity and independence of the included variables. This model contained seven factors: self-focused emotion appraisal; other-focused emotion appraisal; self-focused emotion regulation; other-focused emotion regulation; crafting social job resources; energy; and active learning behavior. The multilevel measurement model in which all items of all variables loaded on their respective latent factors showed a good fit to the data (χ^2 (924) = 1931.01, $p < .001$, RMSEA = 0.04, CFI = 0.91, TLI = 0.90).

Second, two additional multilevel confirmatory factor analyses were conducted to examine whether the mediator social job crafting in our model could be empirically distinguished from the outcome active learning behavior. Such a test is important given the conceptual overlap between some items of social job crafting (e.g., “asking for advice”) and active learning behavior (e.g., “trying to learn new things”). Therefore, a model in which the items of each construct loaded on their own respective latent factor (χ^2 (53) = 290.47, $p < .001$, RMSEA = 0.08, CFI = 0.88, TLI = 0.85) was compared with a model in which all items loaded on one overall latent factor (χ^2 (54) = 686.15, $p < .001$, RMSEA = 0.14, CFI = 0.68, TLI = 0.61). This comparison showed that, although

Table 1
Descriptive statistics, reliabilities, and within-person and between-person bivariate correlations among variables.

	M	*SD*	ICC	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Self-focused emotion appraisal	5.41	0.66	0.37	(0.87)	0.52***	0.55***	0.34***	0.19***	0.34***	0.24***
2. Other-focused emotion appraisal	5.38	0.56	0.44	0.58***	(0.87)	0.50***	0.59***	0.23***	0.31***	0.27***
3. Self-focused emotion regulation	5.20	0.61	0.32	0.55***	0.55***	(0.71)	0.37***	0.12**	0.29***	0.23***
4. Other-focused emotion regulation	5.00	0.68	0.45	0.46***	0.72***	0.45***	(0.89)	0.20***	0.10**	0.22***
5. Crafting social job resources	5.13	0.80	0.39	0.39***	0.43***	0.36***	0.40***	(0.74)	0.21***	0.21***
6. Energy level	5.06	1.03	0.32	0.39***	0.41***	0.33***	0.31***	0.33***	(0.89)	0.23***
7. Active learning behavior	5.52	0.64	0.35	0.40***	0.32***	0.29***	0.28***	0.39***	0.26***	(0.87)

Notes. Cronbach's α reliabilities averaged across the three weeks are in parentheses on the diagonal. Correlations at the week level are displayed above the diagonal ($N = 638$), whereas correlations at the person level averaged across the three weeks are displayed below the diagonal ($N = 226$). ICC = intraclass coefficient.

** $p < .01$.

*** $p < .001$.

Table 2
Unstandardized coefficients from multilevel path models predicting other-focused emotion regulation, crafting social job resources, and self-focused emotion regulation.

	Other-focused emotion regulation				Crafting social job resources				Self-focused emotion regulation			
	Model 1 Main effects		Model 2 Moderation effects		Model 1 Main effects		Model 2 Moderation effects		Model 1 Main effects		Model 2 Moderation effects	
	γ	*SE*	γ	*SE*	γ	*SE*	γ	*SE*	γ	*SE*	γ	*SE*
Intercept	0.00[a]	0.00[a]	0.00[a]	0.00[a]	0.00[a]	0.00[a]	0.00[a]	0.00[a]	0.00[a]	0.00[a]	0.00[a]	0.00[a]
Week-specific variables												
Other-focused emotion appraisal	0.70***	0.05	0.65***	0.06	0.27**	0.09	0.30***	0.09	0.36***	0.07	0.36***	0.07
Self-focused emotion appraisal					0.11†	0.07	0.14*	0.07	0.40***	0.06	0.40***	0.06
Self-focused emotion regulation			0.09†	0.05			−0.04	0.08				
Week-specific interactions												
Other-focused emotion appraisal × self-focused emotion regulation			0.02	0.03			−0.02	0.07				
Self-focused emotion appraisal × self-focused emotion regulation							0.11*	0.06				
Variance level 1	0.16		0.16		0.38		0.38		0.18		0.18	
Variance level 2	0.00[a]		0.00[a]		0.00[a]		0.00[a]		0.00[a]		0.00[a]	
Δ Pseudo R_1^2	0.58		0.01		0.40		0.01		0.12		0.00	
Δ Pseudo R_2^2	0.00[a]		0.00[a]		0.00[a]		0.00[a]		0.00[a]		0.00[a]	

Notes. Estimates result from one overall analysis including the prediction of other-focused emotion regulation, crafting social job resources, and self-focused emotion regulation, as well as energy level and active learning behavior in one main effects model (Model 1) or one moderation effects model (i.e., including the interaction terms; Model 2).
Δ Pseudo R_1^2 represents the incremental within-person variance explained and calculated on the basis of the formula 1 − ([Level 1 restricted error + Level 2 restricted error]/[Level 1 unrestricted error + Level 2 unrestricted error]). Δ Pseudo R_2^2 represents the incremental between-person variance explained and calculated using the formula 1 − ([Level 1 restricted error/*n*] + Level 2 restricted error)/([Level 1 unrestricted error/*n*] + Level 2 unrestricted error) from Snijders and Bosker (1999). *n* is the average number of weekly points in each Level 2 unit.

[a] The parameter estimates for the intercepts of other-focused emotion regulation, crafting social job resources, and self-focused emotion regulation were fixed to 0 because we person-mean centered these mediating variables in our model prior to the analyses. This implies that there is also no variance on their between-person levels of analysis.

† $p < .10$.
* $p < .05$.
** $p < .01$.
*** $p < .001$.

the CFI and TLI values were relatively low, the two-factor model had a significantly better fit to the data than the one-factor model (Sattora-Bentler Scaled $\Delta\chi^2 = 146.14$, $\Delta df = 1$, $p < .001$). These results show that social job crafting can be empirically distinguished from active learning behavior.

7.3. Hypotheses testing

Hypotheses 1a–2b were tested in a main effects model. The overall model fit, however, was relatively poor (χ^2 (13) = 89.81, $p < .001$, RMSEA = 0.10, CFI = 0.84, TLI = 0.75). Therefore, we conducted additional exploratory analyses to examine whether adding a path to the hypothesized model would improve model fit. We used theory to guide these explorations and added a path from other-focused emotion appraisal to self-focused emotion regulation because it has been shown that appraising the (negative) emotions of others in the health care industry demands self-regulatory resources (Figley & Kleber, 1995; Pletzer et al., 2015; Zeidner et al., 2013). Consistent with this notion, the added path was positive and significant ($\gamma = 0.36$, $p < .001$) and its inclusion indeed improved model fit (Sattora-Bentler Scaled $\Delta\chi^2 = 32.61$, $\Delta df = 1$, $p < .001$). Overall, our re-specified model showed a good fit to the data (χ^2 (12) = 42.85, $p < .001$, RMSEA = 0.06, CFI = 0.94, TLI = 0.89). Note that this adjustment did not change the initial parameter estimates other than two decimals behind the comma – the parameter estimates are reported in Tables 2 and 3.

Results showed that in weeks when trainees more often appraised others' emotions, they also more often regulated others' emotions ($\gamma = 0.70$, $p < .001$), and that weekly regulation of others' emotions was positively related to active learning ($\gamma = 0.14$, $p = .030$). Moreover, the Monte Carlo method showed that the distribution interval of the indirect effect of other-focused emotion appraisal on active learning through other-focused emotion regulation was above zero at a 95% CI (lower level (LL) = 0.01, upper level (UL) = 0.19). This pattern of results supports Hypothesis 1a.

Confirming Hypothesis 1b, results showed that in weeks when trainees more often appraised others' emotions, they crafted more social job resources ($\gamma = 0.27$, $p = .001$). Further, when trainees crafted more social job resources, they displayed more active learning behavior ($\gamma = 0.11$, $p = .007$). Furthermore, there was an indirect effect through social job crafting on the relationship

Table 3
Unstandardized coefficients from multilevel path models predicting active learning behavior and energy level.

	Active learning behavior				Energy level			
	Model 1 Main effects		Model 2 Moderation effects		Model 1 Main effects		Model 2 Moderation effects	
	γ	*SE*	γ	*SE*	γ	*SE*	γ	*SE*
Intercept	5.53***	0.04	5.53***	0.04	5.06***	0.07	5.06***	0.07
Week-specific variables								
Other-focused emotion appraisal	0.23†	0.13	0.23†	0.13				
Self-focused emotion appraisal					0.36***	0.08	0.36***	0.08
Other-focused emotion regulation	0.14*	0.06	0.14*	0.06				
Self-focused emotion regulation					0.24*	0.10	0.24*	0.10
Crafting social job resources	0.11**	0.04	0.11**	0.04	0.22**	0.07	0.22**	0.07
Variance level 1	0.40		0.40		1.08		1.08	
Variance level 2	0.23		0.23		0.63		0.63	
Δ Pseudo R_1^2	0.06		0.00		0.08		0.00	
Δ Pseudo R_2^2	0.04		0.00		0.02		0.00	

Notes. Estimates result from one overall analysis including the prediction of other-focused emotion regulation, crafting social job resources, and self-focused emotion regulation as well as active learning behavior and energy level in one main effects model (Model 1) or one moderation effects model (i.e., including the interaction terms; Model 2).
Δ Pseudo R_1^2 represents the incremental within-person variance explained and calculated on the basis of the formula 1 − ([Level 1 restricted error + Level 2 restricted error]/[Level 1 unrestricted error + Level 2 unrestricted error]). Δ Pseudo R_2^2 represents the incremental between-person variance explained and calculated using the formula 1 − ([Level 1 restricted error/*n*] + Level 2 restricted error)/([Level 1 unrestricted error/*n*] + Level 2 unrestricted error) from Snijders and Bosker (1999). *n* is the average number of weekly points in each Level 2 unit.
† $p < .10$.
* $p < .05$.
** $p < .01$.
*** $p < .001$.

between other-focused emotion appraisal and active learning (Monte Carlo 95% CI: LL = 0.01, UL = 0.06).

Supporting Hypothesis 2a, results showed that in weeks when trainees more often appraised their own emotions, they also more often regulated their emotions (γ = 0.40, $p < .001$), and the weekly regulation of trainees' own emotions was positively associated with their weekly energy levels (γ = 0.24, $p = .014$). The indirect effect from the weekly appraisal of own emotions on energy through self-focused emotion regulation was significant (Monte Carlo 95% CI: LL = 0.02, UL = 0.19).

Regarding Hypothesis 2b, we found that the relationship between the weekly appraisal of trainees' own emotions and social job crafting was positive, but not significant (γ = 0.11, $p = .096$). Yet, the expected positive relationship between weekly social job crafting and energy was found (γ = 0.22, $p = .001$). Following these mixed results, crafting social job resources did not mediate the positive relationship between trainees' weekly appraisal of their own emotions and their level of energy (Monte Carlo 95% CI: LL = −0.004, UL = 0.06). Hence, Hypothesis 2b was not supported.

7.4. Alternative models

To further examine the proposed relationships in Hypothesis 1a–2b, we also tested several alternative models in which we changed the paths between the constructs. These alternative models each yielded a poor fit to the data. Specifically, we examined a model in which the appraisal of others' emotions leads simultaneously to active learning behavior, social job crafting, and the regulation of others' emotions (χ^2 (3) = 63.13, $p < .001$, RMSEA = 0.18, CFI = 0.77, TLI = 0.31), and a model in which the appraisal of others' emotions leads to active learning, which leads to social job crafting and the regulation of others' emotions (χ^2 (4) = 193.02, $p < .001$, RMSEA = 0.27, CFI = 0.04, TLI = −0.68). In addition, we examined a model in which the appraisal of own emotions leads simultaneously to energy, social job crafting, and the regulation of own emotions (χ^2 (3) = 46.40, $p < .001$, RMSEA = 0.15, CFI = 0.82, TLI = 0.47), and a model in which the appraisal of own emotions leads to energy, which leads to social job crafting and the regulation of own emotions (χ^2 (4) = 155.56, $p < .001$, RMSEA = 0.24, CFI = 0.30, TLI = −0.22).

7.5. Moderation hypotheses

The final set of hypotheses (Hypotheses 3a-c) examine the moderating role of regulating own emotions on the proposed self- and other-focused EI processes. These moderation hypotheses were tested in a model in which the interaction terms were added to the main effects. The fit indices of this moderation effects model were comparable to the satisfactory fit indices of the main effects model (χ^2 (17) = 60.90, $p < .001$, RMSEA = 0.06, CFI = 0.92, although the TLI value was relatively low; TLI = 0.86). Tables 2 and 3 report the parameter estimates.

Hypothesis 3a predicted that the positive relation between the weekly appraisal of others' emotions and the regulation of others' emotions would be stronger in weeks when trainees regulated their own emotions more. A similar moderation pattern was predicted

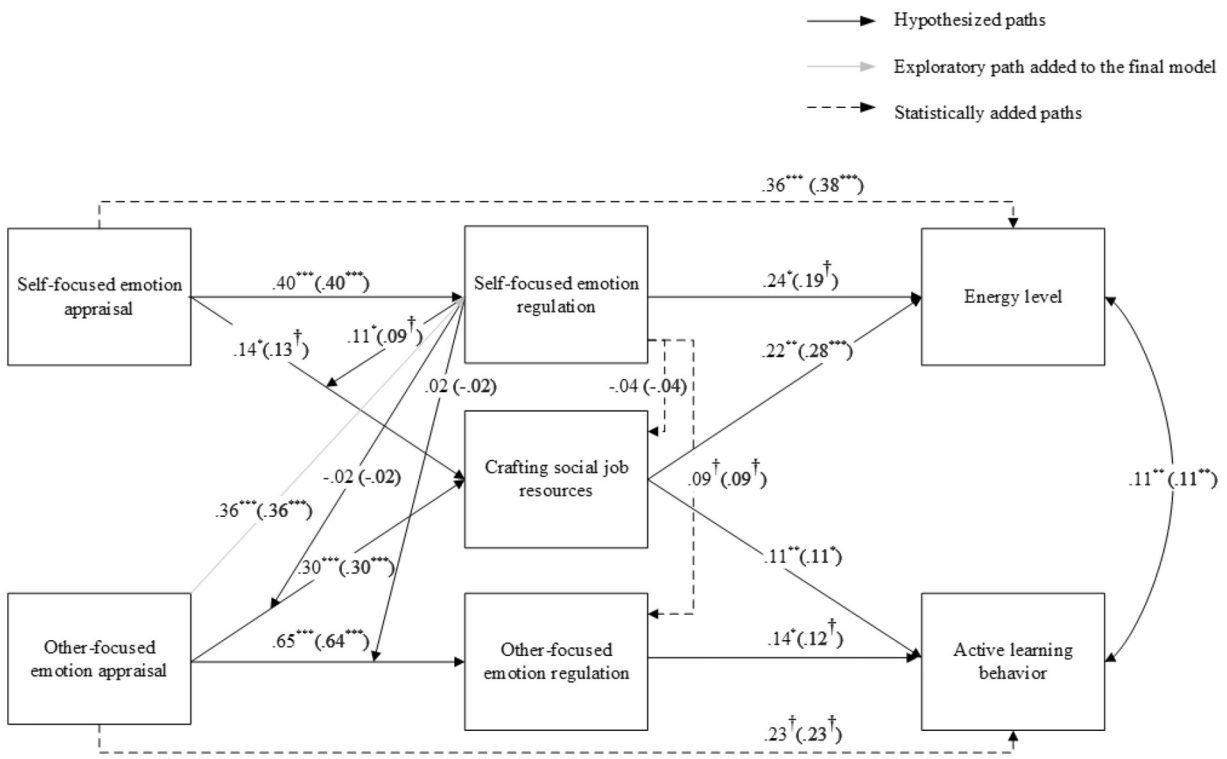

Fig. 2. Complete path model tested at the week (within-person) level of analysis.
Notes. The path coefficients are unstandardized estimates of maximum likelihood estimation with robust standard errors. Solid black arrows represent the hypothesized relationships, the solid grey arrow represents the explorative relationship that was added to the final model, and the dashed black arrows represent relationships that were included to enable a statistical test of the model (i.e., main effects of the moderator, and direct effects from the independent variables to the dependent variables). The path coefficients between brackets are controlled for the factor time.
$^{\dagger}p < .10$.
$^{*}p < .05$.
$^{**}p < .01$.
$^{***}p < .001$.

by hypothesis 3b, namely that the positive relation between the weekly appraisal of others' emotion and social job crafting behavior would be stronger in weeks when trainees regulated their own emotions more. In contrast to these hypotheses, the interaction between other-focused emotion appraisal × self-focused emotion regulation on the weekly regulation of others' emotions ($\gamma = 0.02$, $p = .600$) and crafting social job resources ($\gamma = -0.02$, $p = .819$) was not significant. Therefore, Hypothesis 3a and 3b could not be confirmed.

Supporting Hypothesis 3c, results showed that the relation between trainees' weekly appraisal of their own emotions and social job crafting was qualified by the extent to which they regulated their emotions ($\gamma = 0.11$, $p = .038$). Fig. 3 illustrates that when self-focused emotion regulation was high (1 *SD* above the mean), the relationship between self-focused emotion appraisal and crafting social job resources was positive and significant ($b = 0.20$, $p = .008$); whereas when self-focused emotion regulation was low (1 *SD* below the mean) the relationship between self-focused emotion appraisal and crafting social job resources was not significant ($b = 0.07$, $p = .330$). The path coefficients of our complete hypothesized model are reported in Fig. 2.

7.6. The time of measurement

The current study was designed to examine how trainees deal with emotions during a regular week of their traineeship and how this related to their energy and active learning behavior during that week. For this purpose, we sampled three random weeks of the traineeship period to measure the phenomena that we were interested in. These weekly variables were person-mean centered to examine weekly (within-person) relationships that may answer different questions than cross-sectional (between-person) relationships. However, from a more longitudinal perspective, it might be argued that data gathered at multiple time points could be affected by the time of measurement. In order to explore this possibility, we conducted an additional analysis in which we controlled for measurement time in our final model. Fig. 2 reports the controlled estimates of the path coefficients between brackets. The majority of the path coefficients in the controlled model remained identical and a few coefficients differed minimally. Although, due to this change, four paths did no longer reach the rather arbitrary threshold of $p < .05$, in absolute sense the effect sizes were nearly identical (e.g., the weekly relationship between self-focused emotion appraisal and crafting social job resources $\gamma = 0.135$ ($p = .049$)

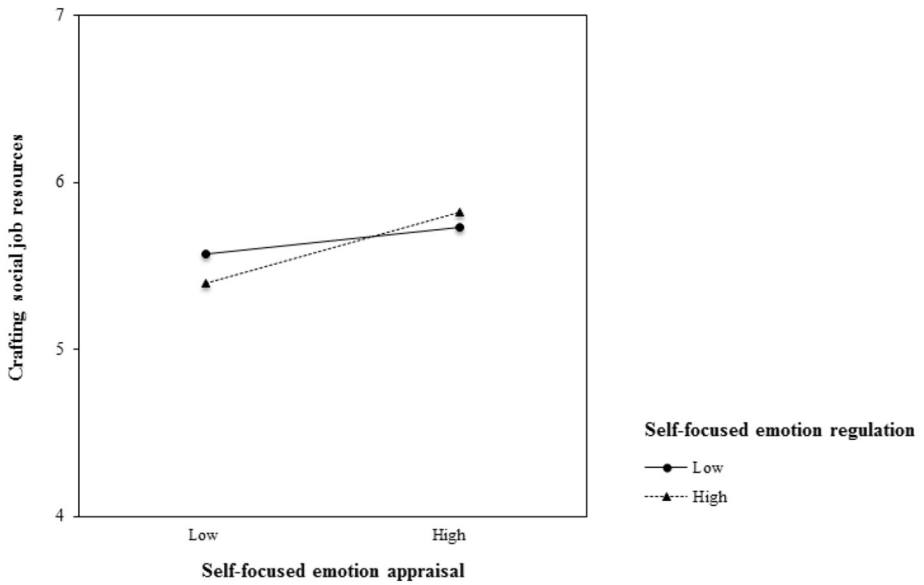

Fig. 3. Moderating effect of weekly self-focused emotion regulation on the weekly relationship between self-focused emotion appraisal and crafting social job resources.

became $\gamma = 0.133$ ($p = .054$)) and would not lead to radically different conclusions. These results suggest that the proposed emotion-related processes are generally consistent over time, but it also signals that there may be small changes in the enactment of some specific behaviors (e.g., crafting social resources).

8. Discussion

In the current study, we used a within-person approach to examine the weekly enactment of self- and other-focused EI. Our results revealed that other-focused and self-focused EI processes could be distinguished. Regarding the first, we found that in weeks when trainees more often appraised the emotions of others, they also more often engaged in the regulation of others' emotions and searched for more help/advice from their colleagues, which benefited their active learning. Regarding the self-focused EI process, we found that in weeks when trainees more often appraised their own emotions, they also more often engaged in the regulation of these emotions and searched for more help/advice from their colleagues, which positively influenced their energy level. However, crafting social job resources was only fostered in weeks when trainees more often regulated their own emotions. Our results suggest that the weekly enactment of self- and other-focused EI has direct and differential consequences for (learning) performance and well-being.

Regulating one's own emotions did not significantly relate to the emotion management strategies trainees used to respond to others' emotions. Irrespective of their own emotional state, in weeks when trainees more often appraised the emotions of others, they always responded by attempting to regulate these emotions and by searching for social support or advice. A possible reason might be that during a traineeship in the social work field, trainees are primarily focused at responding to others' emotions because that is one of the main tasks of a caring professional (Neumann et al., 2009), and has been a central topic in their education (Satterfield & Hughes, 2007). In other words, the demand to respond to the emotions of others may be so dominant in this context, that it will always be performed, regardless of the emotional condition of the trainee. The situation is different, however, with regard to the trainees' own emotions. Namely, dealing with own emotions has received far less emphasis in clinical practice and education (Novack et al., 1997; Satterfield & Hughes, 2007), and may therefore come less naturally. Our results showed that only in weeks when trainees regulated their own emotions more, they searched for more social support and supervisory coaching in response to the emotions they experienced during work. This finding is consistent with the facilitating role of emotion regulation on proactive behaviors in general (Parker et al., 2010).

8.1. Theoretical implications

The present study has several theoretical implications. First, the within-person design enabled to study trainees' actual usage (i.e., enactment) of the various EI facets during a workweek. This is a different approach than the traditional EI research that mainly examines stable individual differences in EI (see also Pekaar et al., 2017b). Yet, our findings indicated that approximately 50% to 70% of the variance in the week-specific EI measures could be attributed to within-person fluctuations. This means that trainees differed quite strongly in their enactment of EI across the different weeks. Focusing on individuals' enactment of EI rather than on individuals' stable level of EI may contribute to a new perspective on EI. That is, the enactment of EI is more behavior-like, which means that it may be triggered, interrupted, or intervene with other activities. Hence, this new approach may yield several conceptual

and theoretical advantages. Most importantly, taking a within-person approach to examine the enactment of EI allows to empirically investigate the underlying processes of EI, which has only been done on a piecemeal or theoretical basis (e.g., Barrett & Salovey, 2002; Peña-Sarrionandia et al., 2015). For example, one could answer such questions as what proximal factors activate the enactment of EI, what kind of behavior is associated with the enactment of EI, and what direct costs and benefits does the enactment of EI have. As such, the present results may function as a starting point in examining the manifestation of EI within individuals' daily life.

Second, an important asset of the current study is its distinction between dealing with one's own emotions and dealing with the emotions of others. Although both self- and other-focused emotional skills and knowledge have been organized under the umbrella concept of EI (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Siegling et al., 2015), our study shows that appraising own emotions is associated with different behaviors than appraising others' emotions. Furthermore, the results show that the enactment of self- versus other-focused EI facets has specific consequences; they either affect one's energy level or active learning behavior. Hence, these findings strengthen the positive links between self-focused EI and the well-being domain, and between other-focused EI and the (social) performance domain that have been found in previous studies (Pekaar et al., 2017b, 2018). This pattern suggests that the enactment of self- versus other-focused EI may serve different goals. Specifically, self-focused EI could be a form of coping (Grandey & Melloy, 2017; Lazarus & Folkman, 1987), whereas other-focused EI could be part of the social process (in our study: a form of caring for patients). It is important to note, however, that our results also revealed an unexpected cross-link between the self- and other-focused EI processes, namely the positive relationship between appraising others' emotions and regulating own emotions. This suggests that self-focused emotion regulation fulfils a key role in responding to self-emotions and other-emotions.

Third, the current study contributes to the EI literature by explicitly testing whether the combined enactment of EI facets has different consequences than the enactment of a single EI facet alone. Although scholars have begun to emphasize that variation may exist in the specific EI facets that individuals possess and use, and that this variation may be meaningful (Elfenbein, 2016; Petrides et al., 2016), very few have actually tested these interactions (for exceptions see Joseph & Newman, 2010; Pekaar et al., 2017b). We consider this unfortunate because in daily life individuals are confronted with situations in which they have enough time and energy to employ all their emotional skills and knowledge, but also with situations in which they need to divide their emotional resources over multiple other activities (Beal et al., 2005). For example, our results showed that in weeks when trainees more often appraised their emotions, they only asked for social support or feedback on their emotional experience when they had also regulated their emotions. These findings illustrate that a simultaneous usage of different EI facets may alter one's behavioral response, which can ultimately result in a different outcome. We encourage scholars to explore interactions between EI facets further because it may help to foresee under which conditions the enactment of EI will be most effective, or when it may be less optimal.

8.2. Limitations and future research

The present study has several limitations. The majority of our variables were simultaneously measured in one weekly survey, which does not allow to make causal inferences (Blalock, 1966; Holland, 1986). For example, the relationship between appraising and regulating others' emotions could reflect the logical process of first appraising the emotions of others and then regulating them, but also the other way around. From a theoretical perspective, however, emotion appraisal must precede its regulation, because without the appraisal of emotions there is not much to regulate in the first place (Joseph & Newman, 2010; Mayer & Salovey, 1997). This assumption is widely accepted and embedded in the field given that even the influential Cascading Model of EI (Joseph & Newman, 2010), which demonstrated a causal chain from emotion perception to emotion regulation, used (meta-analytic) data gathered at one time point. Nevertheless, our research design could be improved by incorporating time lags between the measures of all different steps in the proposed processes.

Related to this point is the notion that emotion processing is a fairly rapid process that may take place within a couple of seconds or minutes. Therefore, our weekly measures do not capture one specific emotion appraisal or regulation attempt, but rather provide a summary of a number of emotion appraisals and regulations that occurred during a week. This method approaches the EI process closer than cross-sectional studies do; although future research may need to use experience-sampling methods to capture the different steps in our proposed process in their actual timeframe (Dimotakis & Ilies, 2012).

Third, we collected self-reported measures of trainees' responses to emotions as we considered this a straightforward method for the subjective emotional experiences that we were interested in (Siegling et al., 2015). Yet, this method may have induced common-method variance (Podsakoff & Todor, 1985). On the other hand, there are several reasons to assume that this limitation did not compromise our conclusions. First, while a common-method bias may artificially inflate main effects, for example by a shared social desirability factor (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003), there is no such reason to expect this process to bias interaction or mediation effects (Van Yperen & Janssen, 2002), such as the one's found in the current study. Second, the conclusions regarding trainees' weekly enactment of EI and active learning stem from multi-source data (i.e., ratings of the trainees and practical supervisors), and therefore cannot be affected by a common-method bias. Nevertheless, future studies may also include other-reports or objective measures (e.g., peer-ratings of job crafting; Tims et al., 2012) to replicate the current findings.

Fourth, we did not measure the amount or intensity of emotional events that trainees encountered during the weeks they participated in the study, so we could not control for this variance in our models. Is it feasible that a more emotional week elicits more emotion appraisal and emotion regulation which, in turn, affects trainees' active learning and energy. Hence, emotional events could have been the trigger that activated the EI processes. Another possibility is that emotional events moderate the relationships between the weekly use of EI and active learning or energy in the sense that these relationships will be stronger in weeks with many emotional events than in weeks with less emotional events. However, irrespective of the reasons why or the circumstances under which trainees used more or less EI during a week, we did find that the actual enactment of EI had direct consequences, which was one of the prior

aims of the current study. Nevertheless, we encourage future researchers to expand on this knowledge by examining whether emotional events may function as antecedents or moderators of the enactment of EI.

A final limitation relates to the trainee sample to investigate occupational phenomena. This sample may diminish the generalizability of our findings to employed caring professionals. An advantage of the current sample was that it enabled us to investigate individuals' responses to self-emotions and other-emotions in a setting not determined by routines or habits. That is, trainees' behavioral and emotional response to emotions at work may be more genuine than those of experienced employees who may have learned to match their response with the work situation but not necessarily with the associated feelings (i.e., Bolton, 2001). Hence, our unique setting may have facilitated examining the enactment of EI in a more fundamental way, which may enhance the generalizability of our findings to all kinds of (unexpected) situations in individuals' daily life. Moreover, it has been acknowledged that students engaged in vocational training, such as the trainees in the current study, may constitute a valuable and informative sample to understand work experiences (Daniels, 2016).

8.3. Practical implications

Our findings show that it is important for trainees' functioning to not only manage the emotions of others at work, but to also respond to the emotions they experience themselves (see also Le et al., 2018). When trainees manage their own emotions at work they stay more energetic, which ultimately helps them to become better active learners. Hence, our results echo prior calls to devote more time and attention to self-focused emotional skills and knowledge in clinical practice and medical education (Novack et al., 1997; Satterfield & Hughes, 2007). Trainees in the caring industry who are better prepared for the emotional impact that this work can have on their emotional state and know how they can cope with it, may be less likely to drop out (Andrew et al., 2008) or to experience stress or burn-out complaints during their working life (Satterfield & Hughes, 2007). For example, educational institutes could organize courses that teach trainees effective coping techniques or start supervision groups in which trainees reflect on their emotional self-care during their traineeship.

However, the present study suggests that the way trainees respond to their own emotions at work may not only be supported in a top-down manner, but that trainees can also initiate efforts to improve their emotional self-care (job crafting; Tims et al., 2012; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Specifically, our results point at the relevance to craft and mobilize social job resources to enhance or replenish energy levels and to facilitate active learning. Research has suggested that there are several situational conditions that may stimulate job crafting behaviors (Demerouti, 2014). These include, among others, autonomy (Petrou, Demerouti, Peeters, Schaufeli, & Hetland, 2012) and a sense of responsibility (Berg, Wrzesniewski, & Dutton, 2010). So, to stimulate trainees to proactively ask for help and advice when dealing with emotions at work, trainees could be empowered to design their own work tasks and challenges during the workweek. Doing so will create a more active learning environment that may foster personal initiative to craft social job resources (Petrou et al., 2012).

9. Conclusion

This study examined the enactment of self- and other-focused EI from week to week. We argued and showed that the appraisal of own versus others' emotions elicits different emotion management strategies, namely proactively crafting social job resources or regulating own or others' emotions. These strategies, in turn, either affect one's energy level or active learning process. We conclude that the weekly enactment of self- and other-focused EI has important implications for well-being and performance, respectively.

Declarations of interest

None.

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