Research Insights

Emotion-Based Approaches to Personnel Management

Emerging Research and Opportunities

Sara Fazzin

Emotion-Based Approaches to Personnel Management:

Emerging Research and Opportunities

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Preface

Who is the modern employee? Who is the innovative organisation? Who is the new leader? In order to effectively answer such questions, managers need to change the perspective we use to look at organisations. Thus, we might need to consider the fundamental role of emotions in the workplace, in all of its facets.

In recent years, one of the emerging buzz words in the business world seems to be disruptive change, which is now as popular as competitive advantage was before. To put it simply, organisations today have little time to strategise for the long-term because everything is fast changing, whether it be a process, a product or an organisational objective. So, the old paradigms we used do not work anymore. What is it that can make a difference to organisational survival?

We need to look at a new concept, where the organisation can be defined an emotional hub. When using the term emotional organisation, we shift the core centre of our attention to the people that make the organisation, and the prime medium through which they act and interact, and underlying emotions. In other words, we can say that all organisations can be seen as emotional arenas, rather than political ones (following Mintzberg, 1985), because of the situation where feelings shape events, and in return are shaped by such events.

According to strategy, companies should be focused on competitive advantage (Porter, 1980, 1985, 1990; Barney, 1991; Grant, 1991), obsessively analysing target markets to obtain a competitive position in it, and of course how to maintain it (Porter, 1908, 1985, 1990; Barney, 1991; Grant, 1991). Whether we are talking about sustainable competitive advantage (Peteraf, 1993; Powell, 2001) or transient advantage (McGrath, 2013), we are still planning organisational strategy in a competitive advantage perspective. However, in the modern economy, shocked by financial crisis and uncertainty, the ability to self-adapt, rather than competitiveness is key to organisational survival.

So why should we stick to classical competitive advantage strategy and its various approaches (among others, Bain, 1968; Penrose, 1959; Porter, 1980)? Using a different systemic approach that relies on specific organisational traits, organisational culture becomes the nucleus where a company's strategic drive originate, while the entire organisational entity is evaluated through an emotion-based approach.

Customer needs and satisfaction are taken into account in many different areas, from marketing to brand, human resources to leadership, while recent studies focus on employees' happiness, motivation or group work in relation to organisational performance, financial returns and effectivity. Even when creative ways of evaluating employees' thoughts and emotions in the workplace have been experimented with (i.e., tracker apps like Niko Niko), those experiments look at them as a simple form of quantitative data, rather than in terms of systemic reactions internal to the organisation itself. Looking in terms of reaction would help shape organisational culture in a way that could react, adapt and evolve to external changes as rapidly and abruptly as it happens in real life (i.e., emotions, feelings, thoughts, attitudes, goals, behaviour and even opinions can change in a matter of seconds). Organisational culture is what transforms vision to reality, and it should do so in a way that resembles the evolution of lively creatures. Think for example of those recent studies that suggest hiring people according to a quantitatively measured good cultural fit (maybe even using a software like RoundPegg). Their alignment to the organisation's vision and mission, values and people make them the best match to hire, but what happens when these indicators change and how to guarantee organisational survival? Should then current employees be substituted with someone else that would better fit within the new environment, or would the only alternative be programming emotional AI co-workers? Thus, rather than focusing on customers' future needs, innovative organisations should explore their inner potentialities through a stream of consciousness attitude. Would considering employees as catalysts, free to express themselves, their emotions and ideas, and acting upon them be enough to lead a new research field towards a modern definition of employee underpinned by fast changes and constant emotional rides?

Why would this change of perspective be of any academic or practical importance? In the past decades, areas such as organisational behaviour, behavioural sciences and even emotional intelligence have gained more importance when it comes to analysing an organisation and its structure.

However, what is missing completely is a link between what has been discovered in such areas and how they can practically and systematically inform strategy and a strategic management approach.

In this book, we will try to answer few of the questions related to how our emotional approach could influence human resource practices, consumer behaviour, knowledge management, managing people, and leadership skills. In other words, we will consider practical consequences to the way the organisation should be managed. An underlying question, probably the most relevant one to start with, would be to understand the reasons why we would promote a switch from a competitive approach to an emotion-based one. Several researchers and practitioners already agree upon the fact that competitiveness cannot be considered the main organisational objective any longer. Other options are available now to be explored. Japanese management models for example, are not based on the misconception of competitive advantage in order to gain returns on investments. Behavioural sciences and artificial intelligence projects demonstrate in various grades and situations the fundamental role of emotions, individuals and group dynamics in relation to human resources management, marketing, management styles, leadership and creativity, innovation and many more. However, no one seems to have considered the real impact of organisational culture and its emotional dynamics in strategic management. What if, at a macro level, organisations would start addressing their strategic plan to emotion-based sectors rather than economic ones? And what if this revolution was to be supported at a micro level by a new definition of employee as catalyst of organisational culture, through a stream of consciousness approach and emotional flood of reflective awareness? In the end, when the norm around the ideal worker is constantly changing, the catalyst employee may be allegiant, controversial or slightly divergent to the organisational culture, but still an active receptor for innovation.

WHY THIS BOOK?

In order to answer such question, we should ask ourselves why emotions? When it comes to managing people, emotions have a huge influence on the way we act, think, behave and react. Nowadays, managers rely on leadership styles, emotional intelligence approaches, coaching techniques and similar tools to make a difference and shape, in one way or another the culture of

their organisation. They may need them to nail a new marketing project, to attract better employees or make more profits, however the bottom line is the same: they need to understand and manipulate emotions in a healthy way for the organisation to thrive.

Thinking about the fundamental role of emotion in the organisational life, this book aims to fill a gap in the academia, while presenting hot topics through a different, cutting-edge approach. In our modern era, society seems more and more interested in people and the way individuals affect society and business. The flourishing of programmes in leadership, organisational behaviour, business psychology and emotional intelligence, among others, is an example of the new trend in business schools and managerial practice around the world. You will have the chance to see that out there, there are plenty of textbooks that present the theory behind the art of managing people in the organisation. We will reference you to a good many of them. However, practitioners, academics and managers in general often complain that none seem to prepare them for the challenges in the real world. This book has been designed to help you reflect on major topics from a different yet unitary perspective, emotions in the workplace, while enhancing your critical skills and helping you reflect on the deeper meanings of an emotional approach to business and management.

The first part of this book presents current theories beneath the subject, while in the second part each chapter focuses on practical aspects of emotional behaviour in the workplace, all linked together through an innovative approach.

Chapter 1, "Emotions in Organisational Behaviour: An Historical Perspective", will present classical theories of emotion, from Darwin to Hochschild, in order to provide you with a clear idea of how to define emotion, and which factors should be taken into account.

Chapter 2, "Emotions in the Workplace", builds upon the theoretical foundation laid out in the previous Chapter, to prepare you to apply psychological and managerial concepts and theories within the organisation. While introducing organisational behaviour and the relevance of diversity, basic concepts such as emotion, mood and personality are discussed.

Chapter 3, "Some Hot Topics in Personnel Management and Emotions", offers an interesting perspective on decision making, perception and motivation. Even though you will not read in detail about the traditional rivalry between individual and the group, such concepts are explored and presented to explain how emotions are linked to subjectivity.

Chapter 4, "Performance Management: An Emotion-Based Approach", introduces the concept of appraisal, job satisfaction and performance management, through the lenses of emotion.

In the second part, several topics are presented in a more research-based approach.

Chapter 5, "Of Leaders and Leadership Through Emotions", explores popular concepts such as Emotional Intelligence, the Four C's of Emotion framework and the emotional labour market.

Chapter 6, "PBL Training and Hiring for Vision", looks at the role of knowledge and its management in the organisation, through a problem-based learning approach, and offers a new approach to hiring better fits for the organisation.

Chapter 7, "Emotions in Change Management", reflects on the role of emotion in organisations that are undergoing a disruptive change process. Innovative practices such as the Hygge movement and Theory U are presented as alternative or complimentary practice-based approaches to change.

Chapter 8, "Organisational Culture and Strategic Marketing: Are These Influenced by an Emotion-Based Approach?", offers some insights on consumer behaviour and emotional responses to marketing approaches before and after buying products, services or experiences.

Chapter 9, "The Future of Emotions in the Workplace: The Role of Artificial Intelligence in Modern Personnel Management", reflects on the practical aspects of Artificial Intelligence as applied to Human Resource Management, and emotion in the workplace.

WHO IS THIS BOOK FOR?

This might seem like a strange question, because one might argue - rightly so - who are we to say who can actually read this book? In any case, we can suggest this book is suitable for undergraduate and postgraduate students in Business and Management programmes, Business Psychology courses, Leadership and Management professional certificates, and similar. At the same time, we can also mention professionals in the Human Resource sector, managers, CEOs, leaders, and transformational change agents. In the end, you might benefit from reading this book if you are generally interested in learning how to effectively manage people at work, using emotions and social connections as your weapon.

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Chapter 1
Emotions in Organisational Behaviour:
An Historical Perspective

ABSTRACT

In this chapter, the authors cover the basic concepts around emotion. In particular, they present an historical introduction of emotion theories, while offering several definitions of emotion, as well as research findings in the past decades. You will be introduced to the major exponents of emotion theory, such as Darwin, James, Freud, Arnold, Lange, Averill, Hochschild, and many more. At the end of the chapter, the reader should have a better understanding of the theoretical background needed to appreciate the importance of emotion in the workplace. After the conclusions, there is a comprehensive section of further readings, for those who would like to learn more about these topics.

INTRODUCTION

"Most simply, emotions matter because if we did not have them nothing else would matter. Creatures without emotion would have no reason for living nor, for that matter, for committing suicide… Emotions are the stuff of life. Emotions are the most important bond or glue that links us together.", says John Elster (1999).

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To discuss the role of emotion in the organisational environment, we first need to understand what an emotion is, and how it can shape our behaviour in managing employees.

For Aristotle, emotions are the product of different judgements, a concept later represented by Shakespeare in Hamlet, who affirms "there is nothing either good or bad but thinking make it so" (Shakespeare, *Hamlet*, II, 2, 1, pp. 249-250). According to William James, "bodily changes follow directly the perception of the exciting fact… and feeling of the same changes as they occur, is the emotion" (W. James, *The Principles of Psychology*, 1890, p. 449). Descartes affirms that emotions originate in our soul, or the thinking of ourselves, and there are only six - wonder, desire, joy, love, hatred, and sadness. Because of their origins in the soul, emotions are not only controlled by thinking, they are also shaped by thoughts, especially those which are believed true. To explain, Descartes affirms that "in order to excite courage to oneself and remove fear, it is not sufficient to have the will to do so, but we must also apply ourselves to consider the reasons, the objects or examples which persuade us that the peril is not great; that there is always more security in defence than flight; that […] we could expect nothing but regret and shame for having fled, and so on." (Descartes, *The Passions of Souls*, 1649, p. 352). In such sense, "the utility of all the passions consists alone in their fortifying and perpetuating in the soul thoughts which it is good it should preserve, and which without that might easily be effaced from it. And again, all the harm which they can cause consists in the fact that they fortify and conserve those thoughts more than necessary, or that they fortify and conserve others on which it is not good to dwell" (*ibid*, p. 364).

Arnold and Gasson (1954) state that "an emotion or an affect can be considered as the felt tendency towards an object judged suitable, or away from an object judged unsuitable, reinforced by specific bodily changes". While for Lutz and White, "emotions are a primary idiom for defining and negotiating social relations of the self in a moral order" (note 1). Moving on, Lazarus (1991) states that emotions are organised psychophysiological reactions to news about ongoing relationships with the environment. In the same period, Frijda and Mesquita (1994) argue that "emotions are, first and foremost, modes of relating with to the environment: states of readiness for engaging, or not engaging, in interaction with that environment". In such sense, we can easily affirm that our emotions are social.

While we have established there is no clear consensus on the definitions of emotion, what we can say at this point is that:

- Emotions have a subjective element, which is encapsulated in what we feel; while there is a displayed side of it, which is represented by what we show.
- The way people show their emotions is socially constructed, meaning their emotional performance is influenced by the way they want other people to perceive them and social conventions.
- Emotions, as well feelings, seem to be linked to a specific object or instance, and be short-term, in opposition to moods, which are feelings that linger and are not attached to an object or event (Frijda, 1993).
- The term 'emotion' is sometimes used interchangeably with 'feeling' and 'affect'.

AN HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE OF EMOTION

Before we move into discussing the role of emotions in management-related disciplines, it seems important to define what an emotion is and how it has been dealt with from an historical perspective.

According to Lang, Greenwald, Bradley and Hamm (1993), and Levenson (1999), we should investigate emotions according to their specific facets. These are:

1. Behavioural, in the sense that we convey emotions in our facial and vocal expressions, posture, gesture, touch and similar actions;
2. Physiological, if we consider that emotions activate the autonomic nervous system in the brain, as well as other bodily parts; and finally
3. Experiential, which happens when we become conscious of our emotions and convey them in language - whether this might be a discussion, or other artistic forms, such as dance, poetry and music.

We can now look at the theory of emotion, which can be shaped into four major fields, or perspectives, according to how emotions are considered. So, we will see the differences in considering emotion as biological; emotion as early experiences; emotion as cognitive appraisal; and lastly, emotion as social.

Emotion as Biological: Charles Darwin

According to this perspective, humans are programmed to respond in an emotional way, because of our genetic heritage. To put it another way, the

evolutionary approach to emotions is concerned with whether our emotions have a social or an individual function, and the extent to which they can be considered universal, show biological bases, and are culturally distinctive. In particular, Charles Darwin and its "*The Expression of the Emotions in Man and Animals"* (1872/1965) are to be considered fundamental in demonstrating that many of our emotions and emotional reactions derive from prehistoric patterns of survival, which are still present in ourselves.

Darwin was adamant in considering emotional expressions as the "actions [that] are of direct or indirect service under certain states of the mind, in order to relieve or gratify certain sensations desires, & c.; and whenever the same state of mind is induced, however feebly, there is a tendency through the force of habit for the same movements to be performed though they may not be of the least use" (Levenson, R. W., 1999, p. 28). While stating that emotional expressions are linked to underlying action patterns, Darwin firmly believed that the same emotional expressions did not evolve to communicate emotions. In fact, according to him, "certain states of the mind lead to certain habitual actions, which are of service, as user our first principle. Now when a directly opposite state of mind is induced, there is a strong and involuntary tendency to the performance of movements of a directly opposite nature, though these are of no use; and such movements are in some cases highly expressive" (Levenson, R. W., 1999, p. 28).

Furthermore, Darwin described evolution as the result of a three stage process, which starts off with a superabundance of animal and plants. In other terms, they seem to reproduce more than what is necessary, and that causes a larger number of differences among offspring, which are passed on by heredity. Such variation comports a selection of the characteristics that are better suited for the environment and survival, which are then passed on and reproduced. In such perspective, we might want to think about selection pressures that condition our lives, in a way that we are all interested in gaining and/or enhancing those characteristics that are seen as desirable in successful people from the same or different sex. An example of this view is offered by Nesse (Nesse & Ellsworth, 2009), who points out how fitness - intended as the likelihood of surviving and reproducing successfully - is increased in those who are either preferred by others as social or sexual partners. Then again, Darwin hinted at the so called adaptation, intended here as the genetically based traits which allow the organism to better cope with the external environment and specific selection pressures, in order to survive and reproduce. Researchers have demonstrated how not all human traits or behaviours can be seen as adaptions, nor can be looked at as the better

answer to survival problems. It appears that some human specific traits, like snoring for example, are more a by-product than a real evolutionary function. This is in line with the discovery that we can be affected by subconscious effects at any time, out of our conscious control, which in return mess with our emotional biases, impulses and instincts. Interestingly, Keith Stanovich (2004) compares humans to robots, in the way we program our genes to behave in a particular way, which in turn increase the chances of our survival.

The Darwinian perspective is usually associated with the research of Paul Ekman and Carroll Izard, according to which emotions cannot be understood apart from their evolutionary history, and in particular in relation to the survival of the individual and the species altogether.

Ekman and Friesen (1971) conducted an experiment to demonstrate the veridicality of Darwin's hypothesis, according to which facial expressions are universal. They tested a group of people, based in the Highlands of New Guinea, who had little to no contact with Western culture, and asked them to identify the emotional displays of Westerners. While the results confirmed that somehow there seems to be an underlying universality of emotional expressions, in particular around the big six basic emotions - which are anger, fear, sadness, happiness, disgust and surprise - Ekman and Friesen were able to identify specific muscle contractions for each expression. Furthermore, Ekman (Ekman & Friesen, 1971) - who in recent years wanted to add a seventh basic emotion to the above list, contempt - states that such basic or fundamental emotions do have a specific function in the survival of the individual and the species, while all the other emotions are complex combinations or modifications of such primary set. Thus, the famous expression "poker face" derives from the ability of an individual to learn ways to mask universal facial expressions of emotion, through display rules.

In the discussion around basic emotions, several researchers have proposed their own lists, as we have previously discussed. For example, Izard considers them to be ten, which should be interest-excitement, joy, surprise, distress-anguish, anger, disgust, contempt, fear, shame and guilt.

Although his recent popularity, Darwin has not always been accepted with welcoming arms. For example, LaBarre (1947) concluded that "there is no 'natural' language of emotional gesture" (LaBarre, 1947, p. 55); while according to Otto Klineberg (1938), facial expressions of emotion can accompany many different and exclusive emotions, and that they are not reliable in that context. On a different note, Fridlung (1992) proposes that both human and animal expressions are always communicative, and in such a sense considered social tool.

An interesting development of Darwin's theories can be found in the so called evolutionary psychology, which builds on the concept that our emotional reactions are non-other than the evolutionary results of neurological programmes naturally developed to support survival. A clear example of this approach can be seen in relation to grief, which is said to set off chemical and behavioural changes to support the individual's survival, and help them find the strength to go on with their life, love again and similar (Badcock, 2000; Cosmides & Tooby, 2000). In this perspective, Robert Plutchick (1980) affirms there is a set of basic emotions which serve a specific "adaptive role in helping organisms deal with key survival issues posed by the environment" (Plutchick, R., 1980, p.129). Because of this knowledge, there are eight basic behaviour patterns to be found in all organisms, which are: incorporation, rejection, protection, destruction, reproduction, reintegration, orientation and exploration. These basic behaviour patterns can be mapped onto a list of basic emotions, which are fear/terror, anger/rage, joy/ecstasy, sadness/grief, acceptance/trust, disgust/loathing, expectancy/anticipation, and surprise/astonishment. In general terms, emotions should be ordered into coherent sets, according to their intensity (for example, there is a difference in intensity between anger and rage), and polarity (i.e., when an emotion is the opposite of another).

Similarly to Plutchick, Shaver et al. (Shaver, Wu, & Schwartz, 1992) propose an evolutionary prototype theory of emotion, according to which emotions are action tendencies that follow from the individual's appraisal of the environment. Such theory has been later developed by Frijda (1986), who affirms that emotions and action tendencies, here intended as an adaptive response to events that are considered important to us as a species in our evolutionary past as well as our current environment are the same thing.

Emotion According to the Jamesian Perspective or as Early Experiences

You might have heard at least a few times in your life that we are the product of our past experiences. Think for example, what would have been different if you did not break your throwing arm before being drafted by one of the top sports' programmes at the university of your dreams. Or if your friend didn't lose his parents when only thirteen. Sigmund Freud argued that an individual is scarred by painful events in their childhood (whether shock, fear or trauma), and that the way they emotionally respond to such events

shape their future behaviour. Freud had a huge success (Klein, 1963; Myers, 1995), even in the context of organisations, where usually psychoanalysts are interested in analysing organisational life in terms of the individuals' personal agenda, political power struggles and similar (Fineman, 1995; Gould, 1991; Klein, 1963).

Although Freud is definitely a famous one, William James seems to be more interested in understanding what is an emotion. According to James (1884), emotions are bodily changes, or better yet "bodily changes follow directly the perception of the exciting fact, and […] our feeling of the same changes as they occur is the emotion" (James, 1884, p. 190). What are then these bodily changes? We can say that it is a well-known expression that includes three different aspects, meaning expressive behaviours, instrumental acts and physiological changes. Right after James proposed his theory, Carl Lange presented something very close to it, and for this reason you might have heard about the James-Lange theory. Unfortunately, such theory was not very well received from the academia and other professionals, except for Ax (1953) and Funkenstein, King and Drolette (1954). In particular, it was initially rejected by Cannon (1931), who argued that the body does not work in the way James thought it does, and that means that real emotions can be produced through induced simulation of the bodily movements associated with them. In this perspective, Maranon (1924) links the vegetative state of emotion, which consists in sympathetic nervous system arousal to an evaluation of the situation, motive or reason behind the symptoms of the arousal to be experienced as emotion. Very similar to this concept, Schachster's Two-Factor theory of emotion (1959) states that emotions consist of two components, meaning physiological arousal and a situationally-appropriate cognition, in an equation that can be read as "emotion = arousal + cognition".

Other researchers have linked James' theory of emotion to facial feedback. For example, according to Allport (1924), there is a feedback from the face which cannot be ignored. In fact, "the facial expressions [of emotion] as well as bodily movements are strongly differential. Returning afferent impulses from these responses add to consciousness the distinguishing qualities which serve to differentiate the emotion […]. Without these impulses the two states would be […] indistinguishable." (Allport, 1924, p. 92). Similar conclusions are offered also by Tomkins (1975), who explored the role of facial muscles in differentiating emotions; as well as Lanzetta, Cartwright-Smith and Kleck (1976), and Laird (1974). The so called facial feedback hypothesis has been tested by Tourangeau and Ellsworth (1979), among others, who concluded that it "receives three major setbacks from evidence of this study. First, adopting

an emotional facial expression does not appear to be sufficient to produce the emotion. […] Second, adopting a non-emotional expression does not seem necessary for emotional feelings […]. Finally, this lack of correlation [between expression and feelings] constitutes especially damaging evidence against the theory." (Tourangeau & Ellsworth, 1979, p. 1528).

Emotion as Cognitive Appraisal

According to the cognitive perspective, emotions do not exist in us until we appraise them, which means we try to make sense of them. While the modern cognitive perspective was born in the mid-1960s and became popular only around the late 1970s or early 1980s, Richard Lazarus is thought of as the founder of the appraisal theory of emotion (note 2).

The very beginning of this approach can be read in the work of Magda Arnold, who affirmed that "to arouse an emotion, the object must be appraised as affecting me in some way, affecting me personally as an individual with my particular experience and my particular aims" (Arnold, 1960, p. 171). In her theory, firstly comes perception, then appraisal - here intended as judgement about the meaning of an event, where the judgement is not an intellectual one; and only at that point an emotion arises. It seems interesting to point out how Arnold believes in the link between emotions and their own display of bodily activity, which serve survival-related purposes, in line with Darwin and James. In particular, bodily responses associated with a specific emotion become the motivation behind the actions characteristic of the emotion itself. Think for example what happens when you are chased by a bear, or a lion. You perceive the situation, then appraise it as danger, and because of the perceived danger, you start running to save yourself. Once the emotion "fear" has been appraised, the action of running releases your body from the unpleasant tension you were feeling, and "since different emotions urge us to different actions, and the physiological symptoms are relieved when we give in to this urge, we might expect that the physiological changes, taken by and large, will be as different as are the emotions. […, in the expression of various emotions], there will always be a core that is similar from person to person or even from man to animal" (Arnold, 1960, p. 179). Arnold then proceeds defining emotion as "the felt tendency toward anything intuitively appraised as good (beneficial), or away from anything intuitively appraised as bad (harmful). This attraction or aversion is accompanied by a pattern of

physiological changes, organised toward approach or withdrawal. The patterns differ for different emotions." (Arnold, 1960, p. 182).

Around the time Arnold's theory came around, Speisman, Lazarus, Mordkoff and Davison (1964) began a series of studies to demonstrate that the individual's response to a stressful event can be minimised if they were prepared for such event in a non-stressful way. However, they were only able to prove that Arnold was right when affirming that the individual's response to an event depends on how the individual has appraised it. In particular, Lazarus developed his Cognitive-motivational-relational theory (1991), according to which emotions are responses to the environments we perceive, that "prepare and mobilise" us to cope with what we appraise there in in such environment (Smith & Lazarus, 1993, p. 234). In other words, appraisals are basically conducting in terms of "specific implications for personal well-being" (Smith & Lazarus, 1993, p. 236) that the individual sees in what happens to him or her, meaning if it might benefit or harm them. Such an appraisal process follows a primary appraisal, which consists in understanding if a specific event has or has not a specific implication on our well-being and how; and a secondary appraisal, which relates to how an individual decides to cope and prevent further harm or enhance benefits, and who is responsible for either situations. This is in line with Lazarus' position that cognition is both a necessary and sufficient condition for creating emotions (Lazarus, 1991, pp. 177-190).

While Lazarus has deeply influenced the cognitive theory of emotion, other researchers should be mentioned as well. For example, Mandler (1975) affirms that an emotion is generated by arousal, to be defined as "the activities of the autonomic nervous system, particularly its sympathetic division" (Mandler, 1975, p. 66), and its perception. According to Oatley and Johnson-Laird's Communicative theory of emotion (Oatley & Johnson-Laird, 1987), "emotion signals provide a specific communication system which can invoke the actions of some processors [modules] and switch others off. It sets the whole system into an organised emotion mode without propositional data having to be evaluated by a high-level conscious operating system… The emotion signal simply propagates globally through the system to set it into one of a small number of emotion modes." (Oatley & Johnson-Laird, 1987, p. 33). This means that a first communication is propositional, in the sense that it gives factual information about the world; then a second communication arises, which is emotional, because it sets the system in one of the emotional modes - that correspond to basic emotions. In the same perspective, Roseman et al. (Roseman, Spindel & Jose, 1990) affirm that

"the particular emotion(s) experienced in response to an event depend(s) on whether the event is perceived as inconsistent or consistent with a person's motives; whether motives relevant to the event involve decreasing one's punishments or increasing one's rewards; whether one sees oneself as weak or strong in the situation; whether the event is seen as caused by circumstances, other persons, or the self; and whether the event's occurrence is judged to be uncertain or certain." (Roseman, Spindel & Jose, 1990, p. 909).

Emotion as Social

In the previous sections, we have discussed several perspectives of emotion. From another angle, we might want to ask ourselves what exactly are the factors that contribute to the way we feel and react. According to the social perspective, to answer such question, we need to take into account different cultural experiences and expectations, as well as what is known as emotion roles and scripts, or language.

For example, Averill (1980) defines an emotion as "a transitory social role (a socially constituted syndrome) that includes an individual's appraisal of the situation and that is interpreted as a passion rather than as an action" (Averill, 1980, p. 312). Furthermore, Averill argues that emotions can be seen as syndromes, to which they have in common a variety of more or less identifiable components that tend to occur together. In the case of emotions, these can be either subjective experiences - or the particular feeling qualities associated with emotions; expressive reactions, which are the facial expressions and body postures that are linked to an emotion; physiological responses activated by the autonomic nervous system; and finally, coping reactions to the emotion itself. Such components are then coherently understood through the so called socially determined rules associated with the specific emotion, which Averill insists are learned. Think for example what could happen if a colleague elbowed you in the stomach. If it was done on purpose, you would have every right to get angry and berate them, without reverting to violence yourself. If done accidentally, you would not need to feel angry with them, because you should have learned by now that accidents can happen and you are socially trained to let it go. You might also think about how we learn a language, and the rules of interpretation and analysis that help you achieve it. In a similar way, Armon-Jones argues that some fears instilled in children are "instrumental in sustaining social values" (Armon-Jones, 1986, p. 63) for when they grow up.

An important aspect of the social construct of emotion relates to the recognition of our tendency to conform to conventional rules to avoid feelings like shame and embarrassment (McVeigh, 1997; Shields, 2002). While we deal with emotions in a private way, social conventions and expectations do not exist anymore, even though people might have influenced the way we feel and/or we feel in a particular way according to our own interpretation of such events. If we are sad when at work, we generally tend to avoid showing how much affected we are to colleagues, until we are in the safety of our home and be ourselves. Then again, from an organisational perspective, we might think for example of the training McDonald's or Disney employees receive. Whether they are happy or not, they have to smile to give customers what they expect of them. Emotional hypocrisy is part of who we are, because each one of us plays a part in our daily life.

Psychologist Arlie Hochschild (1979, 1983) studied the way we are hypocrites at work, while we engage in the so-called emotion work, meaning the effort we put in the way we constantly present our feelings to others, and the way we express feelings that we believe we should feel, regardless of the fact we are really feeling them. Contemplate for example the idea of emotional labourers like the flight attendant, the hamburger salesman, or the call service operator. Each one of them, before knowing the ropes of their job, need to learn how to deal with surface acting and deep acting.

From a similar perspective, we should consider the use of storytelling in the organisation (Morgan & Dennehy, 1997). Stories are one of the most powerful emotional tools or currencies we humans possess, in a sense that stories are expressions of feelings in everyday life. For this reason, philosopher Alisdair MacIntyre affirmed that humans are story-telling animals. Think about how many times during the day you ask someone "what did you do at work?", or "what happened in school?". Without even realising it, we keep using these phrase-triggering questions. This is one of the reasons why stories have been a fundamental and influential part of the human experience since we developed a language to use. They move people to feel, and they move people to act. Thus, stories are important in our everyday life, as well in the organisation, for three reasons.

The first one is that a story has the power to inspire us. How? Through imagination, we become part of the story that is being told. It should not be that difficult to remember for example how you feel when you read a well written book, or you watch a movie. Good books and movies allow you to identify yourself with the characters, to feel their pain, or their joy. You find yourself rooting for one of them, desperately waiting to see how the facts

unfold within the story. During a lecture at Stanford University, consultant Thaler Pekar expressed this concept effectively, saying that "When you share a story, you will spark a story. That is the power of story: it is an emergent form of communication, possessing the ability to tap into the experiences of your listener. You can connect seemingly abstract, new information to your listener's existing web of knowledge."

In this perspective, a story can achieve something that data alone will never be able to do: if expressed correctly, a story can make you feel, be inspired, and put you in contact with your feelings. A practical example of this power can be found within the courtroom, where usually whichever lawyer tells the best story wins.

Another reason why stories are important, is their ability to provide new models of behaviour. Even if it might look silly to say out loud, we may agree that sometimes individuals take into account what characters do in books, movies or other stories we have heard. This happens because stories are indeed very useful to provide behavioural examples or templates, and it is also the approach used in most business schools that use case study analysis and problem-based learning tools.

Finally, the last reason why stories are so important relates somehow to their ability to allow retelling and create the basis for change. In fact, not only can stories be told again to different audiences to serve the same purposes, they can also be modelled to become more our own so that their meaning can be interpreted and amplified to bigger depths.

As we have previously highlighted, stories have an important role within the organisation. David Boje (1991, 1995, 2014), one of the leading researchers in the field, agrees that stories are part of a so called organisation-wide information-processing network. In particular, Boje affirms that "bits and pieces of organization experience are recounted socially throughout the firm to formulate […] collective accounts that will serve as precedent for individual assumption, decision, and action. This is the institutional memory system of the organization.". In this sense, leaders and managers have been told to use stories as a powerful tool to influence organisational culture, among other things.

Said leaders tend to use stories from the past to remember where the organisation has come from, or what its core values are. Of course, in such a context, the story often goes back into history, an history that the teller needs to know well. It may be, for example, a story about an incident in which the founders of the company at some point refused to do something unethical despite tremendous temptation and business pressure, or the recount of the

day when an innovative project did not see the light of the day because the company was not ready for it. In this perspective, a story should be chosen also for its ability to help reshaping the organisation.

Another interesting way that stories can be used by managers, relates to new ways to involve employees, promoting a culture of innovation. A practical example of this function is provided by HP, that in 2013 inaugurated a dedicated news channel called HP News Now (HPNN) for employees to exchange information and stories. Nowadays, HPNN is the channel through which HP employees hear news first, before other news media, so that the initiative keeps maintaining HP's culture or "the HP way" among its people. Another good example is offered by British Telecom, the UK telecommunications group, where graduates and new employees have interviews with senior managers, close to retirement, who share in video recorded meetings their knowledge of the company and skills (or tacit knowledge), gained in their years at BT.

As anticipated before, stories can be effectively used to shape the organisational vision. If you can imagine the future of the organisation, you can share it through a powerful story. Steve Job's famous inspirational stories are certainly a good example. Another good one is the famous story known as the 'Acre of Diamonds', used by the Baptist preacher Russell Conwell at least 5 thousand times in the early 20th century, to inspire Philadelphians to invest in Philadelphia and not somewhere. Through his storytelling, he raised large sums of money to fund many philanthropic causes in Philadelphia and even establish the famous Temple University.

Now that we have established how important is to master the storytelling skills, how can organisations help their managers to use storytelling more effectively? There are several workshops and retreats - or self-study books - that may come in handy at this point. However, we can say that clever stories present four basic features, these being boundaries, dynamic tensions, growth, and possibility. With the term boundaries, we mean what distinguishes the story itself from other elements during a flow of communication. Through dynamic tension, we tend to capture our listeners' interest, in order to elicit curiosity in what happens next, and in particular in their need for a happy ending. During the phase of growth, tension is created and people demand its release somehow, in what becomes the next step, meaning a possibility for more. This happens when, although the story has reached an end and all the previous tension disappeared, there is still room for more unanswered questions and open reflections.

In this perspective, we might want to see how to adapt the above mentioned structure in the workplace, and provide some practical tips for business people.

First of all, it is important that management finds a public opportunity for social recognition. If you saw the recent movie The Circle, then you know exactly what we are talking about. To share a story, and to make it stick within your organisation, this has to be embedded in it, through social communication. It may happen during a weekly meeting, or company's feeds, or any other social-related event. How? Being a manager, when you thank someone of your team for their great performance, or outstanding behaviour, you should always make sure not to simply say "thank you for all you have done". A good leader needs to add details, needs to be specific, and that will become the basis for a heartfelt story about the organisation.

Mostly, the most effective stories have a moral in them, they have a purpose and for that reason they are connected somehow to the organisation itself, whether to its culture or the way it's shaping its future.

While thinking about emotions as a social affair, we must also remember that not all the emotions we might feel are positive per se. Sometimes, or someone could say most of the time, we feel obligated to conform to social norms because of specific negative emotions, such as shame, embarrassment and fear. In this context, we might want to think about the consequences of public shaming for example, and how initiatives such as public performance tables, or weekly meetings to celebrate the best in an organisation, also highlight and shame the weakest, considered the "losers".

So, as we have pointed out before, the social dimension of emotions again comes in contrast with our private ones, where we can privately feel with more freedom. Because not even in our private world we always feel what we are supposed to, because emotions arise from our own interpretation of a situation, and sometimes we might be influenced to perceive it differently from what it is. We might still have to wear a mask, an emotion that we perceive is the one expected from us. Let us think for a moment about what this means exactly. You have been invited to a party, to celebrate a friend's birthday, but you do not feel like celebrating. You still go to the party, because that it is what it is expected of you, and for the same reason, you plaster a smile on your face. After a bit, you start feeling really happy, even though your night did not start in such mood. This happens in situations where emotions are socially contagious, meaning you pick up others' feelings along the way and mimic them until you started feeling them. In this context, researchers use the term 'emotion script' to identify "the ways people are able to talk about their feelings, within the social rules that govern those feelings" (Fineman, *Understanding emotions at work*, p. 20). In particular, as part of our emotional culture, each one of us already knows how to express our feelings, and it

should not surprise that emotion scripts are also gendered (where we can see scripts who are intended for female customers rather than male ones), and this sometimes facilitates the arising of emotional hypocrisy. Now, all of us has been an emotional hypocrite at least once in their life, and played a part. According to Arlie Hochschild (1979, 1983), an America sociologist, this is the basis for the so called emotion work, which exists in our personal effort in managing our feelings, playing acceptable scripts, and showing we feel what we ought to. Hochschild, in particular, analyses specific careers such as the flight attendant, the hamburger salesperson, and the call centre operator, and argues that such emotional labourers are paid by their employer for a specific emotional display. This also relates to what we earlier called surface acting and deep acting.

CONCLUSION

In this Chapter, we have discussed what an emotion is, and pointed out that there are several definitions of emotion that we can rely upon. While there is no universal consensus over which definition is suitable for the organisational context, we have looked at four theoretical perspectives of the theory of emotions. Learning more about the historical views in the research field of emotions is beneficial to us to better understand how to apply psychological findings to the organisation, in order to offer some useful insights on emotion management in the workplace.

In the next Chapter, we will look more closely at the application of emotions in the organisation, while presenting some key factors that will underpin our considerations about several different possible approaches to personnel management and in general organisational behaviour in relation to emotion.

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APPENDIX

Note 1: Lutz, C., & White, G. M. (1986). The anthropology of emotions. *Annual Review of Anthropology*, 15, 405-436. See also: Lazarus, R. S. (1991). *Emotion and adaptation.* New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
Note 2: Literature presented by Lazarus is vast. Interesting readings could be:

- Lazarus, R. S. (1991). *Emotion and Adaptation.* New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
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Chapter 2
Emotions in the Workplace

ABSTRACT

In this chapter, the authors build on the classic theories from the previous chapter to better understand the role of emotion in the workplace. They introduce the field of organisational behaviour, which deals with what people, as individuals or groups, do in an organisation, and how what they do affects the organisation itself. Although it would be impossible to present all matters related to organisational behaviour as a discipline, the authors discuss issues concerning diversity in the workplace, as well as considering personal attributes that can influence behaviour and decision making in the organisation. While offering a clear definition of moods versus emotion, they also tackle the impact of personality, personality traits, and values in the workplace.

INTRODUCTION

In the previous Chapter, we have discussed in great detail what an emotion is, and how researchers have tackled this topic from the beginning, including classical theory from Charles Darwin and others. Through different perspectives on emotion such as for example, biological and social, we have tried to lay down the basics of emotion theory. Now, we will explore the link between such perspectives and the organisation, through an organisational behaviour lens, to see if there is room for implementation in dealing with employees from a strategic perspective.

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So, why should we be interested in emotions in the workplace? As Boudens and Saudelands suggested (1999, note 1), people spend most of their waking life at work, where complex and intense forms of group life tend to arise. In their studies, researchers have highlighted that when asked about their jobs, people do not talk much about what they actually do at work. Emotions are described in negative terms, for example to suggest fatigue and stress in their daily routines. This attitude could be explained through the automation and repetition in jobs, which in turn highlight the need to project future goals or ends, rather than concentrating in physical tasks. Other studies (see for example, Argyris, 1957; Maslow, 1954; or Terkel, 1972 - note 2) seem to suggest that people, when asked about what makes their job meaningful, tend to not consider self-actualisation or the desire for personal growth. It appears that, what they are trying to achieve is a connection to others. In particular, Terkel (1972), Garson (1975) and Hamper (1986, note 3) found that individuals mostly talk about other people when referring to their job. This might be in terms of friendship, love, conflict, gossip or in a more general social context. However, it appears that, in such studies, negative feelings and experiences are usually recounted, with the group found guilty of having rejected an individual, who in response feels sad, hurt and angry about it. Although we will have a chance to discuss job satisfaction and feelings in the workplace in the following chapter, it might be important to remind ourselves at this stage that "work feeling" is different from the concept of job satisfaction: the latter concerns the personal judgement an individual has about their specific job, while the first one is more related to the group and how the group perceives emotions at work.

That said, we will now analyse the workplace from an organisational behaviour perspective, and look at what can influence such emotions in the organisation.

WHAT IS ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR?

To better understand what is organisational behaviour (also abbreviated as OB) and how important it has grown nowadays, we should remember that until the late 1980s, business schools preferred to concentrate on the technical aspects of management (i.e., accounting, finance), while the study of human behaviour and soft skills in an organisation were still not considered

fundamental. Since then, has there been a change in attitude in regard to organisational behaviour? It appears so, with academics and researchers have found a correlation between the introduction of organisational behaviour as a discipline and improvements in interpersonal skills and workplace productivity. This also generates a positive impact on the workplace that becomes a better place in general terms, possibly because of the strong relationship between the quality of workplace relationships and important factors such as employee satisfaction, stress and turnover.

Now that we have presented a little bit of history, how can we define organisational behaviour? We can say that organisational behaviour is the field of study that deals with what people (whether as individuals or groups) do in an organisation, and how what they do affects the organisation itself. What is it exactly that people do in an organisation? To answer this question, Fred Luthans and his associates conducted a famous study on more than 450 managers (note 4), which highlighted four areas for managerial activities, that can be summarised as follows. Firstly, there is an area around traditional management, which is concerned with decision making, planning and controlling. The second area relates to communication, which in turn involves knowledge sharing and paperwork load; then we have the more traditional human resource management, that deals with the motivating, training, disciplining, recruiting and managing conflict within staff members. Lastly, we have networking activities, which have to do with all the opportunities to socialise, interact and similar with people from outside the organisation. Luthan's study has been fundamental in highlighting the most important areas managers should work on and plan improvements. In particular, data shows that the most effective managers are those required to intensively engage with communication tasks, while networking skills seem to be the least requested.

Using a systematic-based approach, which states that behaviour is not random - in a sense that it is somewhat predictable, organisational behaviour as a discipline proposes an evidence-based management (EBM), where managers are encouraged to use a more scientific approach for their managerial decisions. In this sense, we can say that a systematic study and the use of EBM tools complement what we are used to consider intuition or "gut feelings" on how we perceive others. It is important to highlight that EBM is embedded in the extensive use of data analytics, which should give clear indications in terms of predicting events, assessing risks and preventing problems (note 5).

It seems pretty straightforward that organisational behaviour is an applied behavioural science that is cross bred with several disciplines, such as psychology (which concentrates on studying the behaviour of humans and

other animals), social psychology (which is a branch of psychology that deals with people's influence on other humans), sociology (which studies people in relation to their social environment or culture) and anthropology (that studies the societies to better understand human beings).

Because organisational behaviour tends to be a comprehensive discipline which is borderline with management and correlated human resource aspects, researchers approach organisational behaviour's themes through three dimensions, those being at *individua*l level, *group* level and finally in form of *organisation system*.

Using organisational behaviour tools and systems, we have discovered global tendencies such as the typical employee getting older, or the need for employees that can adapt and change rapidly, or diversity in the workplace. These results are generated by the reality that organisations do not have to see national borders as constraints anymore, and that there is an effort in understanding different cultures and how these affect the management styles in response to the diversity in people employed. In particular, workplace diversity is a global trend according to which, factors such as employees' gender, sexual orientation, race, ethnicity and similar are becoming more heterogeneous within the organisations. Studies have highlighted how the workplace is affected by changes in the economy, longevity, birth rates (these last two are related to the assumption that the workforce is getting older), and other socioeconomic effects (Belkin & Peters, 2014; Bloom, Sadun & Van Reenan, 2012; Jaffe, 2014; Karabell, 2014; Morozov, 2014; Porter & Korn, 2014; PricewaterhouseCoopers LLP Report, 2014).

Other factors that organisational behaviour take into account are the frequent use of social media and well-being at work. Interestingly, a study found out that subjects who woke up in a good mood in the morning had their mood worsened during the day after checking their Facebook frequently, and that seemed to also be proved by the fact that they reported a decrease in their level of life satisfaction after a two-week period (see, for example, Dwoskin, 2014). As for well-being at work, there is a modern debate related to smart working opportunities, flexibility and general concerns around the integration of virtual workers within internal teams, as well as the requests from managers of working more hours than normal, that has been found linked to a rising level of stress and fatigue (Early & Chin, 2010; Lowrey, 2014; Weber & Silverman, 2015). Not so surprisingly, a growing area of research in organisational behaviour is the so called Positive Organizational Scholarship (POS), which is interested in learning how organisations develop their people and unlock their potential. We will discuss in the next Chapters

how important is performance and talent management to create the right organisational culture, while improving efficiency and gaining sustainable competitive advantage for the company.

In general terms, Robbins and Judge (2018) present a basic model of organisational behaviour, where the term model defines a simplified representation of something that happens in real life, using three types of variables - which are input, processes and outcomes. These variables are looked at in three levels of analysis, in line with what we have already pointed out, that organisational behaviour simultaneously looks at the individual, group and organisational system. Inputs are variables like personality, group structure and organisational culture that are the basis for what will happen in the workplace later. Furthermore, processes are actions that individuals (think for example about emotions, moods, motivation and decision making activities), groups (whether in terms of leadership, communication, conflict and negotiation skills) and organisations (in particular for HR practices) engage in as a result of inputs, that lead to specific outcomes. At this point, outcomes can be defined as what managers are trying to understand and predict, and are affected by variables such as attitude and stress, task performance, organisational citizenship behaviour - also known as OCB, which encloses among other things additional tasks that employees do even if these are not formally required of them, as well as any withdrawal behaviour (such as, for example, absenteeism and high turnover in a particular department); group cohesion - or the level of group support and validation among team members; ways in which the group functions, or better yet perform; productivity of the employees, which is directly affected by the level of efficiency and effectiveness; and finally, survival techniques and behaviours, in relation to the organisational environment as well as to productivity.

Diversity in Organisations

Most organisations are known to be diverse, especially in our modern world, where internationalisation and globalisation are core concepts. Diversity is a general term that can be described either as surface level diversity (which refers to demographics such as age, race, gender, a sterile way to look at employees through the lens of stereotypes) or deep level diversity, which considers more important characteristics such as personality and values (Casper, Wayne, & Manegold, 2013; Early and Chin, 2010). We will discuss

in greater detail topics such as power in organisation, leadership skills and management of emotion in Part II.

While diversity per se is an important aspect of the workplace, its management should also include ways to eliminate unfair discrimination. If it is true that differences among people are important attributes, a discrimination usually incurs when such differences arise because of our tendency to judge someone according to our beliefs or perception of the group they belong to, in other words stereotyping. In particular, within the workplace we have to be careful of the so called stereotype threat, which describes our personal agreement with the negative perceptions linked to the group we belong, especially among minorities. We can avoid such threats by implementing into the work environment the practice to look at individuals rather than groups, and embed it within the organisational culture. You might have heard of such practice as an effective diversity climate (Ragins, Gonzalez, Ehrhardt, & Singh, 2012), which tries to create a sense of inclusiveness among employees.

Although the law prohibits several discriminatory practices related to diversity, and other awful ones that should be dealt with in internal policies, practices and procedures, we still see many discriminatory practices in the workplace. The most common are perhaps sexual harassment (which can be defined as unwanted sexual advances through verbal and/or physical approaches of sexual nature, that create a hostile and offensive work environment); intimidation, as in bullying and/or threatening members of specific groups; exclusion, which happens when people from a specific group are intentionally or unintentionally excluded from social events, promotions and similar; and lastly, discriminatory behaviours and practices, which happen for example when, in contrast with the Equality and Diversity Act, a certain group of people is denied equal opportunities or rewards. Such kind of situations awaken negative emotions in the workplace, which in turn enhance stress level, anxiety and poor work performance.

As highlighted before, discrimination can happen in several basic situations, related for example to biographical characteristics, such as age. Recent data show that the workforce is getting older, and there is evidence that 93% of the growth in labour between 2006-2016 came from workers over age 54 (Lytle, 2012). In this environment, managers may have to deal with different stereotypes. On one hand, you might think of the old, grumpy worker who does not understand how a computer works and says things like "what is an email?" (see, for example, Wolfson, Cavanaugh & Kraiger, 2014); while others may tend to stress too much on the perceived experience and wisdom usually linked to an older age. However, even though this does not seem

to be common knowledge, the majority of studies indicate that there is no correlation between age and job performance (see, for example, Tergensen, 2014). On the contrary, creativity through experimentation, which is linked to innovation and adaptation, seems to sparkle among people between their 40s and 60s. In relation to job satisfaction, it also appears that older workers tend to be more satisfied with their job (Ng & Feldman, 2010), even though some researchers have pointed out that such satisfaction drops off once middle age is reached.

Another biographical characteristic that should be taken into account for managerial purposes, is gender. Recent news has confirmed the assumption that males seem to be preferred in male-dominated occupations, and in general we can say that there is a gender bias when hiring for management positions (Koch, D'Mello & Sackett, 2015). At this point you might want to think for example about the recent gender pay gap scandals, or the results from several studies according to which females are less likely to be given assignments that could help them with a promotion (King et al., 2012). In a similar way, sexual orientation or gender identity represent a struggle in the modern workplace. An exemplar case is IBM, that was somehow moved to change its ultra-conservative attitude to avoid reputational damage (Burns, 2012). More than 90% of the Fortune 500's companies have policies for sexual orientation, while gender orientation is slowly becoming prevented with initiatives such as the possibility to use the gender-neutral title "Mx", or "Mixter".

In relation to diversity, we should also consider race and ethnicity in the mix, where race represents the biology, while ethnicity relates more to the culture aspect. Studies show that members of racial and ethnic minorities experienced higher levels of discrimination in the workplace (Avery, McKay & Wilson, 2008). At the same time, disabilities are a hot topic at the moment, where obvious disabilities are protected by the law, while there is a desperate need in the workplace to be more aware of hidden disabilities, such as not disclosed learning disabilities, fibromyalgia or other mental illness.

In terms of diversity in the workplace, good managers should consider the individual's ability to perform their duties. Such abilities could be physical, to perform a job (in the studies indicated in note 5, nine physical abilities are recognised as fundamental), and intellectual, meaning that they can be assessed through tests for number aptitude, verbal comprehension, perceptual speed, inductive and deductive reasoning, spatial visualisation and memory. Such factors are said to be positively correlated and generalisable across cultures (Barber, 2005; Lang, Kersting, Hulscheger & Lang, 2010). In particular,

researchers suggest the use of the GMA (general mental ability) test, which gives a general idea of an individual's mental ability. It is said that while intelligent people perform better and have the most interesting of positions, they also expect more from their jobs (Ganzach, 2003). In the workplace, tests are used as efficient hiring tools, such as the Wonderlin Intellectual Ability Test that allows candidates 12 minutes to answer to 50 questions. The test measures speed and mental agility, with questions getting proportionally harder, and produces an average score of 21 out of 50.

Such kind of problematic behaviours in the workplace can be influenced by a cultural approach to emotion, which implies that emotions are constructed by cultural-specific beliefs, practices and behaviours, which have been influenced by historical and economic forces. In this perspective, it is important to highlight that researchers like Batja Mesquita (2001) have argued that such approach is concentrating on the practice of emotions, rather than on its potential, where a potential approach would investigate the arising of certain universal emotional responses in relation to experience, expression and physiology, from people of direct cultures which have been put in an appropriate experimental environment. Studies in this approach have found out, for example, that emotions which promote specific cultural values and ideals are valued more, and that implies they should play a more important role in the social lives of individuals (Tsai, Knutson & Fung, 2006; Tsai & Levenson, 1997).

Emotions and Moods

In the workplace, different factors influence behaviours and emotional attitudes among employees. Before moving on, it is important to stress that affect refers to a broad range of feelings, thus including emotions and moods (Barsade & Gibson, 2007); furthermore, according to the definition given by the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, emotions are intense feelings directed towards something or someone, while moods are less intense feelings usually arising after a specific event (The American Heritage Medical Dictionary). In very general terms, moods can last for a period of time, and we can group them into moods having positive affect because they consist of positive emotions (i.e., excitement), or negative affect (i.e., anxiety, or stress). It is important to highlight that while we experience moods and emotions differently from one another, studies have found out that in a positivity offset, which arises

when nothing is happening, most people are in a mild positive mood (Ito & Cacioppo, 2005).

To figure out basic emotions, researchers have looked at the way we express them, and in doing so, they had to take into account also cultural differences in countries that can be either individualistic or collectivistic - in other words, we need to take into account if people seek community goals, rather than those of the individual (see note 6). Researchers have also studied the so called moral emotions, which can be defined as emotions that evoke instant judgement, with moral implications (i.e., guilt, anger, sympathy). We will have the opportunity to look at their influence throughout several chapters. At this stage, it is safe to say that emotions are a huge component in our rational thinking, because they provide us with an interpretation to comprehend the world. In the same way, data seems to suggest that individuals in a negative mood are more capable to discern the truth than those in a positive mood (Reynard & Schwartz, 2012).

Emotions and moods are influenced by several factors, some of which can be listed as follows. Personality is surely the easiest one to understand, because according to personality traits, individuals are more or less inclined to experience certain moods and emotions more frequently than others. They are also experienced in a spectrum of intensities, meaning individuals tend to feel the same emotions with different intensity (Rubin, Hoyle & Leary, 2012). Also the time of the day can influence moods, which we have already established may vary during the day (Golder & Macy, 2011). Thus, studies say in general terms that a positive affect seems to drop after 7pm, while according to other observations it seems to increase before midnight. A similar principle applies to the days of the week, with Mondays recording the mood at the lowest (Golder & Macy, 2011). For those who could not phathom the idea that weather can be a cause of emotional distress, researchers have demonstrated there is an illusory correlation between weather and moods (Lee, Gino & Staats, 2014), with other studies showing that bad weather improves work because there are less distractions.

Other factors to take into account can be a general feeling of stress; sleep patterns - it has been demonstrated there is a correlation between loss of sleep and depression, difficulty in controlling emotions, rise in diseases (Meinert, 2012); physical exercise (Giacobbi, Hausenblas & Frye, 2005); age, where it appears that positive moods improve when you get older; and finally sex, with the knowledge that women hold on to their emotions longer than men and display them more, except for anger (Guard & Kring, 2007; Jakupcak, Salters, Gratz & Roemer, 2003).

Now that we have presented some interesting facts, how can these factors influence the workplace? According to the Affective Events Theory (AET), employees react to emotions in the workplace and the way they react to those emotions affect their performance (note 7). In most recent years, the term Emotional Labour has been introduced to define the employee's expression of organisationally desired emotions during interpersonal transactions at work. In such definition we have to look at felt emotions - which are those emotions we actually feel, and displayed emotions, that consist of the proper emotions to display at work, and as such, they are learnt and do not necessarily coincide with felt emotions. Displayed emotions may require the ability of surface acting, and when this happens daily, there is a negative impact in job performance (Trougakos, Beal, Cheng, Hideg & Zweig, 2015). To avoid such negative impacts, individuals should work on their mindfulness, or their ability to look at their emotions objectively (Hushelger, Alberts, Feinholdt & Lang, 2013). When an employee feels forced to hide their true emotions, they work to modify what they truly feel in accordance with display rules, the so called deep acting.

In this perspective, around the '90s, a successful concept arose, thanks to Daniel Goleman (1996, 1998). The concept is globally known as Emotional Intelligence (EI), which is defined as the individual's ability to detect emotions in themselves and others, and manage such emotions accordingly. Several studies demonstrate that EI is fundamental in job performance (for example, students with higher EI were better at strategic decision making and profitable investment decisions - Gilkey, Caceda & Kilts, 2010; Seo & Barrett, 2007). In organisational behaviour, similar concepts are key to successful management and individuals should be familiar with emotion regulation, a process during which they try to identify and modify what they are feeling in the workplace (Kluemper, DeGroot & Choi, 2013). We will have a better look at Emotional Intelligence in following chapters, in relation to both human resource management and leadership skills.

Personality and Values

In previous sections we have discussed about the importance of emotion in the workplace, and the different contexts and perspectives which can be applied to better understand emotion. Among such factors, we should also consider personality and values, which influence emotion on a daily basis.

So, what is this personality stuff? We can define personality as the sum of ways in which an individual reacts to and interacts with others. Think for example of how you would describe someone in your office. You may want to say things such as timid, lazy, cooperative and talkative. These adjectives may describe the individual's reaction in a certain occasion, or you might think they apply for most of the situations in which the specific individual is involved. In the latter case, where it appears such characteristics occur repeatedly, these can be seen as the individual's personality traits (Roberts & Mroczek, 2008).

While studies have shown that people can indicate around 624 adjectives to describe people they know (Leising, Scharloth, Lohse, & Wood, 2014), it makes sense for organisations to use personality assessments (note 8) in different contexts, such as to predict who would better fill a specific role on a team, and in general, who is the best hire. Usually, such assessments are measured through self-report surveys, although studies have demonstrated that observer-ratings surveys are more efficient, probably because there are bias in the way the individual judges themselves (such as, for example, culture references and influences). Thus, personality can be seen as the result of both hereditary and environmental determinants, even though some research suggests hereditary factors might have more influence. In this perspective, best practice proposes the use of both self-report and observer-ratings surveys together.

It is important to highlight that there is no such thing as the perfect hire. Although organisations can now count on top recruitment agencies, new softwares with omni-comprehensive statistical algorithms, and gurus ready to share miraculous tips, when hiring, we should never forget to look out for self-monitoring people. What is self-monitoring and why should it be of relevance to us? Self-monitoring describes an individual's ability to adjust their behaviour to situational factors (Parks-Leduc, Pattie, Pargas, & Eliason, 2014), hence behaving differently from what they would normally do in order to get the job, a promotion and so on. It appears that employees with low self-monitoring attributes tend to honestly display what they feel and think, hence showing consistence in their behaviour. Think, for example, about those people you would describe as true to themselves, and you find it easier to work with because you expect from them a more genuine behaviour, and less political games at work.

We have established the importance of personality tests when it comes to hiring, and later on, for leadership purposes and team work. Which test should we use then? Within the personality frameworks, we have several possibilities

to take into account, starting from the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator. This is probably the most used personality test in the world (Kennedy & Kennedy, 2004), in a variety of contexts, from organisations to university admission. It is made up of 100 questions that address how individuals behave and feel in certain situations. Once completed, the responses help classify individuals in 4 categories (extraverted or introverted; sensing or intuitive; thinking versus feeling; judging or perceiving), without exceptions. This means you are either in one category or another. Results give an interesting explanation of how you behave, your preferences and so on, and you can immediately see if you can somehow recognise yourself in the words describing your personality traits. Such tests rely on the individual's ability to judge themselves fairly, and based on real behaviours rather than on how someone thinks or hopes to behave. In proposing the Myers-Briggs test, experts warn about the difference between the self and the work-self, to point out how we tend to be different in the work environment from who we usually are with friends and family.

Another interesting test to try out should be the so called Big Five Personality Test. According to this model, there are five basic dimensions within the human personality, which might give us the opportunity to predict how individuals would behave in a specific situation with some daily adjustments (note 9). The Big Five factors are personal characteristics that can be summarised as follows:

1. Conscientiousness, which measures how much a person is reliable, organised, dependant and persistent. In particular, "Personal attributes related to conscientiousness and agreeableness are important for success across many jobs, spanning across low to high levels of job complexity, training and experience" (Sackett & Walmsley, 2014). Such traits takes into account the fact that individuals who score high on consciousness are likely to accumulate more job knowledge (Poropat, 2009), which in turn indicates higher job performance. However, they are also likely to prioritise work over their family, which can cause problems to their personal life (Wille, De Fruyt & Feys, 2013), as well as concentrating too much on their job to help others in the organisation (Shoss, Callison & Witt, 2015) and are less adaptive in case of change, possibly because of their limited creativity (note 10).
2. Emotional stability, or the extent to which an individual copes with stress, which is directly related to the individual's ability to better react in times of organisational change (Huang, Ryan, Zabel & Palmer, 2014);

3. Extraversion, that expresses the individual's comfort level with relationships (in terms, for example, of how much one is gregarious, assertive and sociable). This trait is especially high in socially dominant people (Foti & Hauenstein, 2007), and is related to their ability to lie easier, even during job interviews (Weiss & Feldman, 2006).
4. Openness to experience, which takes into account the degree of novelty an individual can stand, which is correlated to the individual's ability to be an effective leader and comfortable in situations where ambiguity reigns; and lastly,
5. Agreeableness, or how much the individual is cooperative, warm and trusting, thus increasing their compliance to rules, and their job satisfaction, which in turn promotes organisational citizenship behaviour (Ilies, Fulmer, Spitzmuller & Johnson, 2009).

The tests mentioned above revolve around the idea of looking for positive personality traits and behaviours. However, organisations are well aware of the importance in managing also the negative side of human beings. Under the name of Dark Triad, researchers have found three socially undesirable traits (Rauthmann, 2012), that do not necessarily happen together and they can all cause disruptions in the individual's career and personal life (Harms & Spain, 2015; Jonason, Slomski & Partyka, 2012). These are Machiavellianism, narcissism and psychopathy. With the term Machiavellian, often used in a critical way, we tend to describe individuals who use "clever but often dishonest methods that deceive people so that you can win power or control" (Cambridge English Dictionary).

So, we can say that employees high on Machiavellianism are pragmatic, less emotional, highly persuasive, more likely to act aggressively because they believe that the ends justifies the means. Being less inclined in being persuaded while at the same time being capable of persuading others, these individuals may easily achieve short term results, however they do not seem to perform well in the long run, because their attitude does not allow them to be liked by co-workers.

Narcissism is another interesting trait, which relates to the way an individual sees himself with excessive self-importance, while being arrogant and requiring constant admiration. For their characteristics, narcissistic individuals present traits such as lack of empathy, fantasies of success, sense of entitlement (Grijalva & Harms, 2014), hypersensitivity and fragility (note 68), feeling over qualified for their position (Maynard, Brondolo, Connelly & Sauer, 2015), and lastly distancing themselves from feedback that conflict with how

they perceive themselves (Maynard, Brondolo, Connelly & Sauer, 2015). If after reading about such personality traits you are starting thinking that this may describe you, do not worry, there is nothing wrong with you. Studies show that a moderate presence of narcissism is positive when correlated with leadership effectiveness (Meinert, 2014).

On the other end, psychopathy is defined as a lack of concern for others, and a lack of guilt or remorse when actions cause harm (O'Boyle, Forsyth, Banks & McDaniel, 2012). Some research seems to find a correlation between psychopathy and the use of hard influence tactics (i.e., threats, manipulation) and work bullying that can either be physical or verbal (Baughman, Dearing, Giammarco & Vernon, 2012).

Another research suggests the possibility of displaying other five dark traits, among:

1. Antisocial people: these individuals are extroverts, but they do not care about others, may be prone to be violent and risky decision making.
2. Borderline people: such individuals are unpredictable in their interactions at work, are inefficient and with low job satisfaction (Orth & Robins, 2013), because of their low self-esteem.
3. Schizotypal individuals, who are eccentric and disorganised, while being highly creative and stressed.
4. Obsessive-compulsive people have strong work ethic, an attention to detail and work well with incentives, while being stubborn and perfectionists.
5. Avoidant individuals can work only where little interaction is required (Wille, De Fruyt & De Clercq, 2013), because of their feelings of being inadequate and their inability to take on criticisms.

Personality Traits in the Workplace

If we try to evaluate personality in relation to the environment, we should take into account two important theories, also known as the Situation Strength theory and the Trait Activation theory (or TAT).

According to the Situation Strength Theory, the situation strength is what translates the personality in a specific behaviour. The term situation strength can be identify as the degree to which norms, cues or standards show the appropriate behaviour, pressuring the individual into it while discouraging the wrong ones. In an organisation, situation strength can be measured according to different factors (Meyer, Dalal & Hermida, 2010), that can be identified in clarity and availability of correct cues about work duties and

responsibilities; or the consistency of such work cues with one another; then again, we might want to look at constraints of the individual's ability to choose how to behave; and finally, the consequences of such behaviours in relation to the organisation itself, its members, clients and so on.

On the other end, we might want to use the Trait Activation Theory when it is particularly important to match jobs with personalities, considering it can predict which trait will be used in particular situations or events.

In the previous section, we explored how personality and values are important to determine the best fit for a job, and what to take into account in order to choose strategically and create a competitive advantage. For example, John Holland's Personality-Job Fit Theory (note 11) helps organisations find the right match between job requirements and personality characteristics, using a Vocational Preference Inventory which matches user interests with occupations based on one of the six personality types an individual can display (e.g., Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising and conventional). In Chapter Six, we will discuss another interesting way to look at the need for such fit, between the individual and organisation (Arthur Jr., Bell, Villado & Doverspike, 2006; Edwards, Cable, Williamson, Lambert & Shipp, 2006). Taken in context, we can say that another important aspect of personalities are the so called values, or basic convictions that "a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence" (Maio, Olson, Bernard & Luke, 2003). In simpler terms, we determine if a mode of conduct or end-state of existence is important, and then how important it is, in order to obtain the individual's value system. Seems easy enough to understand!

Now, going back to values and their relationship within the organisation, we should ask ourselves a few questions to evaluate how important they might be. For instance, do values help decision making? Yes, it appears so. Do they help objectivity and rationality? No, at least according to Holtz & Harold (2013), because values are definitely personal. In particular, Milton Rokeach organised values in two categories: terminal values, which represent our desirable end-states, what we would like to achieve in our life (let's say, for example, being happy); and instrumental values, which constitute the means of achieving the terminal values (in our previous example, buying a house could make us happy).

Values reflect not only an individual component, but also represent a cultural dimension. In relation to diverse cultural values, researchers have highlighted several differences between Western and Eastern cultures, for example in the way management and leadership roles are conducted. Among

them, we can mention Hofstelde (note 12) and his discovery that managers and employees vary on five value dimensions of national culture, these being power distance, or the extent to which inequalities of power and wealth are accepted; individualism versus collectivism, where individualistic countries put the self at the centre, and the collectivistic ones promote group collaboration. Then again, there are different cultural preconceptions in how to treat masculinity and femininity, or the extent to which men and women are seen as equals. For instance, we can argue about the limited roles women can have in Middle East countries, or the recent global tumult around gender gaps in salaries. Other concerns can take the form of uncertainty avoidance, or the way some countries prefer structured situations over unstructured ones, especially in cultures where change and innovation are not seen as opportunities. There is also a certain divergence in the so called long-term versus short-term orientation among cultures, where long-term orientation looks at the future rather than the here and now in planning and general living.

Such a perspective also touches on aspects of ethics and general management, in ways that shape the way people are recruited, and how initiatives to promote reward and performance are carried out. We have seen in recent years a rising in interest in finding creative ways to reward employees, and attracting the best candidates for a role, especially in Silicon Valley, with a comprehensive package of benefits, which can include laundry discounts, gym or reading subscription, weekend getaways to learn how to parachute from an airplane, instead of more traditional monetary incentives. While reading and looking at values in the workplace in an international perspective, it might be worth citing the GLOBE Framework, also known as the Global Leadership and Organisational Behaviour Effectiveness research program founded in 1993, that follow Hofstede's theories to look at cross-cultural leadership and national culture (House, Hanges, Javidan & Dorfman, 2004; Schloesser, Frese et al., 2012) in 825 organisations over 62 countries.

CONCLUSION

In this Chapter, we have largely discussed emotions in the workplace, and important factors that can influence our emotional response, such as personality. What we have tried to highlight from a managerial perspective, is that the management of emotion is an essential part of the work and can

also be considered as an exchangeable resource (at least according to Day and Crain, 1992) within the social contract between employee and employer.

That said, it would be easy at this stage to affirm that work relationships are somehow different from our personal relationships. We all have to act differently to some extent - as pointed out in this Chapter - and work relationships are created, interpreted and modified by emotions which are personal and somewhat social, in the performances we put up. Although someone might argue that employees act, it has been proved that organisational relationships and their complex dynamics are sources to intense emotions (Waldron & Krone, 1991). Fineman (1993) goes even beyond the point, demonstrating that such intense emotional response derives itself from the nature of the work relationships, rather than the task itself. From this perspective, we can argue that there is a clear need to balance public and private work relationships, where the lines are more blurry and emotions tend to be intensify.

From another perspective, some individuals tend, for different reasons, whether these might be personal inclination or strategic thinking, to avoid confrontation with work colleagues, creating a steaming feeling of abuse and being wronged, which in contrast tends to help a rising desire for revenge. Think for example at the feeling of betrayal that develops when a colleague seems to choose the organisation over the friend, maybe through the sharing confidences and secrets to their superiors (Bies, 1987; Harlos & Pinder, 1999; Trevino, 1992). Allegiances are built and fortified, especially in the low-ranking positions, and a sort of moral code between colleagues is informally used. Such dynamics are very powerful and can make the difference in determining if an organisation is successful or not, in particular for startups and innovative companies in a disruptive market sector.

The psychological tests we have discussed in this Chapter can be used to better understand who we are, and how to maximise our personality traits to fit more easily into the organisation and social life. Then again, people tend to use an emotional language to create or destroy a bond with peers, in a way that resembles manipulation of emotion (Waldron, 1999), for example in showing interest to be accepted by the team, or using flattery to be considered charming (Waldron, 1999; Wayne, Kacmar & Ferris, 1995), or again showing leadership skills, while infusing feelings of gratitude and respect. It might be easy for each one of us to think about other forms of manipulation of emotion, which are definitely more negative, and relate to the use of veiled threats to create fear and anxiety; or jokes and snide comments to create embarrassment to a team member. For example, Goffman (1952) considers embarrassment

a relational weapon, to put overachieving individuals in their place or create a clique of sorts among a specific type of employees.

So we should now be confident in saying that there is such a thing as social emotion in the workplace, which is the result of constant complex situations where several emotions arise from individuals, allegiances are formed and balance is sought after in order to maintain positive, or at least neutral work relationships within the group.

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APPENDIX

Note 1: Emotion in the workplace is an important perspective to use in order to better understand management and leadership practices. There are several readings available to deepen your understanding of such topic, some of which are suggested below.

- Boudens, C. J., & Sandelands, L. E. (1999). The narrative psychology at work. *Working paper*, University of Michigan (Fall).
- See also Sandelands, L. E. (1988). The concept of work feeling. *Journal for the Theory of Social Behavior*, 18 (4), 437-57.

Note 2: See the following studies:

- Argyris, C. (1957). *Personality in Organization*. New York, NY: Harper & Brothers.
- Maslow, A. H. (1954). *Motivation and Personality*. New York, NY: Harper & Brothers.
- Terkel, S. (1972). *Working*. New York, NY: The New Press.

Note 3: The topic was widely discussed in the past. For good examples of the theoretical approach used, see:

- Terkel, S. (1972). *Working*. New York, NY: The New Press.
- Garson, B. (1975). *All the Livelong Day: The Meaning and Demeaning of Routine Work*. Garden City, NY: Doubleday.
- Hamper, B. (1986). *Rivethead: Tales from the Assembly Line.* New York, NY: Warner Brooks.

Note 4: See:

- Luthans, F. (1988). Successful vs Effective Real Managers. *Academy of Management Executive*, 2, no. 2, 127-32.
- Hopkins, M. M., O'Neil, D. A., & Stoller, J. K. (2015). Distinguishes Competencies of Effective Physician Leaders. *Journal of Management Development*, 34, no. 5, 566-84.

Note 5: Caughron, J. J., Mumford, M. D., & Fleishman, E. A. (2012). The Fleishman Job Analysis Survey: Development, Validation, and Applications.

In M. A. Wilson, W. Bennett Jr., S. G. Gibbons, and G. M. Alliger (Eds.), *The Handbook of Work Analysis: Methods, Systems, Applications and Science of Work Measurement in Organizations.* New York, NY: Routledge/Taylor & Francis Group.
See also Converse, P. D., Oswald, F. L., Gillespie, M. A., Field, K. A., & Bizot, E. B. (2004). Matching Individuals to Occupations Using Abilities and the O*Net: Issues and an Application in Career Guidance. *Personnel Psychology,* 57, no. 2, 451-87.
Note 6: The topic is vastly discussed in academia. Interesting readings can be the followings: Msetfi, R. M., Kornbrot, D. E., Matute, H., & Murphy, R. A. (2015). The Relationship between Mood State and Perceived Control in Contingency Learning: Effects of Individualist and Collectivist Values. *Frontiers in Psychology,* 6, no. 1430, 1-18; and Pfundmair, M., Graupmann, V., Frey, D., & Aydin, N. (2015). The Different Behavioral Intentions of Collectivists and Individualists in Response to Social Exclusion. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin,* 41, no. 3, 363-78.
Note 7: Among other readings, it might be worth it to look at Guenter, H., Van Emmerick, I. J. H., & Schreurs, B. (2014). The Negative Effects of Delays in Information Exchange: Looking at Workplace Relationships from an Affective Events Perspective, *Human resource Management Review,* 24, no. 4, 283-98; and Matta, F. K., Erol-Korkmaz, H. T., Johnson, R. E., & Bicacsiz, P. (2014). Significant Work Events and Counterproductive Work Behavior: The Role of Fairness, Emotions, and Emotion Regulation. *Journal of Organizational Behavior,* 35, no. 7, 920-44.
Note 8: A selection of interesting readings is the followings.

- Weber, L. (2015). To Get a Job, New Hires Are Put to the Test. *The Wall Street Journal*, April 15, 2015, A1, A10.
- Weber, L., & Dwoskin, E. (2014). As Personality Tests Multiply, Employers Are Split. *The Wall Street Journal*, September 30, A1, A10.
- Belkin, D. (2015). Colleges Put the Emphasis on Personality. *The Wall Street Journal*, January 9, A3.
- van der Zee, K. I., Zaal, J. N., & Piekstra, J. (2013). Validation of the Multicultural Personality Questionnaire in the Context of Personnel Selection. *European Journal of Personality,* 17, no. S1, S77-S100.

Note 9: You can try out the Big Personality Test at https://www.outofservice.com/bigfive/.

In relation to additional readings, you could look at:

- Fleeson, W., & Gallagher, P. (2009). The Implications of Big Five Standing for the Distribution of Trait Manifestation in Behavior: Fifteen Experience-Sampling Studies and a Meta-Analysis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 97, no. 6, 1097-1114.
- Judge, T. A., Simon, L. S., Hurst, C., & Kelley, K. (2014). What I have Experienced Yesterday Is Who I Am Today: Relationship of Work Motivations and Behaviors to Within-Individual Variation in the Five-Factor Model of Personality. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 99, no. 2, 199-221.

Note 10: Among others, you can have a look at Robert, C., & Cheung, Y. H. (2010). An Examination of the Relationship between Consciousness and Group Performance on a Creative Task, *Journal of Research in Personality,* 44, no. 2, 222-31; and Batey, M., Chamorro-Premuzic, T., & Furnham, A. (2010). Individual Differences in Ideational Behavior. Can the Big Five and Psychometric Intelligence Predict Creativity Scores?. *Creativity Research Journal,* 22, no. 1, 90-97.
Note 11: Several interesting readings are listed below.

- Dik, B. J., Strife, S. R., & Hansen, J.-I.-C. (2010). The Flip Side of Hollande Type Congruence: Incongruence and Job Satisfaction. *Career Development Quarterly,* 58, no. 4, 352-58.
- Rezaei, A., Qorbanpoor, A., Gatab, T. A., & Rezaei, A. (2011). Comparative Research for Personality Types of Guilan University Physical Exercise and Counseling Students Based on Holland Theory. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences,* 30, 2032-36.
- Ohler, D. L., & Levinson, E. M. (2012). Using Holland's Theory in Employment Counseling: Focus on Service Occupations. *Journal of Employment Counseling,* 49, no. 4, 148-59.

Note 12: For more information, have a look at the Hofstede Centre, http://www.geert-hofstede.com.

Chapter 3
Some Hot Topics in Personnel Management and Emotions

ABSTRACT

Building upon the findings from the previous chapters, the authors introduce the hot topic of perception, and the theories and models that researchers have proposed to somehow rationalise the decision-making process. In particular, they observe how individuals perceive specific situations and what factors influence such perception. This chapter is useful to reflect on past experiences, and the way you think of the people you come across in your life or within the organisation you work for. In this perspective, the authors show that perception can be manipulated through motivation techniques, using, for example, Maslow's theory of needs or Latham's SMART goals approach.

INTRODUCTION

In the previous Chapters, we had the chance to discuss emotion in general terms, and we have somehow highlighted that every emotion contains a unique value judgement that support the emotion itself. This statement is a powerful one, especially considering that it also implies individuals having decisional power about whether or not letting the emotion express itself in a particular action, or not expressing at all (Lazarus & Lazarus, 1994).

While thinking about emotion at work in this and the next Chapters, we are going to discuss how our perception of events can influence our emotions and moods, which in turn influence job satisfaction and performance (Fisher,

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2002; Weiss & Beal, 2005; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). In particular, we will look at theories and practices underpinning emotion management in organisations, such as the Affective Events Theory (also known as AET) which supports our previous statement about individuals' capability, through their own personalities, to choose how to respond to a specific work event that has triggered positive or negative emotions.

PERCEPTION AND INDIVIDUAL DECISION MAKING

While looking at Personnel Management as a general discipline, several topics come to mind, depending on the perspective we are looking at. For example, in relation to appraisal and reward management, we should take into account the organisational environment as a means to try and understand an employee's behaviour. Within such parameters, it might seem superfluous to point out that people behave according to their perception of reality, rather than reality itself. This happens because of some factors, such as the perceiver (i.e., their personality traits, or past experiences), the target and the context. Here then, perception can be defined as a process through which we give meaning to the environment, following organisation and interpretation of sensory impressions.

Within this realm, we need to take into account all the facets related to perceiving things, which also consist in the so called non-verbal behaviour, that researchers Paul Ekman and Wallace Friesen (1969) put into five categories. According to them, we will need, first of all, to recognise emblems, here identifiable as non-verbal gestures that translate directly into words. As an example, illustrators are non-verbal gestures which accompany speech to make it visual or more felt, like when we use our hands during a speech to convey more meaning. Other non-verbal behaviours can be used to coordinate conversation, in the form of head nods for example. These differ profoundly from the so called self-adaptors, which are ways to cope and release negative energy, such as biting your lips, or touching your hair. When we have finally been able to separate similar previous behaviours, we are left with pure displays of emotion, which can be seen as signals in the voice, face, body and touch to convey a specific emotion.

Some famous television series such as "Lie to Me" or "Bull", are built upon the idea that facial expressions of emotion are easily readable, when spotted. Because such expressions of emotion tend to last for just a few seconds (see Bachorowski & Owren, 2001) and cannot be faked or suppressed deliberately

(Dimberg, Thunberg & Grunedal, 2002), Darwin himself firmly believed in the universality of such facial expressions. Even if this is true, and modern researchers do not agree on that, what is really important to consider here is the response other people have towards an expression of emotion. In fact, it has been demonstrated that within 500 milliseconds, people tend to mimic their behaviour in a way that implies emotional expressions coordinate social interactions, providing information on the actual feelings and how they relate to the environment (see Ekman, 1993; Keltner and Kring, 1998). Moreover, they also enhance desired social behaviour, if we think for example of a teacher who cuddles and praises a pupil for a specific behaviour, thus increasing the chances of such behaviour in the future.

Looking at different theories behind the concept of perception, one of the most interesting you can encounter is the so called Attribution Theory. Fairly enough, according to the Attribution Theory, we judge people differently according to the meaning we attribute to a behaviour (note 1). Let's think for a moment of someone we know, who behaved in a way we were trying to figure out. The first thing we usually do is to try to determine whether the individual's behaviour was internal or external, which means the situation forced them to behave like that (or in other words, it was caused). Seems easy enough, right? However, in order to distinguish between internal and external caused behaviour, we need to consider three factors. To do this, we must look at the distinctiveness of the individual's behaviour. In other words, we should consider whether or not the individual generally reacts in similar ways in different situations. Thus, we ask ourselves things like "Is it the behaviour unusual or not for them?" The second factor to take into account is the degree of consensus, which happens when other people behave in the same way in the same situation. Lastly, we should look at the consistency in the individual's actions.

Although the above mentioned factors seem rational and comprehensive, researchers have pointed out that there is a fundamental attribution error in the attribution theory, because we tend to underestimate the influence of external factors when we make a judgement, while at the same time we overestimate the influence of internal factors (Moran, Jolly & Mitchell, 2014; Stadler, 2009). If we think for example how employees react in case of someone critiquing their work, we have a good idea of what the so called self-serving bias is, which implies that individuals tend to attribute their own success to internal factors, such as their capabilities, and blame failures on externalities (Goerke, Moller, Schulz-Hardt, Napiersky & Frey, 2004; Hepper, Gramzow & Sedikides, 2010).

Furthermore, we may deduce that there might be some shortcuts in judging others and making predictions. Among these, we can think of selective perception, according to which we judge on the base of limited observation of the context, which in turn is selected according to our interests, background, experience and attitudes. Again, we might be victims of the so called halo effect. This happens when we assume about an individual on the basis of only one known characteristic (note 2). Or thanks to the contrast effect, we might judge someone according to the people we have recently came in contact with. Think for example of your own personal experience. If you recently came in contact with great people, you might be more inclined in judging new acquaintances positively. Then again, if you met only arrogant people from a specific department in the organisation you work for, and you are about to meet another colleagues of theirs, you might think you will again meet another arrogant person. Similarly, we are inclined to apply some sort of stereotyping, which happens when we judge an individual on the basis of the group they belong to, such as for example, the perception against black murders or white academia (among others, Eberhardt, Davies, Purdic-Vaughns & Johnson, 2006; Rosette, Leonardelli & Phillips, 2008).

It is important to highlight that while we use perception, we always make a decision, in such a sense we select a choice among two or more alternatives. Decision making occurs as reaction to a problem, through our interpretation and evaluation of information. In organisational behaviour studies, we have different types of decision making. There are be several, and we will briefly introduce them here.

The first possibility is the so called rational decision making. This model has been designed to help individuals to become rational decision makers, which make consistent and value-maximising choices in specific contexts (Curseu & Schruijer, 2012). Assuming that the individual has complete information, they identify all relevant options in unbiased ways and select the best option according to utility (March, 2009), the model follows a 6 steps process, which is: 1. define the problem; 2. identify the decision criteria; 3. allocate weight to the criteria; 4. develop the alternatives; 5. evaluate the alternatives; 6. select the best one. Even though this model seems rather rational, it is more realistic that people make choices according to the rule of the acceptable or reasonable solution.

Then again, we might choose the bounded rationality model, which states that, because it is impossible to know and understand everything, individuals seek solutions that are satisfactory and sufficient (Haley & Chou, 2014; Kanheman, 2003; Zhang, Hsee & Xiao, 2006). Finally, we might opt for

intuitive decisions, when we use our experience to make an unconscious choice (Kruglansky & Gigerenzer, 2011).

We have now briefly explored that we perceive, and hence we make a decision through our perception. Seems easy enough, no? Well, it might not be as easy and straightforward as we made it sound.

In decision making, we have common biases and errors, such as being overconfident of our abilities and those of others (Ludwig & Nafziger, 2011). This is also known as the overconfidence bias, which is common especially in people with weak intellectual abilities (Larrick, Burson, & Soll, 2007). Or we might tend to fixate on the initial information and we overlook successive ones, in what we usually know as anchoring bias (among others, we can refer to Simmons, LeBoeuf & Nelson, 2010). Another situation we might come across is when we tend to seek out information that confirms our past choices, and avoid those which contradict them. Such confirmation bias (Frost, Casey, Griffin, Raymundo, Farrell & Carrigan, 2015) is very popular and applies not only to behaviours, also to our beliefs. According to the availability bias, we tend to base our judgement on information that is already available, to be added to what happened with similar information in our past experiences. Linked to it, the "escalation of commitment" bias makes it so that we also tend to stick with our initial decision even when it is clearly wrong. Or we might tend to believe we can predict the outcome of random events, also known as randomness error, which can be caused also by superstitions (Hahn & Warren, 2009). One of the most common situations is linked to our risk aversion, to which we generally tend to prefer things that are certain/sure over risky ones. This, for example, applies to managers who don't want to lose their positions or valued staff (Maner, Gailliot, Butz & Peruche, 2007). Finally, thanks to the hindsight bias (Guilbault, Bryant, Brockway & Posavac, 2004), individuals tend to believe that, after a negative outcome, we could of and should of have been able to predict it.

The worst - or best - part of it is that, not only we incur in so many biases and errors, we also lie to ourselves and especially others because it is difficult for them to detect we are lying. Research shows that only 47% of the time individuals were able to detect a lie (Gongola, Scurich & Quas, 2017), which leaves us with a high probability of not judging properly a situation. Now you might appreciate even more how difficult it is to predict decision making.

Another interesting perspective on this topic relates to the level of communication in the workplace. While considering communication as both the transfer and the understanding of meaning between individuals, we can use it to manage employee behaviours, give feedback, share with peers their

emotional and social needs, as well as persuading and facilitating decision making. Communicating among employees can be facilitated within the organisation through formal channels, where information flows downward, laterally or upward from different levels; or informal ones, which are independently created by employees and chosen by association (Barnlund, 2008; Byron, 2008; Tenhiaelae & Salvador, 2014). In this sense, people communicate with each others orally, whenever they need to get a quick feedback or exchange; verbally, for example by email, post-its, and similar, and nonverbally, with everything we say while delivering a verbal message. Think for example about the body language we use, or the intonation in our voice, or again the facial expressions we show (Giri, 2009; Goman, 2013). In each of these interactions, there are several potential bias related to what we discussed earlier on. People can lie, or misrepresent information, or be in an emotional state that can affect the way they interpret what has been said to them. Again, as we saw for decision making, we might be in a situation where there is too much information to process, or the receivers of the communication apply a selective perception in relation to their needs, experience, background, current situation, or any other personal characteristic such as cultural differences and language spoken. Lastly, individuals can be affected by communication apprehension, which consists of feeling tense and anxious while communicating (Blume, Baldwin & Ryan, 2013; She, Brinthaupt & McCree, 2015; Whiters & Vernon, 2006). This happens to an estimated 5 to 20 percent of the population, so it is pretty common to find people around you who can be incapacitated in such way.

Now we should have a better understanding of the factors that influence the process of decision making, and how these can affect the organisation in a profound way.

Concepts and Theories Behind Motivation

It seems that fear remains a significant source of motivation - fear of failure, fear of getting fired, of missing a deadline, or losing face. Are these not all powerful emotions that ties people to their regular jobs? (Dunkin, 2003).

We have seen that we use perception as a way to look at things and decide our own behaviours. However, perception can be manipulated, and converted through what we call motivation - whether it is our own motivation, that of others we care about, a societal one, or one belonging to the organisation.

Motivation can be defined as the processes an individual goes through to achieve a goal or goals that are accounted for in terms of intensity, effort and persistence (Pinder, 2008).

When discussing motivation in the workplace, there are several theories that can be beneficial to organisations. One of these theories, also known as content theories of motivation, suggests that people have a sort of baggage of motives that await gratification, which also means that individuals will strive to do whatever they need to make such motives come true through a journey of self-actualisation. Thus, in 1954 Maslow presented a hierarchy of needs (Taormina & Gao, 2013), which consists of five layers - these being need for self-actualisation, need for esteem, need for affiliation, need for safety and need for survival. Even though this theory has not been validated by research (Mousavi & Dargahi, 2013), we will discuss it in greater details in Chapter 7 in relation to organisational change.

Maslow's Theory of Needs has been revised during the years. For example, Alderfer (1972) proposed a hierarchical theory of needs based on three categories, these being existence - which corresponds to Maslow's physiological and safety needs; relatedness - which is concerned with Maslow's safety, social and esteem needs; and finally growth, which represents Maslow's esteem and self-actualisation needs.

Another interesting twist on Maslow's original hierarchy of needs has been proposed by McClelland (1961), which presents three compelling motivating factors. These are the so called need for Achievement (nAch), which constitutes the need to excel a certain set of standards; the need for Power (nPow), or in other words the need to make others behave in a way they wouldn't have done otherwise; and finally, the need for Affiliation (nAff), which considers the individual's need for friendship and close interpersonal relationships. According to recent research, effective leaders have high nPow and nAff (Steinmann, Doerr, Schultheiss & Maier, 2015).

In a different perspective, Cassidy and Lynn (1989) focused on achievement as the key force behind motivation, In particular, individuals with a motive to achieve a determined goal, will tend to behave according to their own standards, which answer to six constructs: work ethic, which implies that performance is good in itself; the pursuit of excellence to the individual's ability; the aspirations to progress in the status hierarchy; the desire to master their own standards; competitiveness towards others, and finally the so called acquisitiveness, of wealth and money.

In a similar perspective, the Two-Factor Theory, proposed by Frederick Herzberg (2003), is based on what seems a very basic concept. Individuals

tend to do what they make them feel good, and at the same time they try to avoid what makes them feel bad. In this sense, Herzberg affirms that in order to motivate people we need to emphasise goals and factors directly connected with the work itself. This might be achieved, for example, through a promotion or financial incentives (as also confirmed later on by Konrad and Mangel, 2000). Thus, Herzberg believes that the individual's attitude towards work can determine success or failure, even though his statements have not been received well by researchers.

While thinking about well received theories, we can introduce the Self-Determination Theory, where motivation is linked to the way we feel about our job environment and tasks. Thus, if a task becomes to be felt as an imposition, a duty rather than something we enjoy, our motivation drops (Gagné & Deci, 2005; Kong & Ho, 2016). From this perspective, the cognitive evaluation theory suggests that when we introduce extrinsic rewards (for example, we might want to think about salaries), also intrinsic interest in a specific task diminishes, making it feel like something we have to do. Thus, it is important to consider that the more our work goals are aligned with intrinsic reasons, the more we are satisfied with our job (Bono & Judge, 2003).

Another set of interesting theories of motivation are the so called cognitive theories, which focus on the importance of individuals been aware of their own motives, actions and related risks, in order to be able to plan accordingly. Furthermore, Mitchell and Daniels (2003) affirm the importance of the goal-setting theory, among the cognitive theories, to better understand motivation at work. According to Locke (Locke & Latham, 2006), work motivation is boosted by the individual's intentions to achieve setting goals (or goal commitment), through specific goals, difficult ones (when accepted) and feedback (Gabelica, Van de Bossche, Segers & Gijselaers, 2012; Locke & Latham, 2006), especially self-generated feedback. Because goals in the workplace can be used either as motivational or control devices, we could use management by objectives techniques to implement a goal setting process in the workplace, using tangible, verifiable and measurable goals. Then again, according to Latham (2003), we should remember that organisational goals must be SMART (specific, measurable, attainable, relevant, and with a timeframe).

An interesting development of cognitive theories can be seen in the so called expectancy theory, which is based on the individual's ability to choose among alternatives. As stated in such theories, we behave accordingly to how or what we think we will get from such behaviour. This happens in

three different relationships: effect-performance; performance-reward; and rewards-personal goals. In particular, two expectancy models are worth mentioning here. The first one has been proposed by Vroom, according to whom it is possible to qualify the strength of motivation behind a specific action, multiplying each first-level outcomes (what individuals assess first) by the expectancy - or probability - that a specific outcome will follow such action. With specific regard to the organisational context, Porter and Lawler (1968) affirm that strength of motivation is proportionally linked to the individual's perceived probability that the behaviour behind their motivation will lead to the desired outcome. In their model, Porter and Lawler consider individual's effort, as well as their abilities, traits, and their perception of the organisational role they occupy. Furthermore, they suggest organisations should consider to enrich job posts frequently, so employees - who have already been considered a good organisational match, considering their own personality traits and abilities and the offered job - have enough challenges, variety and autonomy in what they do; as well as consider to add extrinsic rewards, such as a good pay.

In opposition to the expectancy theories, reinforcement theories are based on the circumstance that behaviour is environmentally caused (see, for example, Vecchio, 2003). In particular, while ignoring feelings, attitudes and generally speaking other cognitive variables that affect behaviour, it concentrates on what initiates individual's behaviour. We can say that individuals learn how to behave either because they want to achieve something or they want to avoid something.

According to the Equity Theory, individuals are motivated to gain what they perceive to be fair as return of their efforts (see, among others, Griffeth, Vecchio & Logan, 1989; Lord & Hohenfeld, 1979). This perception can be conscious or unconscious, and can cause a great discomfort. In the workplace, for example, Taris, Kalimo and Schaufeli (2002) demonstrate that the greater this sense of inequity, the more likely individuals report to be emotionally stressed and exhausted. In such perspective, individuals compare what they receive from their work and what they put into it, and if they find inequity between these things, they will behave accordingly (i.e., put less effort, search a different job - see, for example, Cappelen, Eichele, Hugdahl, Specht & Tungodden, 2014). Adams (1965) proposed six methods people can use to reduce such inequity. Among these, we can think of the modern tendency of modifying the perception of self, in a sort of reflective mindfulness exercise, or of others that we used as comparison. Thus, we can link this

theory with the social identity perspective, according to which individuals can see themselves through the lenses of the group they feel they belong to, and apply to themselves the same characteristics that are part of the group, rather than of the self (see Smith & Henry, 1996; Haslam, Powell & Turner, 2000; Van Knippenberg, 2000).

Lastly, it might beneficial to introduce the Self-Efficacy Theory, according to which the individual is required to believe they would be able to perform a task (Themanson & Rosen, 2015), and if not, they will improve themselves in order to conquer such challenge (Bandura, 2004). Bandura (2004) lists four steps in such process (see also Ben-Ami, Hornik, Eden & Kaplan, 2014; Hendricks, 2014) to increase self-efficacy, which can be briefly described here as gaining experience on the task we want to master; which then permits to enhance our confidence when we realise someone else could do the same task, a reasoning that happens in a sort of vicarious modelling. At this point, when someone tells us we have the right skills to do a specific task, this inevitably enhances our confidence once more; and lastly, we start believing we have all that is needed to do it. In some way, this is linked to the so called Pygmalion effect, that happens when we enhance our motivation thinking that we can do it.

CONCLUSION

We perceive the world in different ways, because we are different from each other. It may seem a simplified way to look at what we have discussed in this Chapter, however it is a good way to look at the situation as a whole. Furthermore, not only is it linked to the individual, perception is also influenced by environmental factors, as well as past experiences and behaviours. Why is perception so important then? Because through it, we can build on and feed our motivations to do a specific job, or have a certain behaviour. Motivation is what keeps us engaged, proactive, or on the opposite end, apathetic, stressed, consumed, whether at the workplace or in our life in general.

Although we have seen several theories of motivation, we cannot say we have fully understood the complex factors behind motivation and human behaviour. Whether we think or believe is behind our or someone else's decisions, we still have to get an educated guess to navigate the individual and social implications of motivation. In this perspective, we have looked at several interesting theories that try to support, encourage and measure the

level of motivation and commitment of individuals, which should be useful to managers in motivating their employees to a more profound level, so to retain talent and increase productivity. In the next Chapter, we will discuss some important consequences of motivation in the workplace, such as job satisfaction and performance.

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APPENDIX

Note 1: Among others, you should refer to:

- Harvey, P., Madison, K., Martinko, M., Crook, T. R., & Crook, T. A. (2014). Attribution Theory in the Organizational Sciences: The Road Traveled and the Path Ahead. *Academy of Management Perspectives* 28, no. 2, 128-46.
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Note 2: Literature on the subject is vast. Among others, you could refer to:

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Chapter 4
Performance Management:
An Emotion-Based Approach

ABSTRACT

In this chapter, the authors focus on the importance of emotion management within the organisation. While they have previously discussed some general issues related to emotion and emotional behaviour in the workplace, it is now time to reflect on how such topics should converge in performance management techniques. Leaders, and managers in general, are required to nurture the people that are part of the organisation, thus somehow recognising the outcomes, results, and accomplishments achieved by an individual, group or organisation. Favouring an organisational culture that takes into account performance as a way to enhance people's efficiency through feedback and training opportunities, managers can improve job satisfaction and limit employees' turnaround, which in turn create a positive workplace for emotion management.

INTRODUCTION

Emotion in the workplace tends to congregate several different aspects and perspectives. While we have discussed the most basic ones in the previous Chapters, it is now time to better understand some practical implications of emotion management, and the reasons why it is crucial to implement it within the organisation.

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We can safely assume that psychologists seemed to have almost ignored the emotional dimension for a very long time (for an historical perspective see Briner, 1999a, 1999b; interesting thoughts are also presented in Brief, 2001, and Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Contrary to this attitude, Locke (1976) offered an interesting and still actual definition of job satisfaction, which is "a pleasurable positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences". The concept of job satisfaction can be also generally linked to how individuals perform their jobs, and from a managerial point of you, how managers can strategically use emotion and reward management to increase employee engagement, loyalty and productivity. For example, Zimmerman (2008) points out that individuals high in negative affectivity, meaning those who generally feel and think negatively, might tend to bring such negative feelings (e.g., stress, general dissatisfaction) in the workplace no matter what the management has planned to avoid such situations. Even though most of the research in psychology is related to negative mood, in recent years a few studies are focusing on the consequences of happiness (see, for example, Martin, 2002). We will discuss this new field of study in Chapter 7, while introducing the Hygge movement and its philosophy for living.

However we want to look at it, emotion is a crucial aspect of life in the workplace, and the result of what individuals do at work (Briner, 1999). So we will look at performance management techniques and practices, as a way to enhance and appreciate emotion as part of the organisational culture and life.

PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT

Performance is a term that deals with the outcomes, results and accomplishments achieved by an individual, group or organisation. We tend to confuse such term with behaviour, while human performance improvement (HPI) focuses on performance, results, outcomes, results and accomplishment, with a secondary emphasis on behaviours, efforts and activities. In particular, we can say that "performance is a multidimensional construct, the measurement of which varies depending on a variety of factors" (Bates & Holton, 1995). There is uncertainty over the definition of performance, where researchers tend to consider it as outcomes (Bernadin et al., 1995; Kane, 1996), as behaviour (Aguinis, 2005; Campbell, 1990; Campbell et al., 1993; Fletcher, 2001), or both as outcomes and behaviour (Armstrong & Baron, 2004; Brumbach, 1988).

Performance is influenced by several factors, and these are summed up by different authors who tried to come up with appropriate models. In general

terms, Harrison (1997) summarises major influences on overall performance as the learner, the learner's work group, the learner's manager and finally, the organisation itself. In this perspective, individual performance is equally important, and has been identified through several functions. According to Vroom (1964), performance is the result of the function f(Ability x Motivation); while Blumberg and Pringle (1982) affirm that performance is given by a multiplication of factors (Individual Attributes x Work Effort x Organisational Support). However we want to look at it, we should consider that we can measure performance only taking simultaneously into account personal and systems factors, which are internal to the organisation (think, for example, about organisational culture, the employee relations climate or the size of the company). This is to emphasise the circumstance that performance "is an exercise in observation and judgement, it is a feedback process, it is an organisational intervention. It is a measurement process as well as an intensely emotional process. Above all, it is an inexact, human process" (Cascio, 2010).

Looking more in depth which variables might affect performance, we can consider first the work of Rummler and Brache (1990), who highlighted six variables capable of affecting job performance. These can be listed as performance specifications, task interference, consequences, feedback, knowledge/skill, and individual capacity. In a similar approach, we can also mention the Behavior Engineering model (BEM), based on six factors affecting performance, as theorised by Thomas Gilbert. These variables can be briefly summarise as follows: data and information; resources, tools, and environmental supports; consequences, incentives, and rewards; skills and knowledge; individual capacity; and finally, motives. In the BE model particularly, the first three variables are so called environmental variables, which are external to the individual performer; while the last three variables are internal to the person.

Furthermore, it is easy to agree that several models have been implemented during the last decades, with no real data showing which ones are the most effective and efficient. In particular, we can mention human performance improvement, which is a field of practice that has produced many models, such as the ASTD Models for Human Performance Improvement which includes a six-step HPI process model, including "performance analysis, cause analysis, intervention, implementation, change management, and evaluation" (Rothwell, 2000 - see note 1). Thus, in this model there are four roles - analyst, intervention specialist, change manager, and evaluator - which are linked to six role competencies.

Linked to the concept of performance, we can introduce the collateral need for job enrichment, as proposed by Herzberg (1968, 1974). In particular, as anticipated in the previous Chapter in relation to the dual-factor theory of motivation, a positive job experience can be promoted through different ways, such as accountability for their performance; a sense of achievement should be encouraged as well - think for example at weekly meetings with your team, department or the overall organisation, where the best employees applauded for good work. The same applies to constructive and timely feedback, in that it is a crucial aspect of present and future performance. Lastly, employees should have a say on pace needed for the job and control, when possible, the resources used to perform their job.

In the same perspective, Hackman and Oldham (1975) proposed the Job Characteristics Model - also known as JCM - which combines five job characteristics, each receiving a numerical value, to be then combined in a single index known as the motivating potential score (MPS). The five core job characteristics are skill variety; task identity; task significance; autonomy, and feedback. They have a different value to find the MP score, which in the JC model is calculated as follows:

$$MPS = \frac{\left[Skill\ variety \times Task\ identity \times Task\ significance\right]}{3} \times Autonomy \times Feedback$$

In the above equation, the levels of autonomy and feedback have a greater impact, and in a sense, they might appear easier to improve to get a higher motivating potential score of a specific job. Organisations can also use other implementations, such as combination of tasks to enhance the variety of skills used in the job; offering more supervising tasks, or encouraging more relationships between employees and customers, for which they are responsible.

Performance is also linked to the creative and talent culture you find in an organisation. Growing talent is as important as retaining it. In 2014, McKinsey estimated that US companies spend roughly $14 billion each year on leadership development, while only 7% of senior managers in the UK seem to believe their organisations develop global leaders effectively. Using, for example, the 70:20:10 model, an organisation should seek to develop its staff through a 70% of experience, a 20% of coaching, feedback or social interaction, and finally a 10% of formal training. Although no evidence has been found on the value of these proportions (Jefferson & Pollock, 2014), the

model is still a good exercise for organisations that want to grow their talent. In this perspective, organisations should be prepared not to lose their talent as well. Employees can leave - whether physically, mentally or emotionally, or they might start not performing so well for whatever reason. According to Pfau (2016), the modern generations seem to be interested in making an impact on the organisation they work for, while helping "solve social and/ or environmental challenges" and work with a diverse group of people. Apparently, being able to work for an organisation that is the best in a specific industry and the ability to learn in a context they are passionate about, come in the middle of the list of priorities, with curiously being financially secure or becoming a senior leader at the bottom of the list.

Job Satisfaction and Its Relation to Job Attitudes

The concept of job satisfaction is a very interesting one, and everyone has tried to find the perfect formula for satisfaction at work, at least once in their life. Whether you talk with an employee, a manager, or even an academic, they will all have a clear opinion about what job satisfaction means and how it should be increased and retained. However, the major problem that we encounter is to move past the individual responses to such question, in an attempt to give a more general answer. In order to do that, we will start looking at the role of attitudes in the workplace.

Attitudes can be defined as evaluative statements about people, objects or events. Such statements can be either positive or negative, and to put it simply, should reflect our feelings towards something. Attitudes are rather complex, and show three components (note 2). The first one is the so called cognitive component, which is a description of or belief in the way things are. A good example here can be that of an employee thinking: "My working hours are too long". Easy to imagine, is it not? The second one is the affective component, which can be defined as the emotional aspect of an attitude. Using the previous example, you can imagine again the same employee - or yourself - thinking something on the lines of "I am stressed and exhausted about how many hours I am required to work". The third and final component is the behavioural one, which describes the intention to behave in a certain way. Thus, "because I work too many hours and in response to that I am stressed and exhausted, I will look for another job".

According to Leon Festinger (1957, 1959, 1964; see also Festinger & Carlsmith, 1959; Glasman & Albarracin, 2006), attitudes follow behaviour,

while other researchers suggest that attitudes predict future behaviours. If we agree with Festinger, we can say that we may incur in a cognitive dissonance, when there is a mismatch between what people perceive as attitudes and behaviour (Liu & Keng, 2014). A cognitive dissonance is painful and uncomfortable for people, because individuals tend to seek consistency in their attitudes and between an attitude and the following behaviour (Fabrigar, Petty, Smith & Crites, 2006; Schleicher, Watt & Greguras, 2004). Such desire to reduce or to eliminate dissonance, depends on three different factors. First of all, the general importance of the elements that create such dissonance; secondly, we are forced to look at how much influence we think we have over such elements; and finally, we need to consider the rewards brought by the dissonance itself.

Whichever approach we are more inclined to use, nowadays attitudes are considered an important part of who we are as individuals, and as a consequence, as an employee. Thus, researchers have tried to somehow list and measure individual's attitudes in several contexts through testing. While lots of attitudes exist, in Organisational Behaviour and Personnel Management we can count at least five fundamental ones (see Moynihan & Pandey, 2007), which we will briefly describe here.

The first test that we feel is important to mention, relates to job satisfaction, in other words we should reflect on the possibility that, once evaluated the job's characteristics, we feel positively about it. Job satisfaction, as we will see later on in this Chapter, is caused by several factors, such as general job conditions (Humphrey, Nahrgang & Morgeson, 2007; Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008), personality, pay, attachment to corporate social responsibility behaviours, and of course economic and life conditions. What happens if we are not satisfied? Job dissatisfaction creates several possible responses, which are not only negative, such as for example an exit response. This is of course the easiest one to understand, considering that the general attitude when we are not happy about a job, is that we tend to 'exit' and look for another job. Another possible situation that may arise from dissatisfaction, relates to employee's voice. In the last few decades, we have been exposed to campaigns such as "Listen to the student voice", and similar. What is this voice entitled to? Well, individuals that are not satisfied might become active to try and force better the work conditions, create union groups, plan syndicalist activities and similar. A very negative consequence of job dissatisfaction is the so called neglect effect, which happens when employees start neglecting their job, without leaving it. Think for example at cases of absenteeism, lateness, or gross errors, that cause the organisation a great

deal of trouble. On the other hand, a dissatisfied employee could take a more passive approach, based on trust. How does this work? The individual will tend to passively trust the organisation to solve problems and criticisms by itself, without offering solutions, or support of any sort.

Another test that is fundamental when it comes to personnel management, and in general managing people within an organisation, relates to job involvement, which considers the psychological level of involvement of the individual in the job (Zhang, 2014). This type of involvement creates in turn a psychological empowerment or the belief the individual influences the workplace with their competencies and so on (note 3).

Then again, we might be interested in better understanding organisational commitment, using several measurements to see if employees can identify themselves with the organisational culture, believes and goals and wishes to remain a part of it.

Furthermore, in relation to the previous tests, managers can also look at other two factors. The first one is the perceived organisational support (also known as POS), which can be described as the extent to which an employee believes the organisation values their contribution and cares for them (Rhoades, Eisenberger & Armeli, 2001). Lastly, they might look at employee engagement, or the degree of the employee's involvement, satisfaction and enthusiasm for their job. This is usually linked to having a good manager that makes it enjoyable to work for them, or feeling appreciated by their supervisor. However, data show that only between the 17 and 29% are highly engaged in their job.

An Approach to Appraisal, Emotion and Job Satisfaction

When you hear the expression "appraisal", your mind will probably think about one of those formal interviews you had to sit through, where your boss discussed your performance in relation to a specific period of time. However, in psychology the appraisal theory associates the act of assessing someone or something, to specific emotions. In particular, according to Lazarus (1991), emotions derive straight from our evaluation (or appraisal) of events that cause different reactions in people. We will have then a primary appraisal, which seems to be automatic, internal and unconscious in relation to whether the stimulus is good or bad (LeDoux, 1993; Mischel and Shoda, 1995; Zajonc, 1980), and a secondary appraisal, where emotions can be directed towards a specific object or person, and can be translated into words. To him, "This

approach to emotion contains two basic themes: First, emotion is a response to evaluative judgements or meaning; second, these judgements are about ongoing relationships with the environment, namely how one is doing in the agenda of living and whether the encounter of the environment is one of harm or benefit". In such perspective, Stein, Trabasso and Liwag first (1994), and Agnes Moors later (2007; 2009), link the appraisal process to how certain events relate to people's goals, or plans that origin from them and related beliefs.

As happens with emotional intelligence, appraisal knowledge can make a huge difference in the results of an appraisal. The more we have experienced in terms of emotions and other elements which are not necessarily related to them, the more accurate our emotional appraisal will be.

We have discussed in the sections above the concept of job satisfaction, which can be defined as the extent to which a person "is gratified or fulfilled by his or her work" (Moorhead & Griffin, 2010). While some research indicates that the individual's disposition towards work and generally life is created and sustained through genetic heritage (Arvey, McCall, Bouchard & Taubman, 1994), we can say genetics count only up to 30% in job satisfaction.

So what are the causes of job satisfaction? Organisations are required to look at several factors that influence job satisfaction. The first and most common factor relates to pay and relative benefits that come with the job. Whether this has to do with equitable rewards (Witt & Nye, 1992) or the strategic adoption of a skill-based or performance-based pay (see Riggio, 2009), managers should be aware that employees tend to look at their co-workers' position, and confront what they do for the organisation with what the organisation does for them.

Another interesting factor that is highly involved in job satisfaction, is the trust and confidence in the organisational structure and its system, which should favour promotion, either based on merit, seniority or a mix of the two (see Hodgetts, 1991). It might seem obvious for someone, however individuals also value the job itself as a factor of satisfaction. Have you ever had a job which you did not particularly enjoy, for which you needed to find the strength to wake up in the morning and dress yourself to go to work? If you can answer yes, then you already know how important it is to have a job that satisfies you. It might be about what you actually do and the challenges behind it (Katzell, Thompson & Guzzo, 1992); or the opportunity to use a variegated set of skills and abilities (also known as job enrichment, as pointed out by Glisson & Durick, 1988); or the flexible arrangements that you have in place that give you the chance to have a more balanced work-family life

(see Riggio, 2009). Whatever the case, it is a matter of remembering that organisations need to recruit a good match for them, and they also have to be flexible and innovative in what they offer to attract satisfied and engaged employees. Other factors that seem to favour job satisfaction are a strong leadership, focused on people, and participation (see Miller & Monge, 1986); safe and comfortable working conditions (see Hodgetts, 1991; Maslow, 1943); and finally, personality, because as we have highlighted, there needs to be congruence between the job individuals do and the personality they display (among others, see Feldman & Anrold, 1985).

Now that we better understand what creates and influences job satisfaction, we can say that it is fundamental to measure it, through employee feedback, using rating scales or interviews and reflections on critical incidents that caused dissatisfaction or, more hopefully, satisfaction. Managers can choose the technique they prefer for more accurate results, in relation to how much time employees can spend on feedback and what they want to achieve with it.

As highlighted in the Introduction section, it appears that there is a close link between job satisfaction and performance (see for example, Judge, Thoresen, Bono & Patton, 2001; and Riketta, 2008; opposition to this statement comes from example from Iaffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985), especially for groups of employees in a supervisory or managerial position, or generally in complex jobs. This link can be also expanded through the concepts of organisational commitment (also known as the strength of the individual's identification and involvement with the organisation, which influence among other things employee turnover and absenteeism, according to Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982) and organisational citizenship, which describes the positive impact of an individual in the organisation (see Riggio, 2009; among others, see also Ilies, Scott & Judge, 2006, and Bacharach & Jax, 2000).

CONCLUSION

It is a common view that organisations are required to do something to retain their employees, and nurture overall job satisfaction. You will hear several times in your life that it is an organisation's responsibility to create the right conditions to make employees happy. Hence, we started thinking in Reward Management terms, where we give all sorts of benefits to individuals (from old fashioned money, tokens to laundry services, flexible working, an innovative and collaborative work space, gym subscription and an e-reader) in an attempt to retain good people, or at least who we consider talents. Does

it work? The answer to that is still very unclear, and talent programmes pop up in every organisation to encourage the smartest employees to choose them. However, we have also realised that individuals have different opinions on what constitute priorities in defining their dream job.

In this Chapter, we have seen a glimpse of how, unfortunately, job satisfaction does not prevent certain nefarious consequences, such as employee turnover, absenteeism and a general low morale in the organisation (Hodgetts, 1991). So what is it that we can do about it? Keep trying to better ourselves, and be ready for the waves of disruptive changes organisations face nowadays.

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APPENDIX

Note 1: Rothwell wrote several interesting pieces. Among them, we can cite

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- Rothwell, W. J. (2013). *Performance Consulting: applying Performance Improvement in Human Resource Development.* San Francisco, CA: Pfeiffer.
- Rothwell, W. J. (2015). *Beyond Training and Development: Enhancing Human Performance through a Measurable Focus on Business Impact* (3rd ed.). Amherst, MA: HRD Press.

Note 2: A non exhaustive list of interesting readings on the topic is listed here: Barsky, A., Kaplan, S. A., & Beal, D. J. (2011). Just Feelings? The Role of Affect in the Formation of Organizational Fairness Judgements. *Journal of Management,* 37, no. 1, 248-79; Mikels, J. A., Maglio, S. J., Reed, A. E., & Kaplowitz, L. J. (2011). Should I Go with My Gut? Investigating the Benefits of Emotion-Focused Decision-Making. *Emotion,* 11, no. 4, 743-53; and Rojas Tejada, A. J., Lozano Rojas, O. M., Navas Luque, M., & Pérez Moreno, P. J. (2011). Prejudiced Attitude Measurement Using the Rasch Scale Model. *Psychological Reports,* 109, no. 2, 533-72.

Note 3: The concept that employees can empower the workplace with their competencies, for example, is very vast. It seems not difficult to understand that people have an effect on the place they work at, whether through their capabilities, knowledge or behaviours. Interesting readings on the topic are the followings.

- Chen, G., & Klimoski, R. J. (2003). The Impact of Expectations on Newcomer Performance in Teams as Mediated by Work Characteristics, Social Exchanges, and Empowerment. *Academy of Management Journal,* 46, no. 5, 591-607.
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Chapter 5
Of Leaders and Leadership Through Emotions

ABSTRACT

In this chapter, the authors explore leadership and its relation to emotion. While looking at who is a leader, they present the basics around the concept of emotional intelligence, and its huge impact in the last decades. Research findings will be presented to highlight fundamental characteristics of leaders, such as mindfulness, the ability to manage emotions of the self and the others, empathy, as well as social skills, intended as the ability to handle relationships, in group and social settings. Furthermore, they introduce the concept of emotional labour, which consists of a range of work-related emotions, and the four Cs theory that suggests we should appreciate emotions according to context, challenges, communication, and community. Lastly, the authors present models and processes to measure leadership traits, such as performing a social network analysis or a personality test.

INTRODUCTION

When discussing leadership on a wider scale, a lot of the same familiar names keep cropping up time and time again. Names like Steve Jobs, Nelson Mandela, Richard Branson and even Mark Zuckerberg (before the recent data scandals, that is), are some of the most typical examples of touted leaders in the modern day. So when researchers are trying to study the perfect formula that will win everyone the title of leader in their group or social environment, a great

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interest is sparked. This is exactly what happened when twenty or so years ago, the concept of Emotional Intelligence came out of nowhere, promising practitioners, theorists and academics alike to have found the perfect algorithm to all our leadership dreams (Petrides, Frederickson & Furnham, 2004). You might have already been exposed to an Emotional SWOT analysis, to be performed in relation to yourself or the work environment you live in and feel more empowered in your abilities to become a better leader or team member.

However, the verdict is still out on the perfect relationship between emotions and leadership. In this Chapter, we will discuss some popular theories and models, and try to better understand if there is at least some common ground on the qualities, abilities and in general terms, the attributes that a great leader should have (see note 1).

Emotional Intelligence and Other Perspectives

Eighty to ninety percent of [leadership] competencies are not cognitive. For any top executive…, there are never more than two competencies that come out in the cognitive areas as distinguishing outstanding performance. […] All the rest are what we call emotional intelligence. (Goleman, D., Boyatzis, R., & McKee, A., 2002).

Who is a leader? A leader should be someone able to influence a group of people towards achieving a predetermined vision or set of goals. Researchers have presented behavioural, contingency, traits and even more modern theories to predict who can be a leader. In particular, behavioural theories of leadership are based on the assumption that anyone can be trained to be a leader. According to such theories (see Judge, Piccolo & Ilies, 2004), leaders show two specific behaviours, also known as initiating structure - here defined as the way a leader defines and organises their role and those of employees to reach the goal - and consideration, which calculates the level of trust and regard for others' feelings.

On the other end, contingency theories of leadership take into account situational influences on leadership styles and effectiveness. For example, according to the Fiedler contingency model (see Altmaee, Tuerk & Toomet, 2013), a leader is effective if and when there is a proper match between the leader's style of leading other employees, and the actual control and influence the leader has in the specific situation. Other contingency theories focus

either on followers' readiness - where readiness stands for being able and willing to - perform a task requested by the leader (also known as situational leadership theory); the ability of leaders to assist, support and guide their followers in achieving their goals (also known as path-goal theory); or sharing the decision making process with their followers.

More modern theories of leadership tend to dig deeper on what make leaders leaders, and the way they emerge, influence and direct their employees and the organisation in general. One of the first new theories to emerge was the so called Leader-Member Exchange theory, which considers a leader building a personal relationship with a small group of close people within their followers, and the organisation then benefits from this special attention in terms of less employee turnover, higher performance rates and job satisfaction (see Chen, Lam & Zhong, 2007; Erdogan & Bauer, 2010; Uhl-Bien, 2003; Zhou & Schrisheim, 2010). Another interesting theory looks at charismatic leadership, where leaders - born with traits that make them charismatic - are seen by followers as individuals with extraordinary people, sometimes even heroic, and give such leaders power over them. Research indicates that this type of leadership is particularly powerful in times of crisis, when followers need to feel specific emotions (see Cohen, Solomon, Maxfield, Pyszczynski & Greenberg, 2004; Deinert, Homan, Boer, Voelpel & Gutermann, 2015; de Vries, 2012; Den Hartog, De Hoogh & Keegan, 2007; Galvin, Waldman & Balthazard, 2010; Griffith, Connelly, Thiel & Johnson, 2015; Pastor, Mayo & Shamir, 2007; Seyranian & Bligh, 2008; Xenikou, 2014).

Other interesting theories revolve around the effects leaders have on their followers, on a spectrum of leadership styles. According to the "Full range of leadership" model, leaders can display seven different leadership techniques, in relation to their behaviour, which can be either passive or active, effective or ineffective. Along this spectrum, a leader can be transactional, in the sense they guide or motivate people to reach a determined goal through the clarification of role and task requirements; or transformational, if their effect on followers is more profound (see Deichmann & Stam, 2015; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Wolfram & Gratton, 2014).

Finally, the latest literature highlights the importance of personal qualities, such as personality traits, to predict leadership effectiveness and emergence (see, for example, Ensari, Riggio, Christian & Carslaw, 2011). In Chapter 2, we have also discussed the Big Five personality traits test, which emphasises how conscientiousness, openness to experience, and in particular extraversion, constitute reliable predictive traits of leaders (see Do & Minbashian, 2014;

Colbert, Barrick & Bradley, 2014; Ng, And & Chan, 2008; Kaiser, LeBreton & Hogan, 2015).

In this context, emotional intelligence, and the leader's ability to be empathetic, are core traits. Emotional intelligence focuses on individuals' recognition of, and response to, emotion. In such perspective, it seems easy to understand why it holds such recognition and importance in leadership skills and performance management, in particular with middle and senior executives. With its appeal to the wider social pressures and potential use in managerial topics, it became somewhat attractive and gained popularity as a counterpart to "cognitive" intelligence, especially thanks to Goleman (1996, 1998; note 2) who took inspiration from the work of Gardner (1999a, 1999b) on multiple intelligence.

According to Goleman, to be emotionally intelligent, managers must know their emotions, be able to manage them, and this includes motivating themselves, as well as being capable of recognising emotions felt by others and, as a consequence, handle social relationships accordingly.

From this perspective, it can be said that emotional intelligence has been described in terms of a learned competence, or set of competencies. This point in particular, "the circumstance according to which it can be learned", has helped the theory to spread in the managerial world, with the promise to teach how to become a better leader, and as a direct consequence, to make organisations more profitable.

As pointed out in the previous paragraph, the majority of work regarding emotional intelligence can be found in the popular literature, largely spurred on by Goleman's (1996) book, *Emotional Intelligence*. Emotional intelligence is grounded in Thorndike's early 20th century concept of social intelligence (Thorndike & Stein, 1937). Salovey and Mayer (1990; see also Mayer & Salovey, 1993), the researchers that coined the term "emotional intelligence," began publishing in this area in the late 1980s. They define emotional intelligence as "a type of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use the information to guide one's thinking and actions" (Salovey & Mayer, 1993, p. 433).

When looking back at the origins of this approach, these can be traced back since the late '30s (note 3) and then again in 1958, when Wechsler defined intelligence as "the aggregate or global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally, and to deal effectively with his environment" (Wechsler, 1958, p. 7). It is just before the time of Goleman that Mayer and Salovey (1993, 1997; see also Salovey & Mayer, 1990, 1994;

note 4) advocate the importance of expressing emotions, and how being able to harnessing them could help individuals becoming better decision makers. Furthermore, Mayer and Salovey present an ability model which represents the four fundamental attributes of emotional intelligence, these being the ability to perceive emotion in others; to use emotion to inform the decision-making process, rather than be clouded by them; to understand emotion, and their relationship with others over the time; and finally, to be able to manage them, through the ability to generate new behavioural responses than what the individual would have usually have, because of the previous abilities.

Using as starting point Mayer and Salovey's ability model, Goleman presents a new one, where abilities, attributes and other proprieties of the individual are mixed. The described model takes then into account the so called self-awareness - or mindfulness, which is the ability of recognising what we are feeling at a given time; and as seen in Mayer and Salovey, the capability to manage emotions, which is also linked to the ability to use emotions to motivate oneself to reach a specific goal. Goleman proceeds mentioning the attribute also known as empathy, which allows us to read the changes in what others feel; and finally, the ability to handle relationships, in group and social settings.

While other perspectives on emotional intelligence are interesting to consider (see note 5), it is worth mentioning that there is also a dark side to it, which is related to the dark triad we have discussed in Chapter Two. In fact, Kilduff et al. (2010a, 2010b) suggest that "those high in emotional intelligence, given competition for scarce resources typical in many organisations, are likely to use their skills to advance their own interests even at the expense of others in the workplace" (Kilduff et al., 2010a, p. 130).

Emotional Labour and the Four C's of Emotion

While emotional intelligence presents many similarities to intelligence quotient, so easier to understand, it is linked to the concept of emotional labour (Hochschild, 1983; Sutton, 1991; Sutton & Rafaeli, 1988; Van Maanem & Kunda, 1989), and used in an ever growing number of organisations which deal with the expression of particular emotions at work that should enhance organisational productivity. In this field, Putnam and Numby (1993) introduced the concept of bounded emotionality to express problems deriving from work-related emotions, which they define as "feelings, sensations and affective responses to organisational situations" (Putnam & Numby, 1993, p. 471).

Such variety of work-related emotions have six common characteristics, which can be summarised as follows. Firstly, we need to consider intersubjective limitations brought in the work relationship by all individuals involved. Think for example of anyone of your colleagues, and you could surely enlist several differences and commonalities between the both of you. Now, bounded emotionality should remind individuals to work with whatever baggage they bring (Meyerson, 1994; Numby & Putnam, 1992; Putnam & Numby, 1993), and use observation skills, what they have learned through dialogue and empathy to make an effort to contribute to organisational life.

While it is clear that the ultimate goal of bounded emotionality is to better understand the emotional relationships in the workplace, and improving them through a proactive approach, this aim is linked to the idea of fostering the work community rather than concentrating on enhancing efficiency or job productivity. In this sense, Numby and Putnam (1992) insist that "organizations do not need to sacrifice or lose sight of technical efficiency, but they should embed instrumental goals within a larger system of community and interrelatedness." (Numby & Putnam, 1992, p. 479).

Then again, within the concept of bounded emotionality, an ambiguity of feelings, which are usually contradictory when several people are involved, seems to be tolerated and balanced, in particular through an accentuated respect for individual value differences and the promotion of authenticity in expressing your own feelings.

The Four C's of Emotion help individuals identify whether issues associated with context, challenges, communication, or community are the underlying causes of their emotional reactions so that they can better deal with their feelings.

As we saw earlier on, emotional intelligence addresses competencies for recognising and managing our own and others' emotions, where emotions serve as the "social lubricant" (Callahan & McCollum, 2002) for interactions between individuals.

In particular, according to Goleman (1996), emotional intelligence has five basic categories of ability: knowing one's emotions, managing emotions, motivating oneself, recognising emotions, and handling relationships. These are important to help better understand the practical value of EI. Goleman (1996), which suggests a series of action steps that can help us engage emotional intelligence in the workplace, which can be implemented by each employee, regardless of their leadership position within the organisation. So, individuals should first of all reflect on and recognise their own, and others', emotions. Once this step is completed, they then accept responsibility for their emotions,

and at the same time, reframe negative situations to challenges. These steps have everything to do with their ability to understand themselves and learn their own personal triggers for both positive and negative emotions. The final step should understandably be self-reflective, with individuals asking themselves what can they change whenever confronted with an emotionally-laden situation.

Other than the concept of Emotional Intelligence as developed by Goleman, Callahan (2008) proposes four C's of emotions, a social systems approach which should help in categorising potential causes of emotional responses in organisations. So what are those four Cs then? We can say that we should appreciate emotions according to context, challenges, communication and community. Callahan's approach is based on Schwandt and Marquardt's (2000) classic social systems approach, which considers four primary clusters that ideally represent the areas in which emotion is likely to be triggered.

Both frameworks highlight a well-known concept around the environmental factor, that all social systems must pay attention to the context in which they are situated. Think for example at the use of best practice in the organisational context, appreciated by practitioners, managers, consultants and academics alike. If you are part of an organisation nowadays, you know how important it is to innovate, to keep up with the disruptive changes of our modern economy. Therefore, you might be inclined to bring in best practices from your competitors, which is something that can be thrilling or might be seen as threatening to those who have any kind of interest in existing organisational processes. We must never forget that, whatever innovative approach or leadership style we might use, change may be met by employees, regardless of their position, with resistance and fear, or anticipation and excitement.

How can we come into the possession of best practices, or any other innovative behaviour? The solution offered by social systems approaches is related to the activation of social networks at least within the organisation, and possibly also further afield. Think, for example, about the importance of communities of practice, whether virtual or physical, for knowledge sharing. These require individuals to establish a contact, a rapport, or even friendship, with a potentially wider pool of colleagues. So, how can we achieve such ambitious goal? The organisation must, first of all, identify a specific set of goals, or challenges, that can be seen as a unifying force, and which are communicated within the organisation itself throughout, using both formal and informal communication channels. While creating their ambitious plans, organisations might naturally tend to focus on activities associated with training, leadership, and strategic planning.

We have seen how, looking at the social perspective, communication is vital, and all activities related to communication are among the most emotional in organisations (Callahan, 2000). Why is that? For starters, the more you communicate, the more possibilities to assist with emotional behaviours are created, such as for example, the concern if you hear a loud outburst form a colleague who feels overworked by receiving too many e-mails, or the excitement of being partnered with your favourite colleague. Other interesting examples can be seen daily, such as fearing to say the wrong thing to a co-worker and cause them trouble or resentment; or trigger jealousy among colleagues, or the anticipation, that feeling in the air, you experience when you have been told there might be new projects and challenges awaiting you. The emotions we have discussed here, which are fostered by activities associated with organisational communities, cover a wide range, from fear, to hope, alienation, belongingness, and guilt, among other emotions.

Thus, the Four C's of emotion, within the emotional intelligence concept, provide a strong understanding of what the organisation feels, and how to manage it effectively. Once the social component is activated and reflectiveness is applied, employees are more empowered to enact an action plan for solving dilemmas associated with emotional reactions in the organisational context. In other words, looking at the communities formed and the social reactions, individuals should be able to apply their emotional intelligence skills to correctly identify feelings, what causes them, how the situation can evolve in the future, and finally identify the best course of action.

Measuring Leadership Skills and Personality Traits

Whether we believe or not in the possibility that leadership skills can be taught, and also learned through life, we are likely to take into account the environmental conditions that will likely determine how our intellectual abilities develop. This perspective is sustained, for example, by evidence that IQ scores change over the time (note 6). That said, environmental conditions that can influence our intellectual potentials include, among others, gender, age, nutrition, health, quality of stimulation, appropriate reward for the accomplishments and the emotional climate at home or school (Bayley, 1970). Another interesting aspect of leadership relates to the concept of power, where power is the ability that an individual has to influence another to obtain whatever the first wanted. In this circumstance, the greater the influence that the individual holds on the other, the more the other is dependant

on the first. Dependance is, on the other end, controlled by the importance, scarcity and non-substitutability of a resource or an individual. Through a social network analysis, it is possible to analyse the exchange of resources and dependencies within an organisation (Burt, Kilduff & Tasselli, 2013; Carpenter, Li & Jiang, 2012).

So how can we make sure we hire the right people? By right, we mean individuals with potential to grow, and a good match for the organisational climate and strategic goals. During the last few decades, recruiters, senior managers and also leaders in education, such as universities around the world, have made a massive use of psychological or psychometric testing, whether to assess and measure intelligence, achievement, aptitude or personality.

Such tests can be used, as we said, to measure general intellectual ability, through what Binet describes as tasks that require reasoning and problem-solving abilities (Binet & Simon, 1916 - see also note 7). We are all familiar with the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scale (Becker, 2003), also known as IQ test, which is represented as the ratio of mental age (MA) to chronological age (CA) times 100. If you ever attempted to take the test, an IQ between 90 and 110 is considered generally normal, while a result above 130 is indicative of a very intelligent individual.

We have widely discussed about emotional intelligence in this Chapter, and it is interesting to point out that there are several tests available to get a score similar to the IQ one. In particular, the NFER-Nelson questionnaire (note 8) presents 69 statements, to which you need to answer, indicating the extent of your agreement. Or you could try the Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI), developed by Hay Management Consultants (note 9); or the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test, also known as MSCEIT (Mayer, Caruso & Salovey, 2000; Mayer, Salovey, Caruso & Sitarenios, 2001; see also note 10).

You might have experienced or heard of the practice of using personality tests as part of the selection process. In the modern organisation, where team skills are fundamental, we surely need to do everything in our power to hire the right people. An example of these personality tests can be Cattel's 16 PF questionnaire, which consists of 186 questions which can be answered only choosing between "Agree", "Uncertain" or "Disagree" (see note 11). A more complex test seems to be the Eysenck Personality Inventory (EPI) test, which gives back socially desirable responses in occupational settings, which demonstrated several curious circumstances such as successful business people seem to be stable introverts, while financial, research and development employees are the most introverted.

For personnel and team management purposes, we might consider or use achievement or aptitude tests. These two differ, according to Nolen-Hoeksema (Nolen-Hoeksema & Ahrens, 2002), because achievement tests are used to measure what an individual has already achieved, and in a sense, what they are capable of doing now. Aptitude tests, on the other hand, are interesting if we want to see what the same individual could actually achieve after training - thus, predict their development in the organisation.

Whichever test we use to implement our personnel selection strategy or make changes in a strategic way, they can be useful, considering their objectivity and scientific reliability. However, tests shouldn't be used alone, for several reasons such as individuals might have performance issues under stress, give the wrong answer trying to be more interesting to hire, or more commonly found, not everyone is successfully self-aware of themselves so their responses are not entirely truthful or a fair representation.

CONCLUSION

Boyatzis claims that we must begin to look at the organisation of the future as a social system (Wheeler & Hall, 2003), filled with emotion, reason, and action. Why would we switch from an individualistic perspective, represented by the mighty leader, so charismatic, ready to pounce on any new challenge or breakthrough, leading their fearless employees, to a social perspective of organisational emotion? The honest answer maybe is that there are not so many intrepid leaders, to allow every organisation in the world to survive. In other words, not everyone is a leader, nor can be, or maybe want to be. However, every organisation, in order to survive, needs to understand what is going on within its people. Individuals within an organisation need to be aware of themselves, as well as of others. So, rather than concentrating on the qualities a solitaire leader must have, we have discussed the importance of understanding practical steps towards mindfulness, self-awareness and empathy in the workplace. Building on our knowledge of emotional intelligence, we presented the Four C's of Emotion framework, so that we can make sense of the emotional triggers that either support or derail our organisation, and its development efforts.

All of this is what, at the end of the day, makes up for the organisational culture, which is something a little bit more than a sense of community or some set of beliefs and norms that bind members together with a collective history.

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APPENDIX

Note 1: Among others, according to Crainer and Dearlove, companies have re-evaluated over time the leadership qualities they need in their organisational context, and put more emphasis on the emotional dimension. On the other hand, Gibbs (1995) conducted a study which demonstrated that those who failed at being good leaders did not have any lack of technical skills, it was indeed something related to their personality.

- Craig, S. B. (1995). *Perceptions of leader integrity: A psychological climate dimension with implication for subordinate job satisfaction*. Unpublished masters' thesis. University of Virginia.
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Note 2: Goleman got his ideas, among others, from Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. D. (1990). Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, Cognition and Personality*, 9, 185-211.
Note 3: Thorndike and Stein presented the concept of social intelligence as the "ability to understand and manage people" (p. 275).

- Thorndike, R. L., & Stein, S. (1937). An evaluation of the attempts to measure social intelligence. *Psychological Bulletin*, 34(5), 275-285.

Note 4: For a complete bibliography in Emotional Intelligence, you can refer to Mayer, J., Salovey, P., Caruso, D., & Cherkasskiy, L. (2011). Emotional Intelligence. In R. Sternberg & S. Kaufman (Eds.), *The Cambridge Handbook of Intelligence* (Cambridge Handbooks in Psychology, pp. 528-549). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
Note 5: Other perspectives on EI can be found, for example, in the work of Cooper and Sawaf, and Bar-On and the EQ-i test. The EI concept has been greatly criticised mainly for its lack of empirical research, in particular by Locke, Petrides at al. - according to whom there is no difference between EQ and the major personality dimensions; and by Zeidner, Matthews and Roberts, who pointed out business executives look at EQ as emotional competencies which are acquirable through a process of learning.

- Bar-On, R. (1997). *The Emotional Intelligence Inventory (EQ-i): technical manual.* Toronto, Canada: Multi-Health Systems.
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- Matthews, G., Zeidner, M., & Roberts, R. (2004). *Emotional intelligence: Science and myth.* Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Among others, Petrides, K. V., Frederickson, N., & Furnham, A. (2004). The role of trait emotional intelligence in academic performance and deviant behavior at school. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 36, 277–293.

Note 6: Researchers have tried to demonstrate how IQ is not a fixed measure during an individual's life. Thinking that we do evolve, also means that our brain evolves too. In particular, what we know at thirteen years old, it is not the same as what we know when we are thirty years old. It is not only a matter of quantifiable knowledge (i.e., what happened during the Secession, or the 17 time table). It is also about how we see the world around us, how we perceive it and our ability to apply that factual knowledge in the everyday life, in a way that shows our problem solving skills, among other things. Interesting readings can be the followings:

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- Flynn, J. R. (2007). *What is intelligence? Beyond the Flynn effect*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

- Howe, M.J.A., Davidson, J.W. and Sloboda, J.A. (1998) Innate talents: reality or myth? *Behavioral and Brain Sciences*, 21 (3), 399-407.

Note 7: For an historical background on Alfred Binet, see also:

- Education.stateuniversity.com (2015). *Alfred Binet (1857–1911) - Background, Research, Measurement of Children's Abilities, Contribution*. Retrieved from http://education.stateuniversity.com/pages/1790/Binet-Alfred-1857-1911.html [Accessed 8 Aug. 2018].

Note 8: Interesting materials are available at https://www.nfer.ac.uk/for-schools/products-services/primary-schools/nfer-tests/ [Accessed 8 Aug. 2018].
Note 9: Online you can find lots of materials, for example at http://www.eiconsortium.org/pdf/ECI_2_0_Technical_Manual_v2.pdf [Accessed 8 Aug. 2018].
Note 10: Interesting materials can be found at http://www.eiconsortium.org/measures/msceit.html [Accessed 8 Aug. 2018].
Note 11: If you want to take the test, try https://openpsychometrics.org/tests/16PF.php [Accessed 8 Aug. 2018].

Chapter 6
PBL Training and Hiring for Vision

ABSTRACT

In this chapter, the authors present some original findings in relation to knowledge and personnel management. In particular, they argue that one of the major challenges modern organisations face is the ability to retain and make the most of their internal knowledge. Whether tacit or explicit, knowledge transfer is a key component of organisational success, and this should be enhanced through external and internal factors, such as individuals who benefit from an educational system that values a problem-based learning approach, and an "hiring for vision" attitude embedded in the organisation. Hiring for vision implies that employees are selected according to their technical skills, as well as their personality traits and values, which facilitate them to be active agents of the organisational culture.

INTRODUCTION

In a hyper-competitive economy, companies must be dynamic and capable of change. Looking at the way markets answer to this new era of crisis, strategic management has to step up as key for survival. Since strategy is such a diversified tool, managers are asked to choose carefully the right one. Literature has highlighted the prominent role of knowledge management as a competitive advantage for a firm (Quinn, 1992; Grant, 1996). Drucker

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(1993), among others (Quinn, Anderson and Finkelstein, 1996; Thurow, 1997; Sveiby, 1997; Pascarella, 1997), affirms that knowledge, as an input resource, will likely have a greater impact than physical capital. For a firm, being able to develop, retain and transfer knowledge in all organisational processes, could mean the capability to compete, or at least survive in the market place. According to Bell, "knowledge has of course been necessary in the functioning of any society. [...] What has become decisive for the organization of decisions and the direction of change is the centrality of theoretical knowledge" (1999, p. 20).

In order to suggest a suitable solution to this in a work place, where it is demonstrated that ninety-nine percent of the work done is knowledge based (Wah, 1999), we will investigate the value of knowledge within the organisation, suggesting a new model for knowledge circulation that resembles the photosynthetic process. Looking at the process in these terms, will better highlight the role of traditional and non-traditional enablers of knowledge. The originality of this model sits in the central role given to education and vision. Because knowledge is embedded in people's minds, making them knowledge retainers and transmitters. We can argue that it is key for companies' innovation and sustainability to embrace an educational common ground that emphasises the importance of critical thinking and a sharing attitude. If people, or workers naturally transfer their knowledge, companies will gain a competitive advantage that is bound to guarantee their success in the market. Griffith (2011) recognises this as a strategic shift from what he calls the "need to know" to a "need to share" approach, similar to what happens with social media.

How can an organisation fit the new model into its managerial processes? The first step should come from the outside. The educational system should create the ability to develop knowledge through non-traditional teaching, in particular using a problem-based learning (PBL) approach for lifelong learners. The second step is internal to the company, and will concern hiring employees that have the right attitude, and truly embrace the firm's vision.

These two steps, a PBL approach transferred from the educational system to the company's managerial processes, and a 'hiring for vision attitude', are the keys to unlocking a powerful knowledge circulation within the organisation, that will create competitive advantage for sustainability, and a strong connection to society.

The Role of Knowledge

What is knowledge? Answering this question may seem to be an easy task, however researchers and practitioners are required to take into account the variety of definitions given to knowledge itself. Dewey and Bentley (1948) stated that "the word "knowledge" [...] is a loose name. [...] We shall rate it as No. 1 on a list of "vague words" (note 1). While the traditional definition of knowledge in academia is the one that consider it as a justified true belief, Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) go a little further describing knowledge as "a dynamic human process of justifying personal belief toward the 'truth'". For Polanyi, all knowing involves *skillful action*, requiring the "knower" to necessarily participate in all acts of understanding. Therefore, "knowledge is an activity which would be better described as a process of knowing" (Polanyi, 1969), and because "all knowing is personal knowing - participation through indwelling" (Polanyi and Prosch, 1975), there are two types of knowledge. Knowledge should be seen as explicit and tacit knowledge. Nonaka agrees, stating that tacit knowledge is "knowledge not-yet-articulated". It can be technical or cognitive, and it is often seen wrongly in contradiction to explicit knowledge (mostly considered as written knowledge that can be found in books or manuals). There is agreement in the relevant literature about the dichotomy of explicit knowledge versus tacit knowledge, where the first one is seen mostly as academic data or information, described in formal language, such as manuals, patents, or mathematical formulas (Smith, 2001). Tacit knowledge is, again, a difficult concept to define. In knowledge management studies, according to Haldin-Herrgard, at least twenty-three epitomes of tacit knowledge can be found, appearing in books and papers from 1956 to 2002. It is safe to say that tacit knowledge can be considered as that knowledge difficult or impossible to articulate in explicit ways, because it is strictly connected to a person's ability (Ambrosini and Bowman, 2001; Cook and Yanow, 1996; Eraut, 2000; Nonaka and Takeushi, 1995) or personal dimension (Polanyi, 1962). According to Fleck, tacit knowledge is "a subtle level of understanding often difficult to put into words, a trained recognition and perception, a good feeling for the technology. This form of knowledge is wholly embodied in the individual, rooted in practice and experience, expressed through skilful execution, and transmitted by apprenticeship and training through watching and doing forms of learning" (1996, p. 119).

Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) suggest that two different forms of tacit knowledge exist. The first one, known as technical tacit knowledge, can be acquired through an apprenticeship based approach and learning by doing, and does not require to be translated in language because it is that kind of knowledge created through people's actions and experience in the moment. There is also a cognitive tacit knowledge, that requires the use of language, because to be transmitted, it needs, among other things, social interaction and discussion. Baumard (1999) talks about two different types of organisational knowledge that "cannot be articulated or stabilized": implicit knowledge, as something we might know but we do not want to express; and tacit knowledge, as knowledge we have and know but cannot express because it is personal, difficult to convey and not easily translated in formal language. Scharmer (2000) agrees in considering two forms of tacit knowledge (embodied tacit knowledge, and self-transcending knowledge); however, his definitions are peculiar, the first type of tacit knowledge based on action while the latter on imagination.

It seems important to stress out that Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) refer to tacit knowledge as knowledge not-yet-articulated, implying the automatic possibility to convert tacit knowledge into explicit knowledge. Even though this seems to be the most used definition in academia, we disagree with this definition, because it fails to consider explicit and tacit knowledge as two sides of the same coin, rather than two opposites. Tacit knowledge cannot be translated, converted or even captured. It becomes explicit only when our mastery, or skills are punctuated through social interaction (Tsoukas, 2001). Hence, knowledge (tacit or explicit) always has a social dimension.

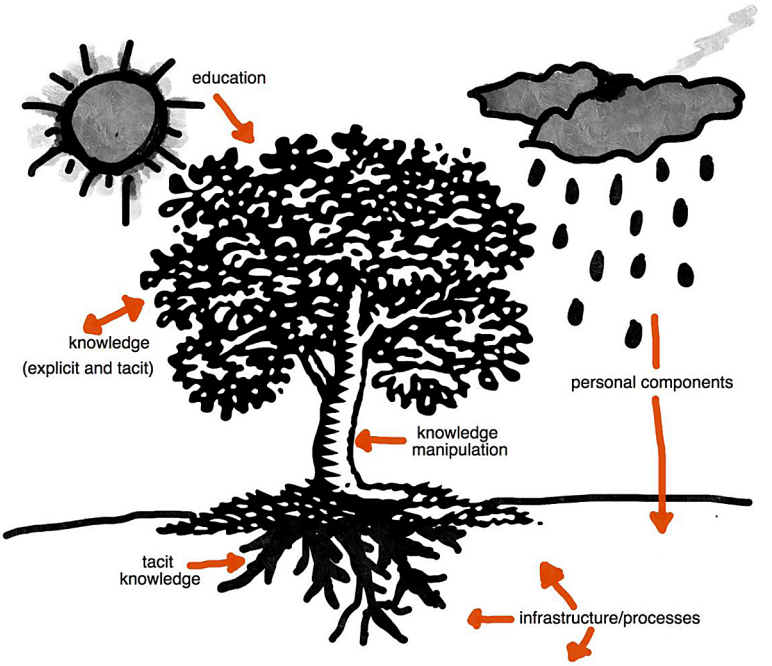
For our purposes, an interesting and different definition is provided by Leif Edvinsson from Skandia, who suggests the existence of a commercial knowledge, constituted by a combination of individual, organisational and structural knowledge. Looking at the general picture, however, a recognised main distinction is the one distinguishing data, information and knowledge, where the latter is considered broader than the previous ones and even intellectual capital. Davenport and Prusak (1998) define data as "a set of discrete, objective facts about events" (p. 2), that the organisation evaluates in terms of cost, speed and capacity. Information is seen as data that makes a difference, meaning that types of data are transformed into information through different approaches, such as categorization; contextualization; calculating; correcting; and condensing. Bateson (1979) referred to information as consisting "of differences that makes a difference", suggesting that information is required to achieve knowledge, by adding something to it or

restructuring it (Machlup, 1962, 1980). Pascarella (1997) affirms that to be valuable, information must be used on the job or have given meaning, while Lee (2000) stresses on the importance of human interpretation. And when O'Dell refers to knowledge as "information in action" (p. 5), Davenport and Prusak say that it "is a fluid mixed of framed experience, values, contextual information and expert insight that provides a framework for evaluating and incorporating new experiences and information. It originates and is applied in the minds of knowers. In organizations, it often becomes embedded not only in documents or repositories but also in organizational routines, processes, practices and norms" (p. 5).

Agreeing with Davenport and Prusak, it would be worth presenting a new way to define knowledge that takes into account its characteristic of lively entity, embodied in ground truth while experience and complexity mould it. In this model, knowledge is identified as a life-long stream of learnability, derived from the interaction of diversified enablers.

My model focuses on highlighting the role of knowledge in a general context. Knowledge here is seen as the result of connections between three elements:

Figure 1. The ecosystem of knowledge manipulation
(Fazzin, S., 2017)



a personal component, education, and those infrastructures or processes that usually rule life. It is important to stress that in this model, education must be looked at both in terms of collection of tacit knowledge, past experiences, inner values and beliefs, and explicit knowledge - meaning the formal education gained through, for example, traditional lectures, textbooks or data analysis. We might then describe the personal component as a sort of interpretative key, that enables the filter of data and information with the meaning to create knowledge, in accordance with the individual/group's values, beliefs, past experiences, vision, and so on. It is easier now to understand why the model has been presented graphically as something similar to the chlorophyllian process. According to our own definition of knowledge, the sun represents education and the rainy weather the personal component, while the ground is metaphor for infrastructure or processes that usually take place during a lifetime. Through the connection/interaction of these elements, the tree of knowledge is capable of growing with its roots absorbing tacit knowledge, while manipulating it wholly in its trunk. Thinking about it as a never ending process, it is undeniable that knowledge can be both old and new, can be used or tossed away to be recycled, it is easily shared with other elements of the ecosystem, and more importantly, it generates tacit knowledge that can be spread independently.

The Cycle of Knowledge

Western management theories, from Taylor (1911) to Simon (1947, 1973), are still mostly influenced by the information processing paradigm, according to which the organisation is taught to process information from the environment to solve a problem. In this perspective, the organisation is a mere information-processing machine. Choo (1998) still uses this paradigm to introduce knowledge creation as a part of this process, to obtain rational decisions in order to achieve a given goal.

Contrary to that, Nonaka et al. believe that an organisation cannot be a mere information-processing machine. It can be seen as an entity that creates knowledge through interaction and action. Among others, Cyert and March (1963), and Levinthal and Myatt (1994), argue that while an organisation innovates, it does so creating new information and reshaping the environment through interaction. This process of knowledge creation, is therefore dynamic and active (Barney, 1991; Nelson, 1991; Teece, Pisano & Shuen, 1997). Therefore, knowledge can be created, retained, shared, transferred, even

destroyed. Davenport and Prusak (1998), although they do not believe in the possibility of knowledge creation itself (note 2), go further and say that knowledge can be purchased, leased or rented. Dixon goes on to argue that, to be competitive, companies must pursue effective ways to convey their ongoing experience into knowledge, creating it through reflection on past actions and relative outcomes, and so being able of transfer. Sense (1990) introduces the concept of 'learning organization', arguing that an organisation cope with changes in its environment and changes itself through learning, that is both passive, adaptive and active.

Researchers have tried to demonstrate how these processes work, in order to maximise efficiency and profitability in the organisation. O'Dell and Grayson Jr. (1998, p. 7) present an interesting model of knowledge transfer process, that emphasises the steps individuals use to manipulate knowledge. However, the most famous model about knowledge transfer and creation is the one presented by Nonaka and known as the SECI model. Used to support many parables and case studies (Nonaka, 1991; Nonaka & Konno, 1998; Nonaka, Umemoto & Sasaki, 1998; von Krogh, Ichijo & Nonaka, 2000), it introduces the concept of *ba* as that dimension that can guide and explain innovation. The SECI (Socialization, Externalisation, Combination, and Internalization) model is built around the spiral of knowledge, that requires three different layers of knowledge to interact together. The first layer is seen as the process of knowledge creation itself. Knowledge can be converted in four different modes:

- From tacit knowledge to tacit knowledge (through observation, imitation and practice, shared activities, during socialization);
- From tacit to explicit knowledge (externalization of tacit knowledge using analogies, metaphors and models);
- From explicit to explicit knowledge (during combination through media, such as documents, meetings, phone calls conversations or computerised communication networks); and
- From explicit to tacit knowledge, through internalization. This process is closely related to learning by doing.

The second layer of the SECI model is *ba*, seen as a platform for knowledge creation, defined as "a context in which knowledge is shared, created and utilized, in recognition of the fact that knowledge needs a context in order to exist (, and that) [...] instead of being constrained by history, [...] has a here-and-now quality" (Nonaka, Toyama & Byosière, 2001; p. 499). Nonaka et al.

suggest the existence of four types of *ba*: originating *ba*, where individuals share feelings, emotions, experiences, and mental models (aka tacit knowledge); dialoguing *ba*, where these mental models and skills are converted into terms and concepts; systemising *ba*, that is a virtual space of combination; and at last, the exercising *ba*, where the conversion from explicit knowledge into tacit knowledge is facilitated.

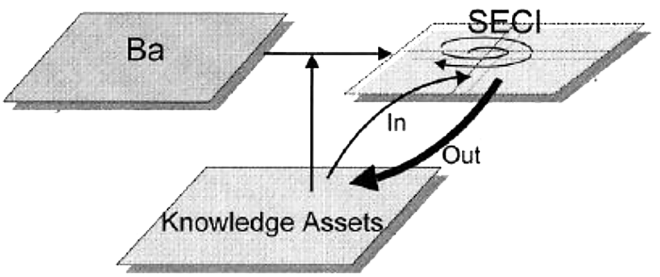
The third, and last layer of the SECI model is represented by knowledge assets, that can be seen as the inputs and outputs of the knowledge-creating process, and that are experiential, conceptual, systemic or routine.

The SECI model is built on the belief that "organizational knowledge is a never-ending process that upgrades itself continuously" (Nonaka, Toyama, & Byosière, 2001; p. 498), acquiring knowledge from outside sources such as customers, suppliers and competitors, to create its own knowledge (Child, 2007). However, Simon (1987) stresses on the importance of social habits. To make tacit knowledge explicit, he says, there is a need to 'unfreeze' social habits within the organisation. Nonaka considers five knowledge enablers within the organisation: vision, strategy, structure, system, and staff. Because human beings are creators of knowledge, rather than data processors, say Nonaka and Kenney (1991, p. 67), knowledge can be defined as experience that can be shared (Allee, 2012). Trying to answer the question 'what is knowledge', Allee goes further stating that knowledge is both an object, a process and a complex system.

Practical Consequences of our Knowledge Model

How can an organisation use, create and transfer knowledge? Who are the main actors in this process? What is the role of strategic knowledge management? What can its ultimate goal be? Szulanski presented a study that empirically

Figure 2. Ba and knowledge creation
(Source: Nonaka, Toyama & Konno, 2000).



demonstrates that a company's practice is bound to be unrecognised and unshared for years; and even if recognised, other sites would begin to actively try to adopt the practice after over two years (on average). Szulansky suggests that these difficulties on sharing within the organisation can be explained by ignorance; the absence of an absorptive capacity within the company; lack of pre-existing relationships between coworkers; or, through a lack of motivation. According to a recent study conducted by Constant, Kiesler and Sproul (1994), it seems that people are willing to share what they have learnt through tangible knowledge, for example, something they have read about, but not things related to their own experiences, because of being judged too much personal. Daft and Wick (1984) pointed out how an organisation is capable of preserving its knowledge, behaviours, norms and values, without being affected by workers' changes.

Looking closely at how knowledge can be transferred within the organisation, O'Dell proposes a model for Best Practice transfer, applicable to both explicit and tacit knowledge, that takes into account four enablers, a four-step change process that revolves around value propositions.

Thus, value proposition "is the logical link between action and payoff: if we do A, the B will happen, and the return on B is higher than either the cost of A or the potential risk of not making B happen" (O'Dell, 1998, p. 31). Agreeing with Treacy and Wiersema (1993) on the opportunity for the organisation to narrow its business focus, rather than broaden it, to become leader in the market, O'Dell suggests as value propositions for a firm: customer intimacy, that "focuses on capturing knowledge about customers, developing and transferring knowledge and understanding of customers' needs, preferences and business to increase sales, as well as bringing the knowledge of the organization to bear on customer problems" (p. 38); product - to - market, that is either assuring new ideas from inside and outside the company are incorporated into product and service offering, or accelerating product delivery process by learning from past attempts (note 4); and "operational excellence, that consists of transferring operational processes and know-how from successful business units to others". The enablers, in this model, are four. Culture is seen here as the combination of shared history, expectations, unwritten rules and anything else that can affect people's behaviour in the company (Szulanski, 1995; O'Dell, 1998). It presupposes the presence of a collective sense of purpose (linked to the organisation's mission and vision) and the acceptance of personal responsibility for knowledge creation and sharing. Technology and infrastructure help the organisation capturing and transferring knowledge, making it more easily accessible to others, while

measurements can give potential clues about knowledge value within the company.

The knowledge model we have presented is strictly related to a new definition of knowledge itself, and consequently, a different vision of the knowledge creation process. Here, knowledge is intended as every tangible and intangible resources elaborated by the brain, in form of emotion and/ or information, capable of showing connections between things. Many researchers have demonstrated that ninety percent of the knowledge present in an organization is embedded and manipulated in people's heads (Wah, 1999; Lee, 2000; Bonner, 2000). Considering curiosity as the most natural and important aspect of human nature and therefore key strategy for knowledge creation, organisations in this hyper competitive society need to secure themselves individuals with the right attitude, rather than just access to information. In order to gain competitive advantage against its competitors, an organisation must be valued not for its processes, nor the knowledge itself that it is able to attract. What really counts now is related to the ability its corporate culture has to attract the right employees. The majority of people tend to search for a job that has less characteristics than their dream job, because of the modern society and its attitude towards 'whatever job, as long as it pays'. And the majority of them do not have an education that fosters, as much as needed, critical thinking, problem-based analysis, nor practical know-how.

If in the past, successful companies were those with the most competent employees in relation to technical knowledge acquired now, know-how itself is not enough. Therefore, we suggest that a certain type of (formal) education becomes key aspect in managing knowledge. We can surely agree with the need of a shared cultural environment that the modern society has to foster in its social and educational habits. Researchers argue about the importance of storytelling as a way to share (tacit) knowledge (Sternberg et al., 1995 - note 5) and detect best practices within the organisation. Furthermore, training, coaching and mentoring, are seen as successful ways to enhance the organisational culture and instil in co-workers the need of a sharing, proactive attitude. So why is enrolling employees on training seminars not enough to spread knowledge within the organisation? We could argue that it is hard to change social habits at a work age, while it is the education's role and main objective to provide people, as lifelong learners, with skills that facilitate employability and social interactions. Again, why education is so important? Because knowledge is the product of learning (note 6), either implicit (Reber, 1993 - note 7) or explicit. In complex learning situations, people are likely to use both implicit and explicit learning processes (Argyris

& Schon, 1978; Anderson, 1982; Nonaka, 1994). Individuals' past knowledge influences the way they can create new knowledge (Goldstein, 1991), and the same happens to the organisation's knowledge (Cohen & Levinthal, 1990). Learning involves both organisational and individual skills (Mahoney, 1994). According to Rothwell (1978) and Galbraith (1990), moving members of an organisation within facilitates knowledge transfer in the organisation. Because people adapt to new environments, they are able to transfer (tacit and explicit) knowledge to new contexts, say Berry and Broadbent (1984, 1987). But will it be enough? All these strategies have something in common: they are used as 'post' solutions. It seems to us that what is really missing in the literature, is a long-term strategic use of knowledge enablers within organisations. Education is the common ground for each part of the organisational process, and to use Nonaka and Takeuchi's word, the *ba* where knowledge is created, shared, transferred and even destroyed. A strategic use of the educational recipient is the most effective way for the organisation to adapt to systemic changes and sustain its competitive advantage in the market. Collaboration and partnership, as methods of organisational learning, have been proved to be successful in recognising dysfunctions within the firm (Doz & Shuen, 1989; Mody, 1990). According to Allee, knowledge has a social aspect that enables individual to learn by imitation and practice, in a reality that is a web of knowing. Thus, we suggest the introduction of a problem-based approach in the educational sector. A PBL approach can fix what Senge identifies as the company's learning disabilities. Among them, it is possible to encounter attitudes related to misconception of reality, proactiveness, threats to survival, and what Senge defines the myth of the management team or the delusion of learning from experience.

Educating Life-Long Problem-Based Learners for Organisational Success

Education is a very comprehensive word, that involves what individuals learn, both in traditional schooling and from life experiences. We firmly believe in the importance of fostering a PBL approach through formal schooling to enhance technical knowledge and personal emotional skills. How so? Looking at the characteristics of PBL in higher education, it is safe to say that learning is:

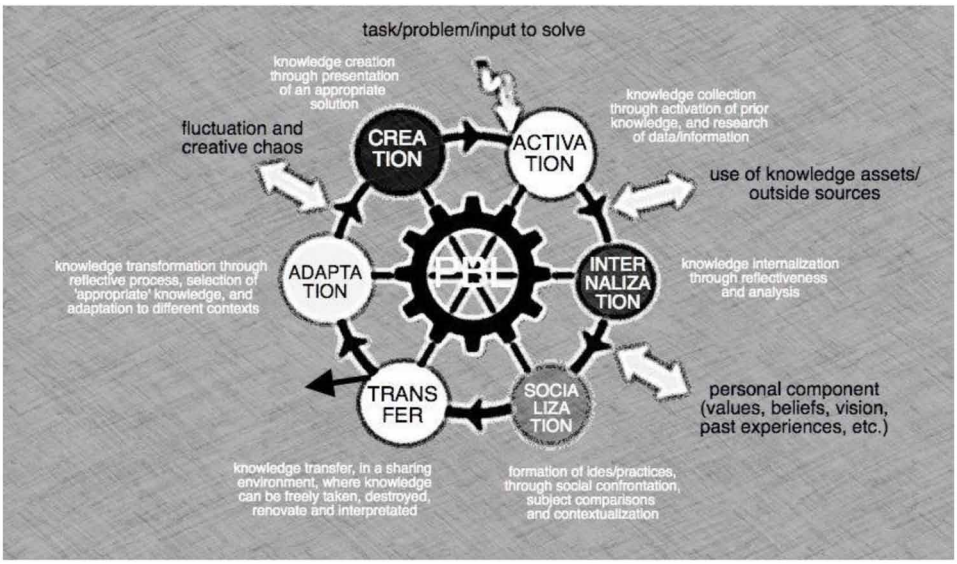
- **Cumulative:** In this sense, learners here are asked to use prior knowledge or experiences to solve the problem;

- Active, meaning that individuals are challenged to discover what they do not know yet in a positive way, rather than as a deficit (in accordance to the principles of lifelong learning);
- **Shareable:** PBL students are encouraged to share what they have learnt individually or in group, and are ready to learn more from open discussion;
- Reflective, because knowledge has meanings and interpretations depending on personal experience;
- Interactive, through relationships with other people and the world;
- Re-applicable, to different situations, environment or people;
- The result of a supportive, caring and trusting environment.

Using a PBL approach, we can then present an original model of knowledge manipulation.

The model presented here solves a few problems related to sharing dynamics between individuals. First of all, the choice to use a PBL approach instead of relying on the formation of communities of practice, has to do with the latter's characteristic of autonomous, self-direct group. Communities of practice are formed occasionally, by people who share experience, expertise and commitment (Brown & Duguid, 1996, 2000; Wenger, 1998; Wenger and

Figure 3. The process of knowledge manipulation through PBL
(Fazzin, S., 2017)



Snyder, 2000). To use Brown and Duguid's words (2000), "they are relatively tight-knit groups of people who know each other and work together directly. They are usually face-to-face communities that continually negotiate with, communicate with, and coordinate with each other directly in the course of work. This negotiation, communication, and coordination is highly implicit, part of work practice,...work chat. ... Groups like this cultivate their own style, their own sense of taste, judgment, and appropriateness, their own slang and in-terms. ... In these groups, the demands of direct coordination inevitably limit reach. You can only work closely with so many people. ... Ideas and knowledge may be distributed across the group, not held individually. These groups allow for highly productive and creative work to develop collaboratively" (p. 143). Looking at them in relation to PBL, a community of practice does not involve the formal presence of a tutor/facilitator, but according to group's dynamics, there are people that act as leaders (see Myers-Briggs, note 8).

Von Krogh et al. (2000) argue that communities of practice do not easily share, or facilitate the transmission of knowledge. Hence, they present the role of knowledge activists, a small group (five to seven people) of workers, strongly bound together through common work experiences, that disseminate knowledge within large organisations using a face-to-face approach.

Fostering a problem-based approach also facilitates learning because it takes into account the individual's cognitive style preferences. As suggested by Myers-Briggs and their indicators, people learn differently according to their own style. Being able to differentiate personal preferences, both in learning styles and behaviour at work, will help managers and workers in general to limit weaknesses and emphasise strengths. Along with pursuing the importance of a problem-based approach and its effects, it will also favour innovation and the acquisition of competitive advantage for the company, while naturally triggering the process of knowledge manipulation. Our own model of knowledge circulation through PBL enlightens the fundamental role of double-loop learning, suggesting the need for various degrees of reflectiveness within the knowledge creation process.

Lewin describes learning as an experiential model, stating that "a person continually cycles through a process of having a concrete experience, making observations and reflections on it, and testing those ideas in a new situation, which leads to another concrete experience". That represents the core objectives of a PBL approach.

Reece (1986, 1988) has largely discussed the importance of interactive learning in the organization, while Thurman and Nadler discover that innovative organisations are "highly effective learning systems" (1986, p. 75). What

does that mean exactly, though? It means that the way people learn within the organization is fundamental. Nowadays, it is not what we learn about that makes a difference when it comes to foster "both stability and change" (Thusman & Nadler, 1986, p. 75), but rather how we learn it, or the ability to see connection to acquire knowledge.

The originality of our model is embedded into this distinction. It goes beyond the definition of systemic knowledge ("knowing how we know", to use Johannessen et al.'s words - see note 9).

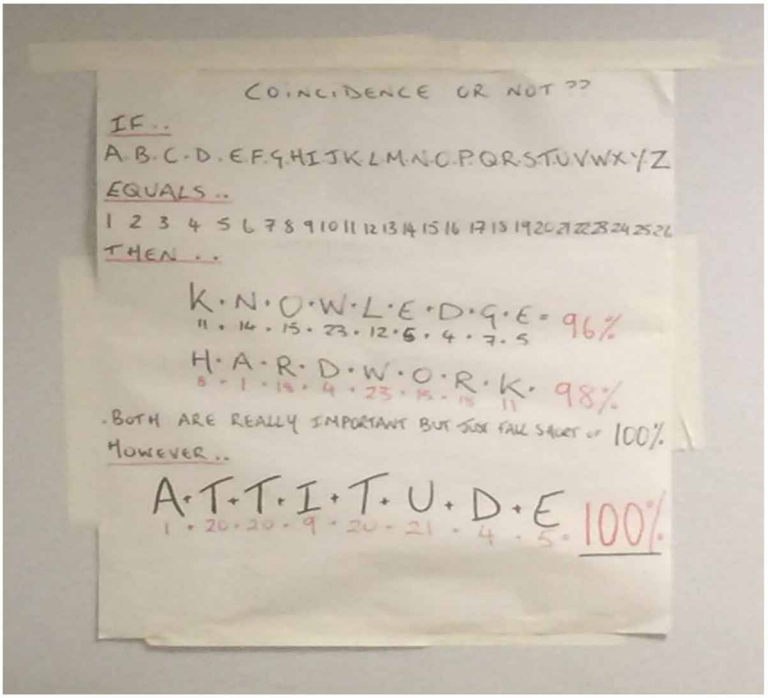
The use of a problem-based approach is likely to help the transfer knowledge process within the organisation, eliminating people's "reluctance to share crucial knowledge for fear of loosing ownership, a position of privilege" (Szulanski, 1996; p. 31) or "to surrender the power they gain from being an important knowledge source" (Leonard and Sensiper, 1998; p. 123). Sternberg et al. (1995, 1999) point out that the knowledge held by an expert, in comparison with a novice, is likely to be tacit and needs independent people from outside to extrapolate this tacit knowledge. Hence, using a problem-based approach in everyday situations, through reflectiveness and instructive forms of talk, individuals are bound to re-view the situation they are in and look at it in a different perspective. Furthermore, they will engage in social practices with other people, that can make them see 'connections' (Wittgeinstein, 1953), even if they are not more experienced (McIntyre, 1985; Taylor, 1993). Even in one of the managers' offices of West Ham United, a football team in London, it is possible to see something interesting and related to this argument.

Now, it is undeniable that a PBL approach in knowledge manipulation presents numerous advantages, since it becomes a powerful tool. Is it enough for strategic purposes? We argue that organisations, to be successful, need something more.

Hiring for Vision

Another important aspect connected to the search for PBL-oriented people that truly support the organisation's vision, is the capability to attract and retain talented, loyal and creative workforce (Smith, 2000). Nonaka suggests that vision is a knowledge enabler, a working premise for knowledge, because it states what knowledge and in which direction the organisation is going to look for it.

Figure 4. The value of Attitude.
(Source: The West Ham United Football Team Offices, as in June 2015).



It is undeniable that vision is fundamental to instil a sense of belonging, initiate the knowledge manipulation process, foster creativity, separate itself from competitors and give directions to where the organisation will be in the future. Vleck and Davidson (1992) agree on that, stating that people at work need a sense of purpose or meaning. In this modern hyper-competitive environment, an organisation must be infused with vision - the same way an institution is with values - to be effective, according to D'Aveni (1994). Senge argues on the importance of building a shared vision, starting from an individual one, that needs to answer three critical questions - what, why and how - to become universally recognised. According to Lee, vision driven companies are eight times better off financially than the others. Along with a shared and lived vision (see note 9), researchers have pointed out the fundamental role of a strong leadership, values and ethics (Covey, 2004 - see note 10; Kouzes, 2007; Holoviak, 1993). For these reasons, vision is seen as the catalyst of

the change needed to achieve the desired (future) goals (Kanter et al., 1992; Fruin, 1997). Thus, an environment where care, trust and openness are valued, fosters knowledge creation exponentially, added to that the fact that we have already argued on the importance of a problem-based approach as learning style, to instil such an environment and corporate culture.

Klein suggests that, in order to develop professional intellect, organisations have to follow two rules: recruit the best, and force what he calls an early intensive development. It seems likely that professional know-how can be fostered and grow exponentially through the exposition to complex real problems. This approach, fostered through coaching, mentoring, peer pressure and so on, has been proved capable of enabling the best talents to move up a learning curve that is steeper than anyone else's. But how do organisations recruit the best? And what does best stand for? In an extensive research, Murphy discovered that out of twenty thousand people hired in three years, forty-six percent of them failed at their job in the first eighteen months. The numbers are almost unbelievable. Murphy ascribes this failure to a lack of different things: from coachability (twenty-six percent), to emotional intelligence (twenty-three percent), motivation (seventeen percent), temperament (fifteen percent), and lastly technical competence (eleven percent). (Source: [Accessed September 2, 2018]).

According to this study, what people lack are not skills, nor, know-how. What is missing, here, is the capability to foster knowledge circulation.

The financial cost of hiring failures, coupled with the opportunity cost of not hiring high performers, can be millions of dollars, even for small companies, adds Murphy. And the human cost can be even worse. If a hospital hires a nurse with low emotional intelligence, that won't accept feedback and alienates pharmacists and physicians, the result could be a medical error. This one bad hiring decision could cost a patient their life (Murphy, 2011 - see note 11).

This study seems to demonstrate the importance of the social aspect of knowledge circulation. In the past, organisations looked at their leaders, expecting them to be visionaries, always projecting towards the future. Nowadays, managers cannot be seen as the only catalyst of organisational success. They cannot provide direction, solutions and success by themselves. According to Mintzberg (1973), managers spend almost eighty percent of their time communicating - mostly in form of talking and conversation. This is their role, knowledge attractors and vectors. To be competitive in the modern market, organisations need to search for the 'right' people, individuals that

can actually feel the organisation's vision as theirs, understand the meaning of sharing and caring, have courage to test the limits and get through, led by managers that encourage dialogue and value each one of them. Fostering a PBL approach since the beginning of the education journey, will help to build those personal, emotional characteristics that are fundamental for knowledge circulation. It will help shape individuals in ways that go beyond the mere traditional knowledge acquisition, while fostering independence and self-consciousness. Once individuals have seen the importance of a shared culture and behaviour, they will only need to find the right organisation for them. Social pressure to find a job, and not the job, must be fought. Each individual has the right and the need to be wherever he/she can be productive, and find happiness.

CONCLUSION

Knowledge is the modern key to organisational success. The way we create, manage, manipulate and even destroy it is crucial in terms of strategy and competitiveness. For these reasons, organisations have to work with other societal apparatus, such as the educational sector, in order to innovate. In this chapter, we tried to stress out the importance of the social aspect of knowledge, here meant as a lifelong stream of learnability, arguing that organisations, to win the challenge in our hyper-competitive economy, are required to ask for a change of direction in the way education is seen. Stating, traditional learning does not apply anymore. People are lifelong learners, change agents, knowledge spreaders, and in order to do that, the education sector needs to rethink the way of teaching, at least in higher education. The use of a problem-based approach (PBL) in the curricula, has been suggested to enhance the learners' abilities in terms of skills, practical knowledge and willingness to work in team to solve problems or create solutions. They will then recognise the importance of sharing, rather than accumulate knowledge from textbooks. Once individuals are taught in a stimulating, real-life scenario, that actually requires for them to develop cognitive skills through teamwork, it seems a foregone conclusion that their attitude will positively reflect on the organisational environment. At that point, organisations will just need to switch their policies and/or views in HR management. According to our perspective, the ultimate step in gaining strategic and competitive advantages resides in hiring people that truly share the organisational vision, rather than in accordance with their grades and formal achievement.

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APPENDIX

Note 1: Dewey, J. and Bentley, A.F. (1949). *Knowing and the Known*. Boston, MA: The Beacon Press.
Note 2: According to Davenport and Prusak (1998), knowledge cannot be newly created. They discuss about knowledge generation, that consists of knowledge acquired by the organisation or develop within it, meaning that there is no creation of knowledge, just knowledge new to the company.
Note 3: Learning by doing, as collective learning process within the organisation, is seen as the process that constitutes tacit knowledge, according to Hamel and Prahalad (1994). Others agree with this position (Badaracco, 1991; Reed & de Filippi, 1990; Dierickx & Cool, 1989).
Note 4: According to Teece (1988), learning is usually a process of trial, feedback, and evaluation.
Note 5: Sternberg et al. propose the use of the critical incident interview approach in order to gain tacit knowledge through employees' examples of good and poor performance in a specific area of the organisation.
Note 6: To understand better how learning can be seen as a process that enhances tasks' performance though repetition and experimentation, and fosters the identification of new opportunities, see Levitt and March (1988).
Note 7: Reber postulates that implicit knowledge occurs when the individual is not conscious of acquiring knowledge, nor he/she is aware of what has being learned.
Note 8: In 1941, Myers and Briggs applied Jung's theory to develop a simple tool able to recognise people's basic behavioural attitudes. The test, used frequently in the past decades in work places, gives indications on the individual's personality based on the combination of four letters, derived from preferences on four related dimensions (Extraversion versus Introversion, Sensing versus iNtuitive, Thinking or Feeling, Judging or Perceiving). Although is still impossible to answer the question "what type makes the best leader", considering data shows leaders are of all types, the test is still useful to promote self-awareness, point out strengths and weaknesses, and taking into account the impact of people's behavior on others. For more references, see http://www.myersbriggs.org/my-mbti-personality-type/mbti-basics/ [Accessed September 2, 2018].
Note 9: Johannessen, J., Olaisen, J., & Olsen B. (2001). Mismanagement of Tacit Knowledge: The importance of tacit knowledge, the danger of

information technology, and what about it. *International Journal of Information Management*, 21, 1, 24-46.

Note 10: Covey and Associates (2004) argue that a true vision equals to a shared reality, where people individually feel a compelling urge to leave a legacy.

Note 11: For more references, please see http://www.leadershipiq.com/blogs/leadershipiq/35354241-why-new-hires-fail-emotional-intelligence-vs-skills [Accessed August 16, 2018].

Chapter 7
Emotions in Change Management

ABSTRACT

In this chapter, the authors focus on emotion during a time of organisational change. While we read everywhere about disruptive change, transformational management, and similar topics, it is still not clear how organisations should go about such changes in their business models, processes, and procedures. The explore emotion management during transitions in the workplace, thus identifying general stages individuals go through, while offering practical tips to deal with them. Because different emotions can arise during a period of change, the authors introduce to the dynamics of power within the organisation, and how these can influence the success of change initiatives. In particular, they mention the hygge philosophy and the Theory U movement as practical examples of change management processes.

INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, a very popular word in the business context is change. You can find it everywhere, alone or in other contexts, for example in discourses related to disruptive change, or applied to digital transformation. Why is that? It might appear that one of the most difficult challenges an organisation faces today, is the ability to adapt in a very fast changing world. Concepts we are all used to, such as competitive advantage, have switched direction towards the organisational change management framework.

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Now, change might seem scary, or may be easy, or then again even unnecessary. The approach to it varies in relation to the organisation and context, its culture, and also the people that make up the workplace. It is not so difficult to think that personalities, attitudes, modes and feelings of employees, from top to bottom, can facilitate or impede change. This is probably why McKinsey and Company reported that approximately 70% of organisational change initiatives fail (Maurer, 2010a, 2010b; McKinsey Global Survey). Hence, we are all unsure how to make organisational change management rules and practices good enough to be successful. In this Chapter, we will try to tackle the issue of emotions in the workplace during change, using what we have learnt in the previous chapters.

EMOTION FOR ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

"It isn't the changes that do you in, it's the transitions", says William Bridges, author of several books on transitions and their psychological nature (Bridges, 1980, p. 3). What does that mean exactly, and how can it help our approach to emotion in change management? It is important for everyone in the workplace to understand that changes consist of two separate, very distinct moments. First of all, we have change, which is an event, that can be for example, a death, birth, merger, reorganisation, a new job, or downsizing. Then, there is the human response to change, which is not an event, it is a process. As we hinted before, human reactions to change vary and may include excitement, heightened emotions such as anxiety, fear and anger, as well as psychological trauma and confusion. If you think of the popular saying, according to which people do not change in real life, you might be more inclined to believe that even within the organisation, people do not typically change their attitudes, beliefs, feelings and allegiances overnight; this, whenever it happens, it happens gradually (Bridges, 1991).

Change management provides you with all the tools to overcome difficult situations with employees, processes and organisational culture. Which factors can influence a positive result in change activities? According to some researchers, "implications for successful change management depend as much on the management of the transition period as its strategic formulation" (Clarke, Hope-Hailey & Kelliher, 2007, p. 92). So, we should take into account what we aim to achieve with our changes, and in particular how we manage people's expectations during the transition between the before and the after we envision. Thus, for successful change management, emotions associated with

organisational life are fundamental once again. What is it the best approach to emotions then? During times of change, emotions must be emphasised rather that the "overly rational portrayal of both change management and managerial activity" (Clarke, Hope-Hailey, & Kelliher, 2007, p. 92).

Managers have to make sure employees are facilitated for, accompanied throughout the before, and after, in order for the change to be effective. This is why several researchers have studied cognitions and emotions of at least two levels of leaders, these being executives and directors. Their emotional perspectives during the change initiatives are very important to understand in terms of the impact on the change process and outcomes (Klarner, Todnem, & Diefenbach, 2011), possibly because the more the change is accepted at the top level, the easier seems to be embraced in all the other organisational levels. However, in spite of what you might think, significant literature exists on the level of the employees who are actually implementing the changes, while it does appear there is little literature that deals with the emotions of the leaders of organisations during the change efforts. This might be linked with the way change management is considered. In particular, academics, management and organisational practitioners have hypothesised that organisational transitions follow a series of predictable patterns or stages, which, if understood, could enable leaders to more effectively and efficiently manage organisational change. It is all related to best practices, it appears, and that also explains the striking similarities in the change models presented in the past half century. However, as we have highlighted before, to be successful, change management needs to embrace also the feelings and emotions, the so called human side, within those best practices, which are nothing more than a series of linear and logical processes and activities (Clarke, Hope-Hailey, & Kelliher, 2007).

Now that we have discussed what change management should look like, it might be beneficial to get a better understanding of how practitioners and researchers define it.

Starting from an historical perspective, Lewin (1951) described the process of change as occurring in three stages, which can be summarised in *Unfreezing*, *Moving*, and *Refreezing*. These three stages represented a sequential process, as you can imagine, which help organisations to undo, rearrange and finally reconstitute existing systems. What is it that initiate the state of unfreezing, then? Lewin's model describes this spark as an individual's cognitive and emotional response to change. Initially, individuals are required to recognise that the old system or "state" is somehow history and reduce their attachment to doing things in a familiar way. This Unfreezing Stage challenges the status quo with different and possibly discomforting information. In the Moving

Stage, new ideas, structures and systems are created, tested, and installed to replace those that existed previously. In the Refreezing Stage, new systems are accepted, refined, and operated to produce results. However, Lewis does not provide us with a clear definition of what to look out for to decide when a system can be considered history, nor how to recognise the right new ideas, and when the new system is better then the old one.

Similarly to Lewin's change model, Bridges (1980) developed a three-stage transition model, which includes the following stages, these being *Letting Go*, the *Neutral Zone*, and *New Beginning*. During the Letting Go, the individual recognises an ending and acknowledges the experience of loss. The Neutral Zone is described as a "no man's land" that exists between the old and new realities, which by default incorporate a broad category of negative emotions, linked to resistance, and the more positive emotions associated with exploration and new possibilities.

Now, it might be interesting to see if there are differences in the change process whether an individual has a role of leader or not. Thinking of the definition of leader, it appears that people which promote change - in this sense, leaders of change - are those that have assessed that the old systems are not good enough, that they are better off as history of the organisation. They might have already thought about new ideas, how to improve them, what changes are needed. On the other hand, people that did not think about change, whether because they did not feel like a change was needed, or because they think they are not in the position to discuss organisational changes, well these people had not the same time to understand the changes, to come to terms with them. So it is imperative that leaders of change, whoever they are, do not forget that through the planning process they have already experienced their own denial and resistance and thus are ahead of the followers in the transition curve.

Another interesting change model is the one presented by Musselwhite and Ingram (2003), who introduced a four stage model which include the following steps: 1) Acknowledging, 2) Reacting, 3) Investigating, and finally 4) Implementing. Within each stage, individuals have to remember that skills and requirements for effective leadership change as people progress through the stages of transition.

In the first stage, known as Acknowledging, varying situations arise which make it that cause individuals to have shock for the change itself, and feel threatened, whether it happens at a personal or organisational level. Possibly, the most common reaction would be for people to deny that a change has happened at all or needs to happen at all. They will try to act as before, but the

reality of things will make productivity low, because employees will appear slower in their thinking, distracted, and forgetful. This is a very confusing stage, during which people will try to find an unconscious balance between what has been their reality for so long, and their fighting for what is new.

The second stage, Reacting, sees a sort of conscious reaction to what has been experienced in the first stage. This means individuals will try to bargain with superiors, colleagues in general and themselves as, to keep doing things as they did it before. Behind this behaviour, there is the belief that, if change can be left out, then everything will go back to normal. While people will express various reactions, among which we can count for example anger, depression, and withdrawal, individuals will naturally recycle back to Stage 1 when their emotions are denied or ignored. Once the fact that a change is occurring, whether or not they want it, they will be able to progress to Stage 3.

During this Stage, that we call Investigating, people are still not one hundred percent bought on the idea of change, however over a feeling of grief and sadness, they begin to explore the possibility of future options. Bear in mind that individuals at this stage are still confused, and their exploring and their investigation, is conducted with reservation. In terms of emotions involved, you need to keep in mind that these may still vary from positive ones - this might be, for example, excitement for the future - to negative ones, such as anxiety over the unknown brought upon by changes.

Finally, individuals reach the final Stage, which consists of implementing, moving from what they knew to what they are creating now. So what was called before change, now becomes the normality, the way things are done in the organisation. People appear ready to establish new routines, adapt to new systems, and help others learn new ways.

Practical Implications

To acknowledge change, people need information. Reacting to change, people need support, emotions should be acknowledged, accepted and respected.

Several emotions take place in the workplace, depending on the different types of relationship among employees. Leaders, especially in a situation of change, should look out for signs of such relationships, in order to tackle their objectives in a strategic way.

For example, gratitude, intended here as the glue of cooperative social living among non-kin (Emmons & McCullough, 2003), works as a prosocial behaviour, which means we are more incline to allocate our own time and

resources to colleagues that have previously helped us out (see Bartlett & DeSteno, 2006; DeSteno, Bartlett, Baumann, Williams & Dickens, 2010). In a reverse perspective, gratitude promotes friendship, which means in turn that leaders can interpret expressions of gratitude with closeness among employees (see Algoe, Haidt & Gable, 2008).

Another interesting aspect of emotion in the workplace is linked to the so called emotional mimicry, a situation where we feel more close to people that share our attitudes, behaviours and beliefs. This is based on the scientific fact that people constantly imitate each other (see Hatfield, Cacioppo & Rapson, 1994), whether in their facial expression, tone of voice, postural movements, and even in emotions (Provine, 1992).

During a phase of organisational change, hierarchy and groups play an important role in the emotional process of employees. It might seems easy to understand how power can influence emotion. Bertrand Russell summarised this concept in 1938, when he affirmed that "The laws of social dynamics are laws which can only be stated in terms of power" (see Russell, 1938, p. 10). In more recent years, the concept of emotion politics arose to describe the processes by which people experience, express, and conceptualise emotion in such ways that define their own status and that of others (see Shields, 2005).

If you think for a moment at what happens in an organisation, you might agree on the circumstance that people who are in a low-rank position are more exposed to threats of different kinds, which translates in them being anxious and alert of what others do (see, for example, Keltner, Gruenfeld & Anderson, 2003). On the other hand, it appears that employees with a higher hierarchical position benefit from more resources, freedom and independence, which by association help them experience greater positive emotion in different situations (Hecht & LaFrance, 1998).

What kind of emotion can be inserted in the definition of emotion politics? Research has demonstrated that anger is a high-power emotion, in the sense that whoever shows it gains a higher status in groups (Knutson, 1996). Such perspective is linked to the general belief that higher-status people tend to respond with anger (see Tiedens, 2000; Tiedens, Ellsworth & Mesquita, 2000), or that leaders who get angry rather than displaying other emotions should have more power (Tiedens, 2001).

Other power-related emotions are pride (see Williams and DeSteno, 2009), which is shown by higher-status people, and its counterpart, embarrassment (Ketelaar, 2005). In the context of groups, which should be looked at in terms of networks of cooperation. The risk is that employees who are part of a group will tend to maximise and exaggerate the differences between the

group itself and the other employees (Sherif & Sherif, 1953). This happens because individuals tend to mimic their friends' emotion and behaviours, which amplify similarities and closeness between members of the same group, that can generate in contrast anger and resentment towards the outsiders.

We have discussed Emotional Intelligence and its approach to leadership principally in Chapter 4. A less common perspective in looking at emotions in the workplace, encounters the importance of a feeling of injustice among coworkers (note 1). In particular, recent studies are focusing on how people perceive such a sense of injustice, which can be either interactional, distributive, procedural or systemic (see, for example, note 2).

Among these lines of enquiry, interactional injustice seems to be the most common one, since it describes a sense of injustice arisen in an employee in relation to a mistreatment within the workplace relationship between themselves and one or two other authority figures to whom they report. In such context, our employee is involved in an asymmetrical hierarchical position with their supervisors, and because of that there is an inequality of power in the relationship. In a study conducted by Fineman (2000) and in line with the positions of Harlos and Pinder (1999), there are eight behavioural dimensions of interactional injustice, which in turn represent eight classical behaviours shown by bosses. The first one is intimidation, through the use of physical, verbal and/or emotional means with the aim to instil fear to better control employees. In relation to the first dimension, we have the so called degradation, or habit to publicly shame, or humiliate an employee using a disrespectful or hurtful way of communication. Criticism done only with the intent to hurt, is again another behavioural dimension that instils a sense of injustice in the workplace. The fourth dimension is the so called abandonment, which relates to statically avoiding employees' social, emotional, physical or cognitive needs. Think for example of a superior who seems apathetic about your requests. Or you might encounter someone who, all of a sudden, changes standards for individual performance, or the way things should be done in the office without telling anyone, or failing to do it in a clear and comprehensible way, so in the end nobody knows changes have been made and how to implement them in the work routine, which can be described as inconsistency. Other studied behaviours are related to the need to closely monitor and direct employees, leaving them with scarce freedom or none at all (this being the case for surveillance); or creating an environment where employees are discouraged or restricted in showing physical and/or emotional availability, which causes in return no contact whatsoever between individuals. Lastly, it might also happen that people in a position of power

decide to toy with employees' skills and emotions, in order to manipulate them into achieving a personal result.

We have previously mentioned what is called systemic injustice (Sheppard, Lewicki & Minton, 1992), which can be defined as "perceptions of unfairness involving the larger organizational context within which work relationships are enacted (that is, interactional), and where allocation decisions are made (that is, distributive) and/or implemented (that is, procedural)" (Fineman, 2000, p. 259).

But what are the emotions related to such dysfunctional behaviours that allow the rise of a sense of injustice in the workplace? It might be easy to understand that situations like intimidation and degradation can be triggered by anger, which is felt by supervisors for several reasons. Because of that, managers and supervisors can have outbursts which are usually unpredictable, and in a certain way intense, which in turn tend to recreate feelings of fear, hurt, confusing and shame in their employees. Then again, such emotions call for a reaction from the employees, that usually mirror those of their supervisors', meaning anger, rage, desire for revenge, shame, dread and guilt - sometimes, in the longer term, these feelings transform in cynicism and a lingering feeling of hopelessness, or worse yet, in a mental breakdown.

Modern Approaches to Change Management and Emotion

In our modern economy, we have recognised the importance of aesthetics or using an aesthetic point of view in organisational studies. The use of space and physical resources at Google, for example, is a clear indication of such perspective, which tends to highlight the need to enhance sensual perceptions to influence behaviour (note 3). An important field of research started to form, to try respond to questions about the impact of organisational structures on employees in a variety of contexts (note 4).

In particular, Mehrabian and Russell (1974) act as forerunner, proposing a three-dimensional view of emotion - these being pleasantness, arousal and power - which can map emotional responses to any external environment (Babin & Darden, 1995; Takahashi, 1995).

The organisational physical space can be then used to arouse specific emotions in clients, as a way to present an organisational image. We might want to think, for example of a new trendy restaurant, whose design has been chosen to attract a particular clientele and enhance the selling of food from the first moment people step in the restaurant (Cherylnick, 1991; Nasar, 1987).

Extensive studies have been conducted in relation to establishing the value behind a monomorphic design, which is consistent and clearly recognisable, or an eclectic one (Pederson, 1986).

In this perspective, it is worth taking a few words on a relatively new concept that entered the organisational context recently. You might have heard before of Hygge, which according to Meik Wiking (2016, p. 6) is "about an atmosphere and an experience, rather than about things. It is about being with the people that we love. A feeling of home. A feeling that we are safe, that we are shielded from the world and allow ourselves to let our guard down.". So what is this hygge stuff then? It is about recreating a piece of paradise wherever we are, whether with candles and lamps, or with particular recipes. A piece of chocolate, casual clothes, a cup of tea, a book, pillows everywhere that can remind you of home. It is, in the end, about feeling happy and content with what you have, feel secure, be in contact with yourself. Now, try to think about hygge in the organisational context. Could it be considered a source of change? Would reorganising the office according to employees' personal definition of hygge be worth the time and money? Big companies like Google, or architectural masterpieces like the Piano and Violin shaped buildings in the district of Shannan in Huainan City, China, as designed by Hefei University of Technology (note 5), can be an example of the hygge concept. Adding a more homely feeling to the place people work at, change the organisation in several ways. From the organisational culture, which is more employee-centred, to talent retainment, which in turn enhances productivity, a more relaxed and casual approach to how companies should feel and look like, can be a big structural change. Initiatives like the casual Fridays, or weekly assemblies to celebrate individual success (note 6), can make the difference in emotional management of employees.

Research on hygge is still very young and scarce. In the future research agenda, it might be worth it to explore the potentialities of hygge and similar concepts in an organisational context, both in a physical context - such as how to reorganise the physical space in the workplace, adapting also Foucault's theories, and in a leadership perspective, where things like emotions from the personal sphere can influence how employees feel, could suggest better ways to manage people emotions in the organisation.

Another interesting view in organisational change is offered by Otto Scharmer and his Theory U (Flowers, Scharmer, Jaworski & Senge, 2005; Scharmer, 2018; Scharmer & Kaufer, 2013; Scharmer & Senge, 2016), as developed by the MIT. It might be beneficial to start with Scharmer's words themselves, according to which he developed "*Theory U as a social field*

theory that not only looks at the what and the how but that really makes visible the source dimension that we're operating from as individuals, as teams, as organizations, as larger systems, and the impact it has depending on which source we're operating from." (from Scharmer's "Leading Change in Time of Disruption" lab). Furthermore, Scharmer points out the importance of "differentiating between three inner places or three capacities that we need to cultivate as change makers, innovators, and leaders. The first one is the open mind, by which we mean the capacity to suspend our old habits of judgment, basically, to see with fresh eyes. The second one is the open heart, by which we mean the capacity to empathize to redirect our attention, to look at a problem not just from ones own angle, but also from the angle of the other stakeholders that are involved in the situation. Then number three, to cultivate the open will, which is essentially the capacity to let go and let come, let go of the old and let come of the emerging new possibilities. These two insights basically summarize the two foundation stones of the U theory and the U process. So it's a process on the one hand. But it's this inner cultivation, work related to the opening of the mind, the opening of the heart, and the opening of the will, on the other hand, that in our view really makes all the difference." While trying to answer the question on how to transform what he just said in something practical, Scharmer came up with Theory U, which "really is these two things. It's on the one hand a framework, on the other hand, it's a method which is a set of tools and practices that actually allows you to move from one state of the social field that's operating, say, in a very reactive way, to another state of the social field that's more generative and more co-creative.". In other words, Theory U sets out to help us better understand how social actions come to be, and how to quickly react and change in order to adapt to the future.

How can we do that? Apparently through a shift in consciousness from ego-system to eco-system awareness, which not only looks at our collective - hence, social capabilities, it also succumbs to what Scharmer calls the blind spot. This would be the inner place, or source from which leaders do what they do. This need for a better leadership is at the base of Theory U, which consists of five steps. The first one, also known as "*co-initiating*", involves the individual taking the time to better understand the world around them, and listening to others. Then follows the second step, or "*co-sensing*", which needs us to observe, observe and then again observe, with our mind and heart open. At the bottom of our U, we are required to let go of our old self and embrace our future self, the best we can be. This is step three, "*presencing*".

At this moment, our old self and our future best self connect together and resonate with one another to enter a deeper source of knowing, where we do realise what we do not need anymore. Once you have worked on yourself, letting your future best self prevail, than you are open to new possibilities ("*co-creating*"), which arise when trying new practices, behaviours and similar. The last step, or "*co-evolving*", implies that your personal journey influences the way you look at the social environment you live in, and lead the change in an eco-system approach rather than only in yourself.

To summarise, then "By moving through the "U" process we learn to connect to our essential self in the realm of presencing - a term coined by Scharmer that combines the present with sensing. Here we are able to see our own blind spot and pay attention in a way that allows us to experience the opening of our minds, our hearts, and our wills. This wholistic opening constitutes a shift in awareness that allows us to learn from the future as it emerges, and to realize that future in the world.".

What are the characteristics of change leaders, that follow the Theory U? First of all, they know how to listen, and observe things and people around them. They present at the same time an open mind, an open heart, and an open will, to sense the community, the social around them. They have the capability to do presencing, meaning they can tap their inner self at different levels. Then, change leaders, when in a group, should be able to attract other individuals, opportunities and resources because they can create an energy field to make things happen. Finally, they are masters at prototyping these new ideas and changes, working through resistance of thought, emotion and will. Once they have conquered this, they should be capable of reuniting the individual with the community. In the organisation, this means that a change maker, the leader is capable to reunite the right sets of people to lead together the transformation, through co-sensing and co-creating in the whole organisation.

Some Conclusion on Emotional Labour in a Situation of Change

We had the opportunity to discuss what emotional labour is, when mentioning for example Hochschild (1983). In particular, emotional labour is defined as the act of conforming, or attempting to, to display rules or affective requirements which require a specific range of on demand emotions on the job (Bulan, Erickson & Wharton, 1997).

Studies have concentrated on specific types of worker, such as service agents, who are required by the nature of their job itself to display a greater amount of emotions. An interesting perspective taken in such studies relates to the emotional dissonance which happens between what the employee really feels, and what he is paid to show (Abraham, 1998; Ashford & Humphrey, 1993; Hochschild, 1983; Morgan & Averill, 1992; Morris & Feldman, 1996; Wharton, 1999). Companies such as Disney and McDonald's, have invested a huge amount of time and resources in order to train employees in manufacturing authenticity, on the premise that customers are able to discern when they interact with an employee that really feels the emotions he is being prescribed to display (Erickson & Wharton, 1997). Fineman (1996), for example, argues that there are two different levels of authenticity, related to the feeling service agents have that they are both being themselves and a good actor. Following Hochschild's observations (1979, 1983), these levels are what we can call surface authenticity, which is concerned with behaviour in a given service encounter, and deep authenticity, which is related to identity. Surface and deep authenticity are conceptually independent, however in reality are correlated in a way where deep authenticity seems to foster surface authenticity.

From a different perspective (note 7), researchers have studied the so called emotional ambivalence phenomenon, which can be defined as the association - within a specific relationship - of both negative and positive feelings against a person, an object or a symbol. In relation to change management and how to deal with emotions in times of organisational change, it seems important to stress that highly ambivalent people might constitute a problem if the final goal is to enable and facilitate close relationships (Horney, 1945; Merton & Barber, 1976). Think for example of our idea that organisations should hire employees who are a good fit within the organisational culture. In this sense, this attitude of ambivalence in organisation might be highlighted by the tension between the employee's individuation and the need to conform to organisational rules (Kristoff, 1996; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Pratt, 1998). Ashford and Mael (1998) argue that "with regard to organisations, the ascendance of normative control - with its internalised claims on thought and feeling - makes it particularly difficult to differentiate self from system. The resulting tension gives rise to a sense of ambivalence toward the organization - of being simultaneously attracted and repulsed." (Ashford & Mael, 1998, p. 95).

According to the psychologists who have investigated ambivalence (Freud, 1950; Merton, 1976), there are at least two sources of it, meaning individual differences or attitudes (Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters & Wall, 1978; Hazan &

Shaver, 1987; King & Emmons, 1990; Thompson & Zanna, 1995; see note 8), and structural or environmental conditions. In response to such sources of ambivalence, individuals can have four responses. The first one will be a positive one towards the source of ambivalence (Brickman, 1987; Pratt, 1998; Weigert & Franks, 1989); the second one, in contrast, is to accentuate the negative aspects of the relationship, without feeling the need to leave it (Martinko & Zellars, 1998; Neuman & Baron, 1998). In a sort of in-between response, the third option relates to the individual's need to detach themselves from the relationship, creating emotional distance between them and the source of ambivalence through isolation. Lastly, some individuals could alternate between the positive and negative aspects of their relationships, avoiding or encouraging contacts with them. A fifth solution, as pointed out by Weight and Franks (Weigert & Franks, 1989), is that of a paralysis, when an individual does not think positively nor negatively about a relationship, nor they are able to decide a course of action against it - whether to approach or avoid it.

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APPENDIX

Note 1: Among others, you should have a look at

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Note 5: See https://unusualplaces.org/piano-house/ [Accessed August 23, 2018].

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Chapter 8
Organisational Culture and Strategic Marketing:
Are These Influenced by an Emotion-Based Approach?

ABSTRACT

In this chapter, the authors introduce the concept of emotion in marketing initiatives. In particular, they look at the way consumers react to emotions that arise from marketing campaigns and advertising. In this perspective, classic theories of consumer's emotional response are presented, and the reasons behind what we buy and why are analysed. Furthermore, they argue that marketers play with emotion to sell a specific product or need, while we, as individuals, tend to buy more stuff when we are not happy as a way to make us feel better. The authors also discuss the appeal certain brands have, whether because they represent a status symbol or we are genuinely more affectionate towards them for the experience they provide us. Lastly, the authors present some findings related to emotions after the buying process.

INTRODUCTION

We have already discussed about the importance of emotion in a variety of contexts, from knowledge management to organisational studies. What about marketing? Marketers use people's motivation and needs to create products and services that help the consumer, reducing the tension a specific

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need creates. There is a motif behind the way people, as consumers behave, whether their need is hedonic, in terms of experiential needs, or utilitarian, when the desired goal is somewhat practical or functional. Is this motivation always known? Studies have demonstrated that in certain circumstances, people can be deceived into behaving differently without them even realising it. This is for example the case of people eating more ice cream when using a colourful and indulgent ice cream scoop, in comparison to a plain one (Fitzsimmons, Chartrand & Fitzsimmons, 2008; Nenkov & Scott, 2014). According to Mogilner, Aaker, and Kamvar (2012), consumers want to be happy, and marketers are increasingly trying to appeal to the consumers pursuit of happiness. However, several studies reveal that what happiness means varies, and consumers' choices reflect those differences. In this Chapter, we will try to respond to questions on consumer's emotional response, while introducing several perspectives on emotion in relation to marketing and consumer behaviour topics.

As stated above, people feel a need for something which is aroused in some way and they want to satisfy. From a biological perspective, the drive theory explains how to reduce such tension between what is needed and the actual possession, which has as an end goal the so called homeostasis, or the return to a balance state. We can think for example of a time when we were sad, and buying a new pair of shoes, or the latest Michael Kors bag made us feel better. Retail therapy is indeed real, and studies have demonstrated it is used by individuals in restoring a sense of personal control over a shaky environment (Rick, Pereira & Burson, 2014). Of course, if a particular behaviour seems to work well in reducing the tension, we naturally repeat it.

Rather than focusing on what motivates us, the expectancy theory suggests that we choose a specific brand object or brand in relation to how many positive consequences it can have for us. So for example, if we are again out to buy a computer, we might opt for an Apple product rather than a Microsoft one, if we consider as important factors, social status, design and value of the purchase in the longer term. Or, according to recent research, we might be inclined towards specific needs because of our need of use time constructively, in a sort of productivity-oriented perspective, we might want to do or buy unusual things in a bid to use our time constructively. This can be a way to explain why there are customers for ice hotels, bacon ice cream, or grasshoppers' frittata (Keinan & Kivetz, 2011).

Because we live in a world full of possibilities, consumers are presented with a great variety of choices, whether between the same category of products or between different alternatives. People tend to appreciate order

and consistency in their life, so they will try to avoid alternatives which are in contrast between them, at least according to the theory of cognitive dissonance. For example, you need to buy a case for your new phone. You will probably go on the internet, look for alternatives, check out what your friends and colleagues bought before you. However, you are still unsure about whether a portfolio case would be better for you, or a shell-shock model. You will probably obsess over reviews, photos, and comments, before making a purchase. If your choice is not so clear e.g., you still have doubt about the best solution, you might need to convince yourself that what you have reluctantly bought was the smartest choice, so you rationalise the choice to avoid feeling a sense of dissonance as an aftermath.

CONSUMER'S NEEDS

Psychologist Henry Murray presented a list of 20 psychogenic needs - such as defence against criticism, or play, which has been conveyed in the Thematic Apperception Test (also known as TAT), considering that people will freely project what they need at a subconscious level onto a neutral stimulus, represented in the test by 6 ambiguous pictures. According to Murray's findings, while everyone has the same basic set of needs, at individual level priorities differ (Costa & McCrae, 1988; Hall & Lindzey, 1970; McNeal & McDaniel, 1984). In particular, in relation to consumer behaviour, we have that a high need for achievement is linked to products that show individuals value more strongly personal accomplishment (McClelland, 1955). The need for affiliation, when it comes to groups, determine for example where to go for a drink, the kind of sports or activities to subscribe to, or the brand of clothes to wear (Schachter, 1959). Or for people who are looking to satisfy their need for power, over their own environment. There might be a great deal of interest in cars, or luxury resorts where they can feel to be dotted on (Fodor & Smith, 1982). Lastly, some people look to appease their need for uniqueness, and they choose expensive products that can be custom made (Snyder & Fromkin, 1980).

Another way to look at consumer's needs, is the so-called Hierarchy of Needs as illustrated by Maslow. This model is based on the concept that each individual needs to satisfy first their basic needs before moving on the pyramid.

Abram Maslow and his '*hierarchy of needs'* five-stage model may provide a scientific explanation to these questions. Firstly appearing as *A Theory of Human Motivation* in the Psychological Review (Maslow, 1943, 1970), the

model took into account five levels, the first four also known as deficiency needs (*D-needs)* while the top one as growth or being needs (*B-needs*).

Maslow theorised a motivational hierarchy of human needs, where the lower ones need to be satisfied in order to progress to the next stages. It is a motivational theory because, when not met, basic and psychological needs tend to motivate us to achieve them. And each person can actually meet these needs.

In 1970, Maslow expanded the model to include cognitive and aesthetic needs, and later transcendence needs.

It appears that creativity at an individual level is strictly connected to personality, and personality traits. In psychology, trait theory is an approach to the study of human personality, that is interested in the measurement of traits. Traits, that differ from states, are defined as habitual patterns of behaviour, thought, and emotion. In this perspective, they are more stable and reliable in time.

What are those personality traits common to creative people, then? Here is a list of general characteristics that highly creative people may have, as adapted from the scale for Renzulli and Hartman's *Rating Behavioral Characteristics of Superior Students* (see for example, Renzulli, Smith, White & Westberg, 2013):

1. They genuinely value intellectual and cognitive matters;
2. Their own independence and autonomy are considered very important;
3. They can express ideas well, meaning they are verbally fluent;
4. They are aesthetically reactive, and/or enjoy aesthetic in things;
5. They get things done, meaning they are productive;
6. They are concerned with philosophical problems (e.g., religion, values);
7. They have high aspiration for themselves, and in this sense they are competitive;
8. They show a wide range of interests;
9. They can make unusual connections to unrelated ideas or things, and they process thoughts in uncommon ways (we can say they think out of the box);
10. They generally are interesting persons with good social skills;
11. They look straightforward, forthright and candid in dealings with others;
12. They behave ethically in every situation, and they present consistent personal standards;
13. They may seem to present altogether logical and illogical characteristics, in a well balanced mixture.

Galang et al. (2016) promoted an interesting alternative theory that links creativity and creative people to psychopaths. In their *Investigating the prosocial psychopath model of the creative personality: Evidence from traits and psychophysiology* (Galang, Castelo, Santos III, Perlas & Angeles, 2016), the researchers argue that, after testing volunteers for creativity and psychopathic traits, three statements appear truthful. First of all, creativity was associated with emotional disinhibition; secondarily, meanness and risk taking are directly linked to creativity, while lastly, prosocial psychopaths seem to be the most creative individuals.

It may be true, or it may be not. This depends on the individual itself, and their social/emotional experiences in life. However, it is undeniable that Renzulli and Hartman's characteristics of creativity are in line with Maslow's characteristics of self-actualisers. Among others, Maslow highlighted that self-actualised people could show certain traits, such as they:

1. Tend to perceive reality efficiently and can tolerate uncertainty
2. Are more incline to accept themselves and others for what they are
3. Tend to be problem-centred, rather than self-centred
4. Are concerned with philosophical questions
5. Have fewer satisfying relationships with key people
6. Have strong moral and ethical standards.

These characteristics, according to Maslow, can be achieved through specific behaviours and/or attitudes, such as trying new things instead of sticking to safe paths; listening to your own feelings to evaluate experiences instead of what the majority say, regardless of the risk of becoming unpopular.

The Role of Emotion in Consumer Behaviour

The role of the consumption experience has recently been looked at as a fundamental, yet rather neglected topic of interest in consumer research (see, for example, Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982). In particular, we might want to stress that traditional studies on consumption are based on the distinction between instrumental and congenial consumer behaviour. Aiderson (1957) was among those who recognised that individuals can opt for a congenial consumer behaviour, which is pursued for its own sake, when such behaviour tends to be performed for the subjective, emotional benefits it provides. In other words, congenial behaviours, also known in more recent years as hedonic experiences - live off subjective benefits with an emotional overtone. Such

emotional hints are also behind the choices between an alternative rather than another, when both of them present the same benefits and serve the same purpose. It might be easier to understand through an example. If we need a new cell phone, we have a choice of hundreds. If we need one with long battery life, that is small and possibly a smartphone, our choices are narrowed down, not that much, though. They all allow us to make phone calls, read the news, send emails and be social. So how to choose? At this point, emotions related to a specific colour, or brand, or shape, can come in handy to help picking one over the dozens we have in front of us.

Will emotions always take place? According to Holbrook (1986), the response is a definite yes. Even though nowadays it seems a foregone conclusion, almost in all consuming experiences, there are emotional aspects that come to play, whether small or big, and regardless of the ultimate aim of these consumption experiences. For example, Holbrook, Lehmann, and O'Shaughnessy (1986) tend to see them terms of utilitarian/hedonic, tangible/intangible, or objective/subjective components.

Although we had the opportunity to discuss the role of the individual's needs in consumer behaviour theory, we might start recognising the importance of emotion, and in general terms affect, which link our decision to buy a specific product which creates in us an emotional reaction.

Marketeers can play with emotion to sell a specific product or need, even using negative feelings to try convincing people they need exactly what they are selling. Some marketing campaigns play with sad emotions in a way that might seem disturbing, because to be honest, who wants to think about sad and depressing stuff? However, researchers have found out that there is a positive correlation between the use of inspirational stories, which touch a different variety of emotions, in marketing campaigns, and the consumer's response to them. This practice is known as advertising (Fera, 2015). Although people who design marketing campaigns try their best to appeal to a great variety of individuals, they are also well aware of the effects of mood congruency, which suggests our judgement can differ according to our moods. For example, when we are less happy than usual, we tend to engage in material accumulation, which means we are more keen to buy more stuff than what we need, even if this over accumulation will make us unhappier in the end (Dunn, Aknin & Norton, 2008; Mogilner, 2011; Mogilner, Kamvar & Anker, 2011; Richtel, 2015; Van Boven & Gilovich, 2003).

Other feelings and emotions that are usually targeted in marketing can be envy, intended here as our desire to reduce the gap between ourselves and someone we believe superior at some level, which in turn might motivate us for example in buying a more expensive product if we think the receiver of the gift deserves it, or switch brand to set them apart from the others (Van de Ven, Zeeienberg & Pieters, 2011). Guilt is an interesting motivator, used in particular when the goal is to convince people to give to charities, for example (Baumeister, Stillwell & Heatherton, 1994); as well as embarrassment, which should be intended as the emotion behind our concern for what others think of us. A clever example of how we try to avoid embarrassment can be seen in the way we buy our clothes and accessories, to match what the other individuals in our group wear (Lau-Gesk & Drolet, 2008).

We have already pointed out how the role of emotion in advertising has received increased attention during the years (for an historical review, see Holbrook and O'Shaughnessy, 1984). In particular, researchers have focused on how individuals respond to emotional stimuli in advertising, either in relation to the general attitude toward the advert itself (for example, see Gardner, 1985) or considering the different emotional responses across adverts (for example, Batra & Ray, 1986).

Furthermore, psychologists have tried to organise the topic of emotions in marketing following two major approaches (for an historical review, see Holbrook, 1986). The first approach tends to look at emotions in terms of continuous underlying dimensions that distinguish among emotional states. In these terms, we can mention the three dimensions of Mehrabian and Russell's (1974; see also Mehrabian, 1980) PAD paradigm (see also Donovan & Rossiter, 1982; Holbrook et al. 1984 - note 1), which uses the dimensions of pleasure, arousal (note 2) and dominance to demonstrate that emotions should be seen as a continuous dimension. Thus, the second approach views all emotions as stemming from a relatively small number of basic emotional categories. In particular, researchers in this field take into account the eight basic emotional categories, seen as primary reactions based on evolutionary processes, as proposed by Plutchik (1980; see also, Holbrook & Westwood, 1985). We already know that researchers in the field of emotion have presented more than eight basic emotions (for example, Darwin, 1872; Izard, 1977; Tomkins, 1962, 1963), however the Plutchik framework seemed to be preferred because consumer researchers have successfully used it in the past.

MARKETING TECHNIQUES: A VERY BRIEF INTRODUCTION

Marketing and consumer behaviour techniques make extensive use of the so called sentiment analysis technique, which refers to the process, also known as opinion mining, that collect and analyse the words used in social media to describe a specific product or brand. Surely, Facebook and its "Advertising Marketing Experiments", which pride themselves in being "the first Internet-based research lab to conduct experiments in optimising sales and marketing", are well known to the world. These experiments have also demonstrated there is such a thing as brand loyalty, which happens in a repeat purchasing behaviour that shows a conscious decision to buy from the same brand (Jacoby & Chestnut, 1978), in particular for cult brands (e.g., Apple, Star Wars and Lego), for which individuals are willing to be faithful and pay more because of the personal connection with the company (Gadzick, 2012). Of course, in contrast with said behaviour, there are individuals that belong to the variety-seeking type, which means they are open to find new alternatives to those more familiar to them, to a point where they can also switch brands over the years.

To enhance consumer's involvement with the product and the brand, marketeers use several techniques (MacInnis, Moorman & Jaworski, 1991; Stewart & Furse, 1984), such as including celebrities to endorse the product they are trying to sell; creating meaningful movements or silence in the commercials, or using loud music and fast action, with the intent to capture attention; or encouraging individuals to think about the product, so they are more likely to want it (Elder & Krishna, 2012).

Another way to attract customers can be situational involvement, when the emphasis is not on the commercials per se, but rather on the store, web site or pop up experiences which are tailor-made to the customers' expectations around a specific product or brand. We all know, for example, what kind of experience we will get when we plan to visit an Apple Store to try out the new iPhone or MacBook - whether we are in London, New York or Moscow. The same applies, for example, to the Nespresso chain, when a new machine or coffee blend can be tried out with the hope that the experience is so good we think of purchasing the product.

What Happens Next: Emotions After the Buying

Now that we have discussed what happens emotionally before the buying, it might be worth it to explore what kind of emotions the buying creates. From a marketing point of view, such emotional response is as important as those we tried to evoke to instil the need to buy a specific product or experience. In this context, we will need to look at the literature that tries to identify factors that predict such post consumption behaviours. Although such behaviours can be mostly seen as consequences of how customers rate their satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Anderson & Fornell, 1994; Yi, 1989), research in the field also includes, for example, switching brands or loyalty, complaint behaviours, and negative and positive word-of-mouth communications (see for example, Athnassopoulos, Gounaris, & Stathakopoulos, 2001; Caruana, 2002; Day & Ash, 1978; Gronhaug & Zaltman, 1977; Gustafsson, Johnson, & Ross, 2005; Yi & La, 2004 - note 3).

All of the post-purchase behaviours we have mentioned above can produce either positive or negative emotions (see note 4). But what is the relationship between such behaviours and what we know as customer satisfaction, or dissatisfaction? According to research, customer satisfaction, and, in contrast, dissatisfaction, can be influenced by several factors. First of all, we should mention, according to Krishnan and Valle (1979), specific attributions of customer satisfaction or dissatisfaction, in the sense that we react differently if we think a bad purchase was our fault, or if we feel it was the manufacturer's fault. We can also count industry characteristics; the product importance (Blodgett, Wakefield & Barnes, 1995), and consumer sophistication (see among others, Gelb & Johnson, 1995; Gronhaug & Zaltman, 1977). Other relevant factors are related to the individual's attitude towards complaining (Blodgett, Wakefield, & Barnes, 1995; Keng, Richmond & Han, 1995; Stephens & Guinner, 1998), with factors to take into account such as the perceived probability of successful complaining (among others, see Andreasen, 1985; Blodgett, Wakefield, & Barnes 1995; Gelb & Johnson, 1995; Singh & Wilkes, 1996).

We have seen how researchers were able to demonstrate, through several perspectives, that different emotions are capable of directly determine different types of behaviours. In particular, Nyer (1997) explains this statement affirming that such emotions are elicited by different appraisals, some of those about the variables mentioned earlier. This should be true, according to Nyer (1997; as well as Bougie, Pieters, & Zeelenberg, 2003), when he demonstrates that

specific emotions, such as joy, anger and satisfaction, are directly influenced by consumers' expectations of attribute performance, product importance, and potential to cope - here intended as perceived probability of successful complaining.

While Nyer (1997) and Bougie et al. (2003) helped enriching the factors that can be considered relevant for addressing post-consumption behaviours, appraisals have also been considered by the cognitive approach to emotions, according to which there is a strong relationship between emotions and cognitive appraisal structures (see for example, Frijda, Kuipers, & Schure, 1989). In particular, according to Frijda (1986, 1987, 1993), emotions derive by a person's particular cognitive appraisals in a specific situation, and because of that, they cannot be defined independently of this activity. The cognitive theory goes further again, showing how emotions are triggered by circumstances with a special significance for a person's well-being, and once elicited, prepare the person to cope with emotion in an adaptive manner (see for example, Lazarus, 1991 - note 6). This happens because emotions do not derive from events per se, rather from the interpretation of events. And because of this statement, it is easy to understand why different emotions relate to different patterns of appraisal (see note 7). Better yet, we can extend such concept and because people come from common backgrounds, rules and experiences, researchers tend to assume that in specific situations, people will display similar emotions (Averill, 1982).

An interesting development of the central role of appraisals can be to investigate how the visual perspectives that people take to appraise an event, meaning whether they see themselves as actors in the situation, or rather mere observers of it, can influence the intensities of the emotions they experience. In an interesting study conducted by Iris W. Hung and Anirban Mukhopadhyay (2012), evidence seems to point out to the following conclusion. Apparently, in a situation that elicits emotions, when using an observer's perspective, the greater the attention to the self is, the greater the intensity of self-conscious emotions such as pride, guilt, and embarrassment. On the other hand, when using an actor's perspective, the greater attention to the situation we show, the greater intensity of hedonic emotions such as joy, sorrow, and excitement, we will feel.

So, at this point, we might say that post-consuming behaviour relates to the individual's appraisal of the circumstances, and in such sense a product failure or success can be attributed by the customer to the circumstances, to him or herself, or to the manufacturer/service provider. Different emotions will arise according to the result of the appraisal. If we think for a moment at what the

customer might feel when the product failure is attributed by the customer to themselves, it is highly probable that they will feel not only the emotion of sadness, but also guilt and remorse to be in such situation (Dahl, Honea, & Manchanda, 2003). In a more simplified way, in case external circumstances produce positive outcomes, the consumer experiences happiness.

CONCLUSION

We have seen in this Chapter, how emotions have an impact on consumption, while introducing concepts on what, for example, affect decision making in the buying process, and the motivations consumers might have to react to a specific advert campaign, and as a consequence, to buy a specific product.

If our consumer tends to act more like an actor rather than an observer in this process, we might say that they are more inclined to link intense hedonic emotions (such as excitement or sadness) to their experience, when they think about it. Why is that? Researchers have noticed that their approach is more focused on the situation they are about to live, while in case the same customer adopts for an observer perspective, their attention will be automatically drawn more to themselves, and this will link their experience to a different type of emotions, such as pride, embarrassment, or guilt.

At this point, someone could argue that we forgot to discuss a very interesting emotion in consumer behaviour, meaning the feeling of loneliness, which is generally linked to a need of materialism. It might not be new the concept that, if you are lonely, or bored, you might be more inclined to engage in buying activities, in accumulating possessions, which as a consequence will enhance your isolation and loneliness, because you will be more interested in buying stuff rather than in cultivating social relationships. In such perspective, it appears that materialism, if such thing really exists, has no cure at all, because what we described is non than a downward spiral of endless loneliness and attachment to material objects (note 8).

However, a different branch of research is more focused on better understanding emotions that derive from the individual's interest in what is going to happen in the now, or present, rather than the future (Mogilner, Aaker, & Kamvar, 2012). Hence, although according to a materialistic approach consumers may seem to all want to be happy while making purchases which should enhance their overall level of happiness, Mogilner, Aaker, and Kamvar (2012) argue that the meaning of happiness is different for each of us, and in a certain sense malleable. Thus, consumers - and their emotions - can be

driven by their personal temporal focus. What does that mean exactly? As we have seen in this Chapter, it all relates to the way we look at the consumer's goal. So if we are more focused in gaining happiness in the present, we will be more inclined to interpret happiness as a sense of calm and peaceful contentment in that moment. On the other end, if we are more interested in a future happiness, we will more likely see happiness as something that is exciting and not yet discovered, unknown.

In this context, and in line with Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs we saw earlier, consumers tend to reach for a positive emotion. Thus, if they are already in a positive mood, they will mirror their consumption experience to what they are feeling, which in turn means, if they feel excited, they will probably tend to choose exciting products, while they will opt for relaxing ones, if they feel predominantly calm. Alternatively, consumers that are feeling some negative emotion, will try to overthrow the general need for congruence between what you feel and what you look to purchase, which will end with consumers browsing for something that will make them feel better (Di Muro & Murray, 2012).

To summarise, we can say that emotions in consumer behaviour and marketing are fundamental and regulate not only how we think about products, and generally, the consumer experience. They also influence what happens to the individual after the purchase. Research in the topic is vast, however our society changes fast, and with it the way we think about the consumer experience. More can be said and discovered about, for example, consumer's expectations of impulsive purchases, or on the emotional response to a certain customer experience.

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APPENDIX

Note 1: Among others, see

- Donovan, R. J., & Rossiter, J. R. (1982). Store Atmosphere: An Environmental Psychology Approach. *Journal of Retailing*, 58 (Spring), 34-57.
- Holbrook, M. B., Chestnut, R. W., Oliva, T. A., & Greenleaf, E. A. (1984). Play as a Consumption Experience: The Roles of Emotions, Performance, and Personality in the Enjoyment of Games. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 11 (September), 728-739.
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Note 2: We have mentioned that consumers are also motivated to manage their level of arousal. How does that affect what we buy, and feel? Targeting our sensation of arousal, marketeers know that they will systematically be able to affect consumers' product preferences, in a way that might seem obvious. It has been proved that consumers in a pleasant mood will tend to choose products that are congruent with their current level of arousal, while those in an unpleasant mood will tend to choose products that are incongruent with their current level of arousal. In such perspective, the ultimate goal is to find happiness, or another positive emotion.
See, for example, Di Muro, F., & Murray, K. B. (2012). An Arousal Regulation Explanation of Mood Effects on Consumer Choice. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 39, 574–84.
Note 3: Literature in post consumption behaviour is very vast. Among others, we could consider the following readings.

- Andreasen, A. R. (1985). Consumer responses to dissatisfaction in loose monopolies. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 12, 135–141.
- Athnassopoulos, A., Gounaris S., & Stathakopoulos, V. (2001). Behavioural responses to customer satisfaction: An empirical study. *European Journal of Marketing*, 35, 687–707.
- Caruana, A. (2002). Service loyalty: The effects of service quality and the mediating role of customer satisfaction. *European Journal of Marketing*, 36, 811–829.

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- Krishnan, S., & Valle, V. A. (1979). Dissatisfaction attributions and consumer complaint behavior. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 6, 445–449.
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- Singh, J. (1990). Voice, exit, and negative word-of-mouth behaviors: An investigation across three service categories. *Journal of Academy of Marketing Science*, 18, 1–15.
- Stephens, N., & Gwinner, K. P. (1998). Why don't some people complain? A cognitive-emotive process model of consumer complaint behavior. *Journal of Academy of Marketing Science*, 26, 172–189.
- Yi, Y., & La, S. (2004). What influences the relationship between customer satisfaction and repurchase intention? Investigating the effect of adjusted expectation and customer loyalty. *Psychology & Marketing*, 21, 351–373.

Note 4: Among negative emotions, research have considered nostalgia and its role in consumer behaviour. Why nostalgia? First of all, we should start defining it as "a bittersweet, sentimental longing for a personally experienced and valued past", which has an impact on prosocial behaviours (Zhou et al.). In this perspective, nostalgia becomes relevant because of its social component, which in turn helps focusing on fundamental close relationships. This means that individuals who feel nostalgia will try to find a way to boost their social bonds, hence enhancing their social closeness to other people, and at the same time favouring the feeling of empathy toward others who are experiencing distress. Because of that, individuals with a strong feeling of nostalgia tend to live in the past, to which they look at from a present that they do not live

fully, more preoccupied about what could have been than what it is and it will be. Such feeling can definitely influence consumer behaviour, and generally the individual's attitude towards adverts.

Note 5: See:

- Andreasen, A. R. (1985). Consumer responses to dissatisfaction in loose monopolies. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 12, 135–141.
- Singh, J. (1990). Voice, exit, and negative word-of-mouth behaviors: An investigation across three service categories. *Journal of Academy of Marketing Science*, 18, 1–15.
- Stephens, N., & Gwinner, K. P. (1998). Why don't some people complain? A cognitive-emotive process model of consumer complaint behavior. *Journal of Academy of Marketing Science*, 26, 172–189.

Note 6: Lazarus, R. S. (1991). *Emotions and adaptation*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

In particular, Lazarus introduces the concept of goal congruence - or incongruence, which "refers to the extent to which a transaction is consistent or inconsistent with what the person wants—that is, it either thwarts or facilitates personal goals" (Lazarus, 1991, p. 150). Later on, this concept has been developed by others, such as MacInnis and de Mello (2005), who state that the goal-congruency dimension "reflects the extent to which the environment is or is not conducive to goal fulfillment." (p. 2).

In this perspective of goal congruence, we can feel happiness in three specific categories of positive situations. These are, of course, what we feel because we have achieved the goal, or the positive emotional response we can have while reaching said goal, and finally an unanticipated good fortune or pleasant happening (Graham, 1989). Think for example at the promotion we are looking to achieve in the workplace. We will be happy when either we got promoted, or we have been told by senior management that we are on track to get promoted soon; or the individual in that position has unexpectedly resigned, and the job is up for grabs way earlier than what we thought. Can these circumstances be only internal to the individual? Of course not. Individuals will consider the possible outcomes, also while consuming is involved, according to three areas: as we saw earlier, the self; other persons, and finally, impersonal circumstances - also known as agency (Roseman, 1991; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985) and causal locus (Weiner, 1985).

More information can be obtaining through the following readings.

- MacInnis, D. J., & de Mello, G. E. (2005). The concept of hope and its relevance to product evaluation and choice. *Journal of Marketing*, 69, 1–14.
- Roseman, I. J. (1991). Appraisal determinants of discrete emotions. *Cognition and Emotion*, 5, 161–200.
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- Smith, C. A., & Ellsworth, P. C. (1985). Patterns of cognitive appraisals in emotion. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 48, 813–838.
- Weiner, B. (1985).An attributional theory of achievement motivation and emotion. *Psychological Review*, 92, 548–573.
- Weiner, B., & Graham, S. (1989). Understanding the motivational role of affect: Lifespan research from an attributional perspective. *Cognition and Emotion*, 3, 401–419.

Note 7: In this respect, an interesting statement is the following one: "if an individual conceptualizes a situation in a certain kind of way, then the potential for a particular type of emotion exists" (Ortony, Clore, & Collins, 1988, p. 2). See Ortony, A., Clore, G. L., & Collins, A. (1988). *The cognitive structure of emotions.* Cambridge, MA: Cambridge University Press.

Note 8: In the context of loneliness and its consequences in relation to materialism, Pieters deepens what we know. In particular, the Author differentiates between three subtypes of materialism, which are the acquisition centrality, the possession-defined success, and finally the acquisition as the pursuit of happiness. Acquisition centrality can be found in those possessions that seek to respond to a hedonic pleasure. A more common form of materialism is the possession-defined success, where we collect things which can show our status symbol. A good example of this might be our preference in buying a Rolex watch, or a Mercedes-Benz car, which not only work well as a watch or a car, they also show to the world we are successful individuals. If we are very conscious of the planet, the, we will tend to buy a Tesla or another powerful hybrid vehicle, which will combine our personal beliefs with the image we want to project to others. Finally, we mentioned the acquisition as the pursuit of happiness, which is linked to our search for happiness, and a specific object can be seen as a mean towards such goal.

To avoid that materialism, or some behaviour really similar to it, can influence profoundly our life style, we might want to think about improving our social relationships - or lack thereof - which in turn should decrease our need for materialism. It would not make much sense to concentrate our efforts in impeding ourselves not to buy stuff, or we will find ourselves frustrated and still without a strong pull to work on building social relationships.
See, among others, Pieters, R. (2013). Bidirectional Dynamics of Materialism and Loneliness: Not Just a Vicious Cycle. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 40(4), 615-631.

Chapter 9
The Future of Emotions in the Workplace:
The Role of Artificial Intelligence in Modern Personnel Management

ABSTRACT

In this chapter, the topic of artificial intelligence in the organisation will be presented. First of all, the authors start looking at the state of art in AI, one of the hot topics of the last decades. After discussing the practical uses of artificial intelligence in the organisation, they introduce the concept of emotional artificial intelligence that is linked to the ability of a machine to interpret human behaviour and adapt their responses accordingly. Artificial intelligence also offers interesting solutions for emotion analytics to support decision making, and to predict individuals' behaviour, whether in marketing or personnel management, among others. However, all this potential has an ethical dark side, linked to privacy issues, the loss of jobs to machines, or other threats to humanity caused by improper use of technology. While exploring more about machine learning, the authors reflect on some of the modern questions we face.

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INTRODUCTION

Nowadays there is a great deal of interest around artificial intelligence and the ethical dilemmas that this field poses (note 1). We are now in the economic phase also known as Industry 4.0 (note 2), where it is all about smartness, intelligence in machines, and mobility in devices.

In this sense, we can identify several potential threats to society posed by AI and related technology. Some positions against AI worth of mentioning are those of Elon Musk, who tweeted in August 2014 "Worth reading Superintelligence by Bostrom. We need to be super careful with AI. Potentially more dangerous than nukes". Or the position of Professor Stephen Hawking, who affirmed in the same year (2014) that "the development of full artificial intelligence could spell the end of the human race [...]. It would take off on its own, and re-design itself at an ever increasing rate. Humans, who are limited by slow biological evolution, couldn't compete and would be superseded".

Some of the threats are either unlikely to happen, or differ little from threats posed by "unintelligent" technologies. However, there is one threat in particular worthy of further consideration: that ultra-intelligent machines might lead to a future that is very different from the present we know and understand. Lately, the debate around whether or not artificial intelligence might steal the majority of our jobs is featured everywhere. In this perspective, a future where ultra intelligent machines exist and work well, may not be as pleasant for us humans as we may hope for, and at that point we may not have a choice.

Artificial Intelligence: The State of Art

As expected, we should start from a definition of Artificial Intelligence, to have a better understanding of what the buzz is all about. Authors and practitioners alike have proposed interesting considerations about AI and its characteristics. For example, Poole and Mackworth (2017) affirm that AI is "the synthesis and analysis of computational agents that act intelligently", while Russell and Norvig (2009) define it as "the study and design of intelligent agents, where an intelligent agent is a system that perceives its environment and takes actions that maximise its chances of success". Ideally, we can mention four general definitions of artificial intelligence, that differentiate themselves between systems that think or act rationally or like humans. In particular, AI systems that act rationally - meaning they are supposed to perceive and act

as rational agent - are also known as "ideal rational agents", where given any percept sequence and built-in knowledge, they should take whatever action to maximise its performance measure.

Historically, a machine with intelligent behaviour is one that shows the ability to achieve human-level performance in all cognitive tasks, and being able to fool an investigator. According to Alan Turing, a computer capable to perform a certain bare minimum set of operations can also be programmed to do anything that any computer can do if given enough time and memory. Such computer is also known as a Turing-Universal computer. In 1950, using these concepts, Turing proposed the so called Turing Test, which enlists four capabilities necessary to be considered an intelligent machine. Firstly, it needs enough natural language programming to successfully communicate in English, and knowledge representation to store information provided before or during the test. Such stored information, then, need to be used to answer questions and draw conclusions through automated reasoning. Finally, there is a need for machine learning, which consists of creating a relatively simple neural network with no knowledge of the physical world or its contents, to have it then exposed to massive amounts of data, which in turn will help it to adapt to new circumstances and find patterns.

Not many AI researchers have tried to pass the Turing Test, and research have concentrated mostly in deep learning and neural networks, intended as a group of interconnected neurons that can influence each other's behaviours, while linked through synapses. In this perspective, machines with artificial intelligence are built around artificial neural networks, where each neuron is turn on when stimulated by its neighbouring ones and updates its state regularly, as an average of inputs from connected neurons and the weighted synaptic strengths. With this regard, we can cite Donal Hebb (1949) and his Hebbian learning, according to whom two nearby neurons which are frequently active at the same time, have their synapses strengthened causing to trigger each other.

A good example of successful machine learning can be seen in Google DeepMind, which consisted in an intelligent machine which mastered dozens of Atari-like games better than any human kid. At first, the AI played really badly and didn't understand the sense of the games, or what a ball or brick was. Through the use of deep reinforcement learning, the researchers involved in the project applied the concept of reward to help the machine master the games. The AI understood that the more it played in a certain way, the more points it made, and in the end it surpassed humans. Deep learning is, then, a type of machine learning which allows its systems to improve with

experience and an enormous amount of data. In other words, it is the ability of a computer to build complex concepts out of simpler ones.

Artificial Intelligence in Organisation

Whether the definition we want to use, the implications of AI in our life are extensive.

An interesting perspective to better understand what is machine learning, is to look at the predictive algorithms that have been built since now, and make a computer an intelligent machine. As an example, Data Iku offers an intuitive graphic that sums up the top predictive algorithms in AI (https://blog.dataiku.com/machine-learning-explained-algorithms-are-your-friend).

AI has an impact on organisations from several perspectives, which range from power shifts and reassignment of decision making responsibilities at the top level, to departmental-levelled innovations to reduce costs, enhance services and improve personnel conditions. The role of management is crucial at this stage, and in order to facilitate AI implementation, leaders in each department are required to either act as a champion for AI systems in their area, or at least provide resources for its implementation.

According to a research survey from MetLife (2018), fifty six percent of employers seem to show a positive approach to automation technology (as artificial intelligence), analytics and robotics. Twenty percent of the employers interviewed are, on the other end, pessimistic towards AI and its impact on the workplace. The same survey also interviewed employees, of which forty-nine percent took a positive stance about artificial intelligence, while twenty-four of them did think of AI in a negative light.

IBM's "Extending expertise: How cognition computing is transforming HR and the employee experience" survey (2017) tried to capture the feelings of CEOs around the globe in such matter. Sixty-six percent of the CEOs interviewed (where the population is six thousands), believe that cognitive computing can drive significant value in HR. Among those, another interesting fifty-four percent of HR executives confirm that cognitive computing will have an impact on key roles in the HR organisation.

In contrast to this data, the Human Resources Professional Association (HRPA) discovered (2017) that fifty-two percent of its interviewed were unlikely to adopt artificial intelligent systems in their HR departments in the following five years, where thirty-six percent of them ascribed this to

the fact their organisation is too small, while a twenty-eight percent reported that their senior leaders did not see the need for AI.

In 2017, companies around the world spent roughly $22 billions on AI-related mergers and acquisitions, a number that shows a growth of at least more than twenty-six times of what was spent in 2015. Such investments are supported by the forecasted economic value increase of $2.7 trillion that AI applications in marketing, sales and supply chains are predicted to generate in the next twenty years.

So which one is it? According to Ajay Khanna, vice president of marketing at Reltio, most companies are not ready yet for any serious level of cognitive computing (see MTA Feature Desk Editorials, 2018). However, what Khanna highlights, is that the major challenge organisations face right now is to choose the right data to use to improve business processes and customers experiences. Once this problem is tackled, we will be able to move towards the so called self-learning organisations.

So how is AI being used in the workplace? First of all, Artificial Intelligence is part of the organisation through automation, which consists of creating a hardware or other mechanical means (for example, a robot) to do tasks that are highly repetitive or labour intensive. This happens in particular in manufacturing, however successful examples of automation can be seen also in other industry sectors, such as supply chains. Automation brings more efficiency and productivity in the company processes, while helping the access to data and ease the interaction between what data is available, how it can be applied and, more importantly, how it should be applied to help the business grow.

Another interesting use of AI in the workplace, is the one more directly connected to people. Now, AI is already helping customer service teams to create a high-quality customer experience, for example through the use of chatbots. A more unusual use can be seen in the so called relationship bots, which are bots programmed virtually to predict things like the success of a human relationship, or the level of commitment of an employee, and in general terms, other group dynamics in the workplace that, as for now, we can only understand from personal experience. In this perspective, artificial intelligence is strictly linked to our concept of emotional intelligence and the fundamental role of emotion in the workplace, for different reasons, such as finding the right fit for your company.

In the HR sector, AI can be effectively integrated in different aspects. First of all, through the use of personalised employee experiences, which consist of customer-centred information collected in apps or similar, that will

help new employees to expedite their assignments and build relations with their new colleagues. Again, research in AI concentrates on moods at work, team training aspects, hiring processes, and automation of repetitive, low-value add tasks - which, in HR situations, could be for example, allocating an office space to a promoted employee, or requesting a laptop. Finally, a psychological tool known as Implicit Association Test (or IAT for short - note 3), has discovered a language bias that can affect the hiring process. In such perspective, AI should be able to eliminate unconscious biases like the one mentioned above.

Then again, Artificial Intelligence improves marketing in relation to precious collectible information - in terms of people's identity, history, activities, beliefs and so on - which are captured through provided, observed, derived or inferred data. The Internet is a great place to gather such data, through social networks and customer feedback. As an example, in an experiment conducted by MIT Media Lab in 2014, intelligent machines performed better than a sales and marketing team in choosing potential mobile internet users. In particular, data showed that 98% of machine-selected customers renewed their mobile contracts, versus only the 37% of those selected by the individuals. Looking at conversion rates, machines scored 13 times better than humans, which also meant that intelligent machines are capable to choose better in general and also better customers than people.

Lastly, artificial intelligence is wildly connected to the concept of digital transformation. What is digital transformation, then? We can describe it as the profound transformation of the organisation, its processes, business models, competencies and activities, through the integration of digital technology into all areas of the business itself. Digital transformation, then, changes organisational strategy, the way of operating, and more importantly, the way to deliver value to customers. It is an experience, where personalisation, at scale, is key to success. It may be easier to understand, at this point, that during a digital transformation, each department is responsible to think and strategise the role that AI plays in the new digital experience. We also should remember that, although there is a growing interest in artificial intelligence and what it can do, it is only an enabler in building a digital workplace, not the solution. According to a very recent survey from Unisys (2018), technology workers are frustrated because technology is not used in the workplace as much as it should. In this sense, we can say that before moving on to a digital transformation, an organisation should reach the point of being a digital workplace, which is a concept more concerned with mobile working from any device, everywhere in the world, rather than anything else. "Any digital

workplace should stimulate productive working and collaboration with easy sharing, conferencing, chat functions and other digital tools", affirms Walter Van Uytven, CEO of Awingu (see also Awingu post, 2016). So, digital transformation and AI are not interchangeable concepts. Before moving to a digital transformation of processes and customer experiences, the first step will be to use AI tools to transform the workplace in a digital workplace, where collaboration and sharing of knowledge, data and information is widely and efficiently used. Only then, the organisation can move on using other AI tools to create a digital strategy which has internal processes and customers as core keys to upgrade and personalise their experiences with the organisation itself.

Emotion and Artificial Intelligence

According to Minsky (1986), "the question is not whether intelligent machines can have any emotions, but whether machines can be intelligent without any emotions".

We have seen in the previous Chapters how well developed is the concept of emotional intelligence. Leadership researchers (Goleman, 1996, 1998; Matthews, Zeidner, & Roberts, 2007; Mayer & Salovey, 1993), together with other researchers in neuroscience and psychology (Barlow, COsmides & Toby, 1992; Damasio, 1994, 2001; Damasio, Grabowski, Bechara, Damasio, Ponto, Parvizi & Hichwa, 2000; Frijda, 1993; Gratch & Maresella, 2004; Ledoux, 1996; Nesse, 1994; Plutchick, 1980) and motivational speakers, imply to a certain extent that people do not come to life with an already turned on emotional intelligence switch. Yes, individuals can learn how to develop it, however data demonstrates that people do not show emotional intelligence most of the times.

This is particularly useful when starting to consider artificial intelligence, and the opportunity for bots to replicate humans. If we consider humans essentially as a collection of biological algorithms shaped by millions of years of evolution (Harari, 2015), and all intelligence as a substrate-independent (Tegmark, 2017), then we might agree on the circumstance that computers will eventually be better at manipulating human emotions than people.

This concept is the essence behind the so called emotional artificial intelligence - also known as affective computing, which makes it so that machines interpret the emotional state of humans and adapt, in a certain way, their behaviour to give socially appropriate responses to those very same

emotions. A curious example of such an emotional AI machine can be found in the movie "Solo: A Star Wars Story" (2018), where Lando Calrissian's droid L3-37 shows to the world what a bot powered with emotional AI can be.

To sum up, we can say that emotionally competent individuals are those who have mastered emotions in two major domains, those being emotion production and emotion perception (Scherer, 2007). Emotion production can be defined as "the appropriateness of the total pattern of bodily and behavioral changes as an adaptive response to a relevant event, allowing the organism to successfully cope with its consequences" (Banziger, Grandjean & Scherer, 2009, p. 691), while emotion perception consists in the ability to understand and perceive the emotional state of others.

We have anticipated that AI tools can already be used to predict specific human characteristics, however in the next future they will be able to use our face to recognise more personal information, such as sexual orientation, political learning or even IQ. How is that even possible? According to Rana el Kaliouby, co-founder and CEO at Affectiva, "there's research showing that if you are smiling and waving or shrugging your shoulders, that's 55% of the value of what you're saying - and then another 38% is in your tone of voice. Only 7% is in the actual choice of words you are saying, so if you think about it like that, in the existing sentiment analysis market which looks at keywords and works out which specific words are being used on Twitter, you're only capturing 7% of how humans communicate emotion, and the rest is basically lost in cyberspace". What are the practical implications of this data? We need to concentrate more on multimodal emotion recognition, which is a new approach that looks into the emotion recognition from facial, voice, and generally other physiological signals, and treats all of this variables as independent (Sebe, Cohen & Huang, 2004, 2005).

Thus, in the future, emotional AI will make sure that businesses use emotion analytics to make decisions, including the use of tools that arise from the multimodal emotion recognition (see note 4) and emotion chips. In particular, these new tools will need to take into account the capacity of individuals to recognise emotions from facial and vocal expressions (Ekman, 1972; Ekman & Rosenberg, 2005; Scherer, Johnstone, & Klasmeyer, 2003), which have been used to support the concept of an universality of affect expression programs (Ekman, 1992). Thus, the rise of affective computing is linked to the intention of including emotions in machines processes control, or tackling an 'artificial emotion' in machines, to improve machines' decision-making competence, action selection, behaviour control and autonomous and trustworthy system response.

At the moment, our reality in emotional AI research is populated by two companies. The first one, which is known as Affective (see note 5), started off as a spin off of MIT's Media Lab. It offers several products to companies, researchers and other interested parts, which work through the use of webcams to track facial emotions, while separately measuring a person's heart rate without the need to use a sensor - through the use of colour changes in the person's face. Hence, Affectiva proposes a cloud-based solution which uses both facial coding and emotion recognition software to capture consumer's emotional responses to digital content. This approach is widely recognised by other practitioners, entrepreneurs and computer scientists. In fact, according to Shervin Khodabandeh, from Boston Consulting Group, "facial and vocal analyzers could provide essential mood information for companies, helping to further optimise business decisions. One example where emotion recognition can benefit companies is in customer service".

On the other end, Realeyes (note 6), originated from the University of Oxford, uses webcams, computer vision and machine learning to measure how people feel about video content online.

One of the biggest concerns here is, of course, an ethical one. "Privacy is a very big issue, because emotions are obviously very personal data and you can easily see how it could be abused to manipulate people - for example voters", agrees Rana el Kaliouby. This is even more true if we consider that companies all over the world are already making use of AI solutions offered, for example, by Veriato (see note 7). The company makes softwares that can log virtually everything that has been done on a computer, whether this might be web browsing, email trails, chat, document writing, app use or either keystrokes. While accessing specific computers, period screenshots of their activities are taken, and data related to date and time of when such activities occurred is analysed. This package of information is then stored into Veriato's own server, so that an AI system can see if concerns arise, such as individuals who are not as productive as they should, malicious activity or an employee is about to leave the company. Other companies, such as Entelo and Workday, can predict when employees are having trouble keeping their performance at the top, and suggest ways to managers to retain the top talent.

Artificial Intelligence in Human Resource Management

"Automation in HR is more prevalent than ever before with companies all over the world embracing the rise of new technology trends to better the workplace

environment", say Keith Fenner, Vice President at SAGE Enterprise Africa and Middle East.

AI solutions are bound to disrupt the HR sector even more than what we have seen so far. Practitioners have clearly stated that the benefits AI can bring to such sector are related to a reduction of low value and redundant administrative tasks, as well as improvements in effective hiring processes, while reducing human biases and enhancing retention and internal mobility. Organisations are tempted to use AI for key tasks like team training, or accessing employee data from anywhere (e.g., performance, job history, and so on). So, if there are so many benefits, why the rise of AI in HR is still so slow? Several factors come to play, such as financial barriers due to the high costs to purchase and maintain such tools, as well as difficulties in finding skilled people to use this technology, and general concerns over privacy, which we will be discussing later on.

Furthermore, HR professionals will be required to update their skills in order to be familiar with organisational network analysis and digital leadership models, using their digital technology expertise to choose the best AI solutions to harness employees' potential and engage a diverse workforce through personalised and easy to use platforms.

There are already several examples of effective AI tools applied to human resource management, in particular chatbots. The company InFeedo offers Amber (see www.amber.infeedo.com), a chatbot that is used to connect employees and monitor their happiness at key points in their employment life. Furthermore, through the use of NPL and sentiment analysis, Qlearsite (www.qlearsite.com) gets responsive feedback from employees and support companies in making improvements, such as dealing with absenteeism at Telecoms. In a similar way, Sidekick (www.sidekick-hq.com) works as a messaging platform built with algorithms able to monitor micro variations in employee behaviours.

Other interesting uses of AI tools in HR contexts can be concentrated around helping employees to connect with the organisation, as in the case of Ava and Artie from Zeal (www.zeal.technology). Companies can feed Artie with all the relevant information employees might need, from policies to benefits, and it will respond any questions they might have. On the other hand, Ava engages employees around company culture and level of engagement. Similarly, FirstJob's chatbot Mya can eliminate up to 75% of questions candidates might have during the recruitment process, while Unitive (www.amkor.com) has developed an AI tool capable to write job descriptions based

on actual discussions between team members about the job, rather than using standard phrases, to reduce unconscious bias.

Those who do not believe in the good of technology, affirm that the rise of AI will cause several issues that will have a severe negative impact on our economy. We have discussed the fear that automation will cause unemployment, however other economists have highlighted the issue that in AI-driven companies, employees will not get any salary because they have been substituted by machines, and profits will only go to the owners, causing a tremendous inequality of pay. Other risks are related to cybersecurity and the initial training time intelligent machines will need to train themselves, and during which there is a high risk of causing several types of harm.

Ethical Aspects of Artificial Intelligence

We have seen already how AI tools can have a huge impact on our everyday life, whether or not we are conscious of that. However, AI implementations have ethical and legal consequences on our society, which should be weighted carefully, and very soon, in order to prevent possible nefarious consequences of AI research.

Let's have a look at these possible threats. One of the first thought, or misconception is that people might lose their jobs to automation. In the Industry 4.0 era, the modern industrial economy we live in, everything and everyone has become dependent on computers, and in particular on selected AI programs. A common example of this dependence can be seen in the need for consumer credit, in form of credit card applications, and fraud detection. Even though we might not realise this, the above mentioned activities are carried on using AI programs. So, when experts of the Internet of Things, digital transformation, AI, automation and so on, are asked if it is true that humans will succumb to the machines, or better yet, we are losing jobs to artificial intelligence, some will respond that this might be the first impression. However, thanks to AI, new jobs are created, jobs that would not exist in first place.

Now, the issue at hand would be to understand if and when there will be the chance for humans to become unemployed, while the so called human-level artificial intelligence learns to perform any kind of job. In this sense, Nilsson (2005) called for research in this field, highlighting that the next frontier of artificial intelligence would mean for the machines to be able to pass the employment test rather than the Turing test.

As for now, there is less concern over the loss of jobs to automation, because artificial intelligence programs are still intelligent agents rather than human-level machines, thus they are still designed to assist and support people. From this perspective, some researchers agree that automation in general has created more jobs than it has eliminated, and some of them are new, more interesting, higher-paid jobs.

On the other hand, researchers from the University of Oxford presented the report "When will AI exceed human performance?" (Grace, Salvatier, Dafoe, Zhang & Evans, 2017), that clearly states it will be 120 years before all human jobs are automated. Furthermore, in 45 years time, half the jobs we know will be performed by artificial intelligence systems. In particular, in chronological order, automation will outperform humans in tasks such as translating languages, writing school essays, driving a lorry (which should have already been tested in UK), and finally working in retail. Then again, the report aimed to understand the general feeling around one of the big questions of our times, meaning whether AI would be good or bad for the human race. Surprisingly, the good outcome was rated around a 25% probability, while the idea that we were going towards a bad outcome was around a 10%.

Another fear that AI brings with it is that people might have too much (or too little) leisure time. While in certain sectors work hours have slightly reduced, people working in knowledge-intensive industries cannot say the same. When you are part of such an integrated computerised system that operates 24 hours a day, as it happens with social media, you need to work a lot more to keep up. This behaviour may be linked to the opportunity to earn more income, or to the simple fact that your organisation needs to be competitive, in the sense of being better than the other companies, and it encourages an increasing pressure on everyone to work harder. So while AI keeps innovating at an incredible pace, contributing to the overall high pressure environment, it is also true that AI can be used to substitute us when we take some time off. In this sense, Tim Ferriss (2007) recommended to use automation and outsourcing to achieve a four-hour work week.

Artificial intelligence presents other risks that may affect the whole humanity. It is not a secret that progresses in artificial intelligence and autonomous machines have been used to prototype and deploy thousands of military robots, that can kill and destroy with high precision. This is one of those cases where artificial intelligence systems might be used toward undesirable ends. Let's imagine for a moment how powerful a country might feel, knowing that it has those amount of autonomous robots at its disposal. Even setting aside ethical dilemmas around casualties and human lives, it is

easier for that country to be over confident in its military strategy. In the news everyday we have entrepreneurs such as Elon Musk from Tesla, warning the global public opinion that artificial intelligence is likely to cause World War III, and their numbers keep growing. In fact, in 2017, he was one of more than 100 signatories calling for a UN-led ban of lethal autonomous weapons.

In particular, the letter read that "Once developed, lethal autonomous weapons will permit armed conflict to be fought at a scale greater than ever, and at timescales faster than humans can comprehend. These can be weapons of terror, weapons that despots and terrorists use against innocent populations, and weapons hacked to behave in undesirable ways.".

Another example of a wrong use of artificial intelligence systems is the use of speech recognition programs, that can potentially undermine civil liberties, and transform artificial intelligence in one giant surveillance system. Thus, advanced technologies have often been used by the powerful to suppress their rivals, and with progress in automation, the situation can only get worse.

Some serious concerns are also pertinent to accountability when artificial intelligence is involved. Think for example about intelligent systems that make financial transactions within the web. What if something goes wrong? As for now, no intelligent system or machine has been granted legal status as an individual for the purposes of financial transactions. If it had, it would have been preposterous to say the least. In the past months, the theme of accountability has been discussed internationally in relations to automated cars with no driver. Are artificial intelligence systems in these new cars bound for example to legal speed limits and their sanctions? Again, at present the law has not catch up yet, meaning that nothing is specifically said with regards to artificial intelligence systems, although the majority of people seems to agree that the designer of the vehicle's control mechanism would be liable in the case of an accident.

As we have highlighted before, probably the most serious issues of all, is the one that suggests that artificial intelligence might be capable to extinguish the human race. Tons of sci-fis movies and books have tried to warn or predict a future where artificial intelligence is in control, and where everything goes bad for us humans. In particular, typical scenarios involve a bad human guy that uses artificial intelligence to harm, conquer and destroy, or even worse, artificial intelligence itself decides to take matters in its own hand against us.

Thus, where the reality stops and the fantasy starts? Within each of us, there is a sort of primordial interest in foreseeing the future and, in that perspective, we seem divided into neat categories. The one that absolutely encourages artificial intelligence and its development, and does not seem to be preoccupied

with what can go wrong. Another substantial part of us is conservative and sees lots of problematics related to ethical and moral questions, as well as our preservation. In particular, it is important to notice that within this context, a new word has been coined, trans-humanism. Trans-humanism is the active social movement that looks forward to a future in which humans are merged with, or replaced by, robotic and biotech inventions.

In this possible world where ultra intelligent machines are a reality, we might seriously think about adopting the three laws of robotics as indicated by Isaac Asimov in 1942. These three laws state that, first of all, "a robot may not injure a human being or, through inaction, allow a human being to come to harm". The second law refers to the fact that "a robot must obey orders given to it by human beings, except where such orders would conflict with the First Law". Finally, the third law states that "a robot must protect its own existence as long as such protection does not conflict with the First or Second Laws".

In a certain sense, Asimov's laws put humans as top priority for artificial intelligence systems. In line with Asimov's thoughts, Yudkowsky (2008) provides us with some interesting insights on how to design a Friendly AI. According to him, friendliness, here intended as a desire not to harm humans, should be designed in AI systems from the start, and considering that they will evolve during time, there is also a need to programme them to be capable to remain friendly also after these natural changes. In a few words, artificial intelligence should learn to check and balance its own evolving.

CONCLUSION

Artificial Intelligence, and its closest related concepts, such as automation, affective computing, IoT, Industry 4.0, digital transformation and so on, are extremely fashionable at the moment. It is not only a question of when this will become a reality, it is now more important to understand that all of these things exist in our everyday life and we can highly benefit from them. We have discussed the importance of a multidisciplinary approach to properly tackle the possible interaction between humans and machines. It is not only a matter of learning how to code adding layers of human factor, just so to speak. To enhance AI tools and improve their interaction with people, we need to take into account also emotional responses, and how people deal with them to form relationships, decisions and similar. Thus, emotion in AI is still at an early stage, but a very promising one.

Would AI really steel our jobs? Will it be the end of our world, as we know it? Nobody can predict what will happen as progress is made in technology and artificial intelligence systems. Irving Good summed up the actual debate in an interesting way: "Let an ultra intelligent machine be defined as a machine that can far surpass all the intellectual activities of any man however clever. Since the design of machines is one of these intellectual activities, an ultra-intelligent machine could design even better machines; there would then unquestionably be an 'intelligent explosion', and the intelligence of man would be left far behind. Thus the first ultra intelligent machine is the last invention that man need ever make, provided that the machine is docile enough to tell us how to keep it under control" (1965). To me, the key around AI seems linked to learning, and in particular to tacit knowledge, in the way we humans also possess knowledge which is difficult to transfer verbally or orally, and derives from personal experience. If we are building ultra intelligent machines basing our theories, systems and networks on how humans - and generally speaking, nature - work, then what we are trying to reproduce is the way people learn. Artificial neural networks are the perfect example of how AI researchers are approaching this matter, both from a biological and psychological perspective. Now, the big step artificial intelligent machines should be prepared to do revolves around their ability to learn better than a human's mind. Not faster, not binging in a huge amount of data, what AI is still missing is the ability to learn with a conscience, and make autonomous decisions based not only on rational algorithms. How can we reach such ambitious goal, it is yet to discover. However, the idea of combining technological advances in emotion with deep learning seems to be an interesting perspective to explore. We had the chance to discuss how, for example, Affectiva is able to study human emotions and behaviours applying advanced technology. What would happen then if an intelligent machine can feel emotions and judge situations accordingly? Even though some say similar questions will not be answered in the next future, AI is bound to disrupt the world with innovative solutions difficult to predict.

In this Chapter, we have also presented the key challenges, fears and perspectives that revolve around artificial intelligence and its future. In order to better understand the complexity of this topic and the inevitable consequences in our lives, research will need to convey from several disciplines to form a cohesive project for a better future.

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APPENDIX

Note 1: When trying to understand why or how AI research is advancing so rapidly in the last decades, we can say that there are at least four major forces that help propelling AI in AI research in a much faster and significant way. The first one is the element of data, where we are now able to process in less than a minute billions of information from the Web. Human inputs are, in this sense, bypassed, and research is advancing on data analytics, predictive capabilities of various machines, and process automations where data are collected to be used by computer programs to immediately make decisions. The second major force we are discussing relates to the whole paradigm of search, where search can be described as findability, discovery, predictability and collaborative search.

The third force is the circumstance that now data are open and accessible to everyone, because we are living now in the so called open movement. And, the fourth one, possibly the most famous of all, is the cloud effect, where tons of data live and are used by an equal amount of people who have connections.

Note 2: Our economic history contains four industrial revolutions. The first one took place in the early 19th century, and was driven by the invention of steam and water power. The wide application of electrical technology is what brought in the second Industrial Revolution in the late 19th century, which happened when manufacturing plants were built laying out the infrastructure and processes for the mass production of products. The third Industrial revolution appeared in the 20th century, and was the result of digitalisation, during which computational and data analysis technologies were able to ensure efficient processes and machines had a very basic form of intelligence which could support human decision making. So what is the fourth Industrial Revolution - or Industry 4.0 - about? It is about the advancement of Big Data, cloud computing, data collection and transmission devices software and increasingly connected societies, which is linked to the real-time smartness exhibited by machines. The major characteristics of Industry 4.0 can be listed in the massive personalisation of products and services; cities that are becoming more and more connected and smarter. And definitely the circumstance that the division of work between humans and machines is constantly becoming more blurred, especially in sectors such as manufacturing, transportation, healthcare, logistics and many other industries.

Note 3: The tool known as Implicit Association Test (or IAT), initially developed to explore the group-based preferences, stereotype, and identities

that may not be accessible to conscious awareness. is presented in the famous book "BlindSpot - Hidden Biases of Good People", by Mahzarin Banaji and Anthony Greenwald.
You can try to take the test at https://implicit.harvard.edu/implicit/.
Note 4: The Multimodal Emotion Recognition Test (or MERT) has been developed to assess the perception of dynamic facial, vocal, and bodily expressions in their overall context. It includes 10 actor-portrayed emotions (which are: anxiety, panic fear, happiness, elation, cold anger, hot anger, sadness, despair, disgust, and contempt). These 10 emotions can be coupled to describe two variants, in the arousal/intensity dimension, of five major emotion families (Ekman, 1994). The MERT consists of capturing emotional responses to emotions that can be seen in three film clips and presented in four modes: video only (where you can only see facial cues), audio only (for vocal cues), audio/video (which integrates facial and vocal cues), and still photographs, which are extracted from the film clips. Everyone can take the MERT test, which is free at www.affective-sciences.org/MERT.
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Note 5: Affectiva can be seen as a spin off of MIT Media Lab and one of its collaborative research projects on autism. More information on products and research methods can be found at https://www.affectiva.com.
Note 6: Realeyes is a "London-based startup that uses computer vision to read a person's emotional responses when they are watching a video as short as six seconds long, and then using predictive analytics to help map that reading to the video to provide feedback on its effectiveness" (retrieved from https://techcrunch.com/2018/05/22/realeyes-which-uses-ai-and-a-front-facing-camera-to-read-viewers-emotions-raises-16-2m/). More information on the company can be found at https://www.realeyesit.com.

Note 7: Veriato is a software company that develops and sells user behaviour analytics and employee monitoring software. More information on the products offered by the company can be found at https://www.veriato.com.

Related Readings

To continue IGI Global's long-standing tradition of advancing innovation through emerging research, please find below a compiled list of recommended IGI Global book chapters and journal articles in the areas of personnel management, human resources management, and contemporary organizations. These related readings will provide additional information and guidance to further enrich your knowledge and assist you with your own research.

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