The moderating effect of emotional intelligence on the relationship between embarrassment and emotional contagion

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Abstract

The interest in investigating embarrassment, emotional contagion and emotional intelligence in managers group is justified by the importance of management and regulation of emotions in social interactions, at work and in particular jobs. In this sense, the aim of this investigation is to compare managers and their subordinates in order to explore two points: first, verify if there are differences between these two groups on emotional contagion, embarrassment and emotional intelligence levels. Second, study if the relationship between the hierarchical level (managers and their subordinates) and emotional contagion and the relationship between the hierarchical level and embarrassment are both moderated by emotional intelligence. This study intends to improve prediction of the variables used in the Brazilian researches, so the results obtained can be more extrapolated at the same time it can support future investigations. The sample is composed of 756 Brazilian workers (277 managers and their 481 subordinates), with different professional occupation in distinct organizations. Results suggested that there is moderator effect of emotional intelligence on the relationship between hierarchical level and emotional contagion and also between hierarchical level and embarrassment. This research provided interesting results that might be extended by further research on this important role.

Keywords: Emotions, Emotional Contagion, Embarrassment, Emotional Intelligence and Organizational Context

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Introduction

Literature about the role of emotions in organizational environment has made crucial progress in the last years. It is also a topic of high interest and of debates that mobilizes organizations, society, scientists and practitioners (Fisher & Ashkanasy, 2000; Lievens, Klehe & Libbrecht, 2011). The study of the topic have begun to focus on how new organizational requirements could integrate employee management of emotions to fit to organizational rules (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995; Rafeli & Sutton, 1989) and to achieve goals and expected results (Hoschschild, 1983; Pugh, 2001; Totterdell & Holman, 2003). Furthermore, empirical reviews have claimed strong relationship between job performance and emotions management (Barsade, 2002; Goleman, 2001; Joseph, Jin, Newman & Oboyle, 2015; Keltner, 1995;) and emotions and well-being (Martins, Ramalho & Morin, 2010; Schutte & Loi, 2014). Finally, emotion is inseparable from the working setting (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995; Trevelyan, 2011).

As emotion has a strong social component, the process of emotional control can be facilitated or hindered by how others assess their feelings. The way in which individuals handle their emotions and the emotions of others will be decisive to learn new strategies of adjustment with the adoption of more adaptive ones (Barsade, 2002; Cartwright & Papas, 2008; Guillemette, 2011). According to Domalgaski (1999) individuals may be required to assume roles and be in an appropriate emotional state that is related to a particular context. Through social interaction, individuals are able to understand and learn how and what emotions should be expressed. However, it is important to salient that individuals differ considerably in the use of the strategies of emotional control, and there is evidence that individual differences have implications for affections, in the regulation of emotions, in the well-being and social relations (Gross et al., 2011). Additionally, the management and control of emotion occur in full-time and in all environments (Goleman, 2001), with the objective of encouraging the subjective well-being of the individual.

Studies tend to acknowledge that emotions play a central role in behavior, in securing successful relationships and in the cognitive processes (Bash & Fisher, 2000; Guillemette, 2011; Taylor & Hood, 2011). Authors such as Lopes, Grewal, Kadis, Gall

and Salovey (2006), indicate that the management of emotions can contribute to the success of performance at work, encourage positive relations, increase effectiveness of teams, develop social capital, emotional control, stress management and aid in the adjustment to organizational changes.

In addition, it becomes essential to study concepts such as, emotional contagion, feelings of embarrassment and emotional intelligence that gained prominence in this context, when surveys (Fox, 2000; Weiss & Brief 2001) demonstrate that psychologists and other researchers have taken huge steps in understanding the factors that are influencing people´s behavior. Damasio (1994) referred that it is erroneous to try to study any aspect of human thought or behavior without addressing the emotions. For this author, when emotions are not addressed, it is possible to produce a "Descartes´ error". Finally, but not less essential, it is crucial to consider the importance of management and regulation of emotions in social and affective interactions, mainly in work environment (Doherty, 1997; Eldeman, 1981; Gross, 1968; Gross et al., 2011; Keltner, 1995).

In view of the increasing complexity and multiplicity, this line of research aims to find and obtain results that may contribute to better understand the role of emotions in labor context. The interest in investigating specifically embarrassment, emotional contagion and emotional intelligence in managers and their subordinates is justified by the importance and recognition that these variables have to influence both: individual behavior and organizational functioning (Vijayalakshmi & Bhattacharyya, 2012).

Based on this interest, this investigation will verify if there are differences between managers and their subordinates on emotional contagion, embarrassment and emotional intelligence levels. Moreover it will study if emotional intelligence can moderates the relationship between hierarchical level (managers and their subordinates) and embarrassment and the relationship between hierarchical level and emotional contagion. It is important to salient that this work intends to improve prediction of the variables used in the Brazilian researches (Gondim et al., (2012); Gondim et al., 2014), so the results obtained can be more extrapolated at the same time it can support future investigations.

This study first presents a theoretical review of the three dimensions analyzed: emotional contagion, embarrassment and emotional intelligence and then gives an

overview of the objectives, hypotheses and methodology used in the research. In a second part, the statistics results are presented and a discussion about them is made, followed by the limitations seen in this study and the potential researches that can be made in the future related to this subject. Additionally, a section of final considerations presents a quick rescue of all the work done and discusses practical implications and contributions of this study in organizational settings.

1. Conceptual Framework

1.1 Emotional Contagion

The concept of emotional contagion is based on the influence of others' emotions on an individual. It is believed to be the precursor of social abilities like empathy (Carr, Iacoboni, Dubeau, Mazziotta, & Lenzi, 2003) that involves an ability to take the perspective of the other person through our imagination (Decety & Jackson, 2006).

The mechanism of emotional contagion is not a consensus between the various authors who study this construct. It is possible to find at least two streams of study. The first one is based on the automatic motor mimicry of expressive aspect of emotional contagion (Gallese, Keysers, & Rizzolatti, 2004; Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1994). According to this view, we mimic another individual's facial expression and this is direct motor matching between the emotion perceived by the observer and the one initiated by an individual. The second one does not view this process as only mimicry, but as a reaction to an expressed emotion of an observed individual where induction of a similar emotional reaction in the observer results in a similar expression of emotion (Johnson, 2008; Moody, McIntosh, Mann, & Weisser, 2007; Vijayalakshmi & Bhattacharyya, 2012).

The question that further arises is to understand whether perception of one's own emotional contagion is influenced by the presence of people around us. In other words, it is important to perceive how emotional contagion can contribute to the convergence of emotions between two or more social actors, fundamental to the management function by enabling more effective interactions (Barsade, 2002; Kelly & Barsade, 2002; Totterdell, Kellett-Bowman, Teuchmann, & Briner, 1998). To investigate how

each individual´s emotions, expressed in a group can spread to others (Doherty, Orimoto, Singelis, Hatfield, & Hebb, 2005; Nadler et al., 2010; Bhullar, 2012), we would look for some definitions of this concept and try to understand the impact of social presence and absence on emotional experience and expression.

One of the earliest definitions of Emotional Contagion was provided by MCDougall (1923) as "the principle of direct induction of emotion by way of primitive sympathetic response" (P.23). Hatfield et al. (1992) have defined this concept as the tendency to mimic the verbal, physiological and/or behavioral aspects of another person´s emotional experience/expression and thus to experience/express the same emotions oneself (Hatfield, Cacioppo & Rapson, 1993). In other words, Emotional contagion is the process through which a person´s emotional state is influenced by other people´s emotions. This process is especially important in group or situations where the emotional states of individuals influence the behavior of others (Barsade & Gibson, 2007; Friedman & Miller-Herringer, 1991). Hatfield and colleagues (1993) have addressed that emotional contagion is capable of influencing the interpersonal relationships, once that triggers a behavioral synchrony and a monitoring at each moment, the emotions of another, even if this fact occurs unconsciously.

Moreover, Doherty (1997) asserts that people can be considered particularly susceptible when they are able to read the emotional expressions of others, tending to imitate vocal expressions, facial and postural poses. Their emotional experience is also very influenced by observations or comments made by other people. According to this author, people tend to unconsciously "imitate" the emotional expressions of another, which produces an emotional experience that is both simultaneous and congruent with the original. Thus, individual susceptibility to a greater emotional contagion has already been studied in relation to genetics, gender, prior experiences and personality characteristics (Cacioppo & Gardner, 1999; Doherty, 1997; Mohammed & Angell, 2004). When referring to groups, Wintson and Hartsfield's (2004) study demonstrated that emotional contagion would be greater in teams that are more cohesive and when members were similar in their values.

Barsade (2002) affirms that there is greater susceptibility to emotional contagion when more attention is directed to the subject. Thus, emotional contagion refers to an emotional state entered as a direct result of the perception of the emotional state of

another person. According to Doherty (1997) the people especially susceptible to emotional contagion are: (1) people who provide a great deal of attention and are able to read the emotional expressions of others; (2) perceive themselves as interdependent and interrelated more than independent and unique; (3) tend to imitate facial expressions, vocal and postural; (4) their emotional experience is very influenced by reviews and comments made by other people.

It is important to highlight that some scales were developed to measure the susceptibility to other´s emotions as self-reported emotional contagion by Borg (1982), Scale of emotional Contagion by Hatfield, et.al.(1993) and Emotional Contagion Scale by Doherty (1997). However, only the last scale was validated by Gouveia et al. (2007) for the Brazilian context. This fact can explain the choice of the Emotional Contagion Scale by Doherty (1997) for measuring, in this study, to quantify the tendency to be influenced by other's emotional states regarding five basic emotions: love, happiness, fear, anger and sadness.

In summary, the emotional contagion is a phenomenon eminently social, derived from the ability that individuals have to synchronize their affective state with the other person, being increasingly recognized as variable able to influence individual behavior and organizational settings (Doherty, 1997; Johnson, 2008; Vijayalakshmi & Bhattacharyya, 2012).

1.2. Embarrassment

Embarrassment is one emotion that is a powerful, entirely dependent on the presence of others and pervasive force in human interaction (Verbeke & Bagozzi, 2002). It involves complex cognitive processes – such as the evaluations of one's behavior from another's perspective (Keltner and Buswell 1997) and has particular relevance only to the face-to-face service encounter.

Additionally, embarrassment is a central construct when, through their study it is possible to know aspects of social feelings (Modigliani, 1968). The embarrassment permeates many behaviors probably being important to explain the sense of obligation to the other and the feeling of belonging. It can be expressed as a form of social anxiety, resulting from the evaluation of the other in a real-life situation or imaginary one

(Schlenker & Leary, 1982). According to Parrot (1996), this construct can be seen as the result of concerns that people express about their behavior was observed and the desire to act according to the expectations of other people.

Parrott (1996) affirms that embarrassment is the most social of all the emotions as it requires the recognition of social conventions, as well as the representation of beliefs and the evaluation of others. In general, according to this author, people try to avoid this emotion whenever possible (Brown, 1970) and quickly seek to repair its damage whenever it does occur (Modigliani, 1971) because the emotional experience involves a feeling of social inadequacy or imprudence, associated with surprise. This reaction can be monitored by means of physical signs that become evident such as: nervousness, blushing or reddening of the skin and reduction of visual contact. It is important to clarify that is possible to verify stable individual differences exist in people tendency to experience the embarrassment across a variety of social situations (Miller, 1996).

After the importance of this concept was mentioned, it is necessary to highlight that there exists a relative consensus among the authors who studied embarrassment. Schlenker and Leary (1982) delimited the concept of embarrassment as an emotional state that can be evinced as a type of social anxiety and that results from the assessment of others in real or imaginary situations. This feeling incorporates a kind of psychological reaction to conflicting the standards and social demands that adjust the desire to act corresponding to the expectations of others (Singelis & Sharkey, 1995). In this sense, embarrassment can be understood as a psychological state of affective nature that occurs in situations in which is acknowledged to have violated a social norm (theory of the social assessment) (Keltner, 1995; Keltner & Anderson, 2000).

Goffman (1956) defined embarrassment as the uncomfortable state of mortification, awkwardness and chagrin that can result whenever undesired events publicly threaten one´s social identity. This author believed that primary cause of embarrassment was a person´s concern for the impression of he/she was projecting to the audience in the present time. Another point of the utmost importance is that direct effects of embarrassment may also affect the observers. The social consequences of witnessing an individual in embarrassing circumstances include a reduction in realized

interpersonal transgressions exhibited by that individual, as well as modified trust, liking and forgiveness of him/her (Miller, 1996).

It also has been noticed that adult observers could express empathy and support strategies to satisfy the target´s concerns about committing embarrassment (Metts & Cupach, 1989). Additionally, it is important to consider that embarrassment could be an emotional response that has important personal and social consequences, both for the victim of embarrassing and for those that are observing him/her (Miller, 1996).

For Keltner and Buswell (1997), embarrassing experiences are related to situations or behaviors that result from a violation of social norms, increasing the exposure of the individual. These authors affirmed that to arise the embarrassment is required the action of complex cognitive processes, such as performing an assessment from the perspective of another person, doing with that sentiment is manifested later in the development of the human being.

Another concept that need to be reflected when the embarrassment is been studied is empathy. According to Batson (1991), "empathy is a feeling that is congruent with, but not necessarily identical to the emotion of another" (p.86).

Empathy is built as an emotion felt when witnessing another´s suffering (Hoffman, 2000). In this sense, this author defends that it is maybe more appropriate to understand empathy as a category of emotional responses that are felt on behalf of others, rather than as a unitary emotion of the sort typically included in models of basic emotions. It is also possible to answer with empathic joy when the other is experiencing positive states (Smith, Keating & Stoland, 1989), with empathic anger when the other has been dealt an injustice (Hoffman, 2000; Vitaglione & Barnett, 2003; Stocks & Lishner, 2011) and so forth.

The feeling of empathy can develop the empathic embarrassment that is the result of a generalization of the classically conditioned emotional responses that typically follow people's own embarrassing experiences (Miller, 1987; Batson, Eklund, Chermonk, Hoyt, & Ortiz, 2007). This author pointed that even if the person is not personally involved, she/he can feels empathic embarrassment when the normative rules of social conduct are violated.

Empathic embarrassment is the phenomenon of an observer sharing the uncomfortable feelings of embarrassment with an individual in an embarrassing

situation even though the observer is neither directly experiencing nor threatened by embarrassment situation (Miller, 1987). That is, by merely watching someone in an embarrassment situation, observers become embarrassed themselves. Further, observers may experience empathic embarrassment even when the person in the embarrassment situation is not overtly embarrassed. This may be the result of observers imagining themselves in the observed situation; thus, the resulting empathic embarrassment is the product of the embarrassment that they would feel if they were in the situation. In this instance, it is the observed situation and not the observed person that leads to an embarrassment response. Therefore, empathic embarrassment may often be related more to the individual observing the situation than to the observed person´s true level of embarrassment (Marcus & Miller, 1999).

Embarrassment is said to occur when an expressive act threatens the assumptions of a participant's projected identity and discredits one's interactional face (Goffman, 1956, 1967). Embarrassment, therefore, is located not in the individual but also in the social system (Goffman, 1967; Stocks & Lishner, 2011). How embarrassment is triggered, however, is open to dispute. Three alternative perspectives suggest that embarrassment occurs due to: (a) a disruption in the social interaction (Gross & Stone, 1964; Weinberg, 1968), (b) a loss of situational self-esteem (Modigliani, 1971; Sattler, 1965), or (c) the perception of negative social evaluation (Buss, 1980; Edelmann, 1981, 1990; Edelmann & Neto, 1985; Edelmann, et al., 1989).

If in terms of definition can be found a consensus among authors about how embarrassment can be understood, there is a degree of ambiguity when the dimensionality of this construct is considered. The question that emerges and is discussed by some authors is if embarrassment must be expressed as a single or multiple factors. Edelmann (1987) and Gouveia et al. (2006) defended the unidimensional structure, Sharkey and Singelis (1995) believe that are eight dimensions of this construct: normative public deficiency, failure in regulating the privacy of the other, failure in regulating the own privacy, situation of protagonist, loss of paper, feeling of guity, group embarrassment and empathic embarrassment. The results of Miller (1992) suggested that there are four dimensions corresponding to the social circumstances that cause this feeling: individual behavior, interactive behavior, provocation of others and behavior of the spectator.

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To measure triggers of embarrassment, there are some scales as Embarrassability Scale by Modigliani (1968), Embarrassment Questionnaire by Sabini et al. (2000). This study will be supported for Miller and the scale of Embarrassment was used. This choice was made considering the same instrument used in the Brazilian study.

Some authors defended how embarrassment, although painful to the individual, serves important social figures (Miller, 1986; Parrot, 1996). Goffman (1956) suggested embarrassment is vital to the social order. These studies converge on the conclusion that embarrassment serves an appeasement function, reconciling social relations following transgressions of social norms (Keltner & Buswell, 1997; Stocks & Lishner, 2011).

This study is supported by these authors cited before that challenge many conceptions of embarrassment and address that the different components systems of emotion, according to a functional analysis, work together to help the individual respond adaptively to problems or opportunities in the environment. Moreover, it is possible to state that embarrassment has a crucial paper letting individuals to solve the mistake made, repairing a confused relationship or helping to solve social transgressions.

1.3. Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence was used for the first time in literature by Salovey and Mayer (1990). They conceptualize emotional intelligence as the ability to process emotional information accurately and efficiently, including information relevant to the recognition, construction and regulation of emotion in oneself and others. In other words, emotional intelligence could be conceptualized in terms of the potential for intellectual and emotional growth.

It is necessary to highlight that the concept of Emotional Intelligence has spread quickly in the organizational context, becoming popular as a desirable characteristic and a widespread success predictor, especially after the Goleman´s (1995) publication ideas, who disseminated that emotional intelligence would be the most important capability to explain the success at work, leading companies to invest in training and changing their selective practices, based on the idea that people with high emotional intelligence would present an effectively performance in their work, assuming the existence of the construct and its utility (Cobero et al., 2006).

Emotional intelligence essentially describes the ability to effectively join emotions and reasoning, using emotions to facilitate reasoning intelligently about emotions (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). In this way, emotion intelligence taps into extent to which people´s cognitive capabilities are informed by emotions and the extent to which emotions are cognitively managed. Additionally, it should be pointed out that emotional intelligence is distinct from predispositions to experience certain types of emotions that can be captured by the personality traits of positive and negative affectivity (George, 1996; Tellengen, 1985). However, it is important to clarify that doubts still exist about Emotional Intelligence conceptualization and applicability in different spheres (Martins, Ramalho & Morin, 2010).

Emotional intelligence, as a component of interpersonal skill, aids in managing personal feelings along with the moods and emotions of others (George, 2000). Emotional intelligence brings a varied group of abilities that can explain how people recognize and manage emotions (Jordan, Ashkasnasy & Hartel, 2002). In this sense, this part of the study will bring some definitions of Emotional Intelligence while trying to find in the literature review evidences that Emotional Intelligence is a particularly useful construct to assess individual differences in emotional regulation.

One of the most recognized definitions of emotional intelligence is the one proposed by Schutte, et al. (1998). According to these authors, this concept consists of the following three categories of adaptive abilities: the appraisal and expression of emotion, the use of the emotions to enhance cognitive processes and decision making and regulation of emotion.

Appraisal and expression of the emotion is the ability to accurately determine the emotions other people are experiencing and the ability to accurately communicate their feelings to meet their needs and understand their objectives (Buck, 1984).

Empathy is a concept that is related to the appraisal and expression of emotions in others and is the ability to understand and experience other person´s emotions (Wispe, 1986). Empathy can be considered as a contributor to emotional intelligence. It is as an important skill that enables people to provide useful social support and maintain positive and interpersonal relationships (Batson, 1987; Thoits, 1986).

The use of emotions to enhance cognitive processes and decision making can be thought in three aspects. First, emotions can be useful in terms of directing attention to

pressing interests and signaling what should be the focus of attention (George & Brief, 1996). Second, emotions can be used in decision making processes, being capable to foresee how one would feel if certain event occurs. (Damasio, 1994). Third, emotions can be used to assist some types of cognitive processes. For example, negative emotions can facilitate attention to the detail, detection of problems and careful information processing, while the positive ones facilitate integrative thinking, creativity and inductive reasoning. (Sinclair & Mark,1992). In this sense, emotions can lead to more flexible planning, creation of multiple alternatives and widened perspective on problems (Mayer, 1986; Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

Another point that must be considered is the regulation of emotions that comprehends individual differences in the ability to straightly reflect on one´s mood and manage them (Salovey et al., 1995). Management of one´s emotions also affects on knowledge and consideration of the determinants, appropriateness and malleability of emotions. Emotional intelligence captures individual differences in the extent to which one is able to successfully manage emotions. Additionally, it is important to clarify that Emotional Intelligence implies not just being able to manage one´s own feelings, but it has the ability to regulate the emotions of others. (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

Several studies provide evidence that of Emotional Intelligence is a particularly useful construct to assess individual differences in emotional regulation. For example, Mikolajczak and Luminet (2008) have observed that individuals with high levels of Emotional Intelligence are both more likely to appraise stressful situations as a challenge and more confident that they can cope with this situations.

Emotional regulation is of the primary importance to emotionally intelligent individuals. Regulatory actions are derived from the individual´s own social beliefs about their roles in the society and the expectations others have of them in those roles (Averill, 1980). It is possible to affirm that emotionally intelligent individuals are self-aware. They are able to understand that exist social rules with regard to emotional display, and they regulate their actions according to those rules.

The adjustment of oneself and the others (Niven, Totterdell, Stride, & Holman, 2011) is one dimensions of emotional intelligence (Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 1999) and the emotional competence (Boyatzis, Goleman, & Rhee, 1999), being quite valuated at the work context, especially by their impacts on social interactions and in

the well-being of the people involved, indicating a positive affect and life satisfaction (Brackett &Mayer, 2003; Schutte & Malouff, 2011).

Schutte and Loi (2014), defend that better perception, understanding and regulation of emotion (items of emotional intelligence): 1) may help worker´s comprehension of workplace events and reactions to events, inspiring a great sense of power; 2) may also point to better interpersonal work relationships and thus to more satisfaction with the social base awarded by the workplace. Additionally, the competences encompassing emotional intelligence may straight reassure development of qualities such as perception of power and workplace satisfaction. These authors also afirm that higher levels of emotional intelligence are allied with a diversity of general positive intrapersonal reactions, comprising more cooperative behavior (Schutte et. al., 2001), better interpersonal relationships (Lopes et. al., 2004), more relationship satisfaction (Malouff, Schutte & Thorteinsson, 2014). Individuals with higher emotional intelligence have the tendency to identify having more social support and are more satisfied with their social support. Meta analytic results indicate that employees that present more emotional intelligence tend to show superior leadership (Harms & Credé, 2010), including more constructive conflict management (Schalaerth et al. 2013).

Another point that must be considered is that the research on Emotional Intelligence has expanded in recent decades and currently account with a variety of assessment instruments (Brackett & Mayer, 2003). The most renowned internationally recognized test are: The Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) by Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (2002), Emotional Intelligence Appraisal by Goleman (1995) and the last one that is the Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS) by Shutte et al. (1998) that was used in this study. It was validated to the Brazilian context by Gouveia, Pessoa, Araújo, Soares, & Guerra (2012).

There is a continuing controversy about the difference between leadership and management. Not all managers exercise leadership. Bass (2010) argued that although management and leadership overlap, the two activities are not synonymous.

Understand this difference that is done in these two concepts is crucial to this work, once it will compare the susceptibility of embarrassment, emotional intelligence and emotional contagion in two distinct groups: one composed by people who are in a management position and their team of work. In this sense, this research is supported by

the two assumptions: not all managers exercise leadership and that not all leaders manage. According to Zaleznik (1977) both leaders and managers make a valuable contribution to an organization and that each one's contribution is different. Whereas leaders advocate change and new approaches, managers advocate stability and the status quo. Furthermore, whereas leaders are concerned with understanding people's beliefs and gaining their commitment, managers carry out responsibilities, exercise authority, and worry about how things get accomplished.

2. Aims of the study

The interest in investigating specifically embarrassment, emotional contagion and emotional intelligence in managers is justified by the importance of managing and regulating emotions in social interactions, in work context and in particular in functions of management.

The ability to regulate emotion is learned in a context of social interactions, which highlights the role of the family, the school and the work that is crucial to the success in the maintenance and management of interpersonal relations, in care of social expectations, avoiding the personal suffering and the maintenance of physical and mental health (Gondim & Borges-Andrade, 2009).

As the emotion has a strong social component, the process of emotional control can be facilitated or hindered by how others assess their feelings. Through social interaction, individuals are able to understand and learn how and what emotions should be expressed. This process of interaction helps individuals understand the feelings, thus facilitating the learning of new strategies of adjustment with the adoption of more adaptive (Nadler & Lishner, 2010).

In Brazil, there is a team of researchers at federal university of Bahia, who studied these concepts previously treated, in order to understand better to what extent joins the status (hierarchical level in organization, if the worker occupies a position of leadership or not), educational level and gender variables on them, and establishing a comparison between Brazil and Angola. Due to the relevance of the topic studied by the Brazilian team, based on the relevant results found in it and considering that the Brazilian sample can contributes substantively in future cross-cultural studies, it was

decided to perform on behalf the partnership between the University of Coimbra and the Federal University of Bahia to make a new study that has two stages.

The first stage of this study, will replicate the results elaborated by the previous study (Gondim, 2012, 2014) in order to verify if with a larger sample size, the status (hierarchical level) still be responsible to moderate the power of the relationship between emotional contagion, embarrassment and emotional intelligence with people who are in a management position. This study will use the same variables and methodology that were validated by the Brazilian sample. But this time increasing the sample size: adding to the initial sample - that was 300 workers - 356 respondents more.

The decision of increasing the sample size was supported by the premise that the statistical power depends on three aspects: sample size, effect size and the level of significance (Quesada & Figueroa, 2010). According to these authors, if the sample size is larger, more reliable could be the analysis made, and consequently the statistical power of the entire investigation will increase.

The second stage of this work will try to verify a relation that could exist between emotional contagion, embarrassment, emotional intelligence and management. It is important to highlight that if emotional intelligence helps to enhance the way that person thinks and acts in a given context, certain levels of this construct will be needed in order to solve problems of emotions, developing adaptation strategies and defense mechanisms, avoiding afflictions throughout the life of the individual, while preserving their physical and mental health. Finally, the emotional intelligence presents itself as a good predictor of health and well-being (Moshe, Zeidner, Matthews, Gerald, Roberts and Richards, 2012). This topic was not considered in the Brazilian research. Because of this, the study of this moderation can be a great contribution of this research. In this sense, this new study intends:

1. To predict better power of the variables used in the previous study (Gondim, 2012, 2014), increasing the sample size and retesting the most statistical significant results found.

2. To study if the relationship between management[1] and emotional contagion and the relation between management and embarrassment is moderated by emotional intelligence.

2.1. Research Hyphotheses

Emotions tend to be contagious (Doherty, 1997) and not just transmitted through words, but also through non-verbal expressions including facial expressions, tone and body language (Barsade, 2002; Bhullar, 2012). The phenomenon of emotional contagion may well be crucial in personal relationships because it encourages behavioral synchrony and captures the feelings of others when individuals are not clearly attending to this information (Hatfield, Cacioppo & Rapson, 1993; Johnson, 2008).

Additionally, it is a concept that is expected to help in bringing about healthier emotional awareness and its management in organizations once it is each more important to being able to work together in a group and contribute strongly toward building a favorable psychological climate for better team and organizational functioning (Vijayalakshmi & Bhattacharyya, 2012). In this scenario where individuals work together in order to achieve a common aim, there is a high probability that any member´s emotion affects and is affected by others in the group.

Embarrassment is an unpleasant emotional response easily recognized by others (Miller, 1996). According to Stocks and Lishner (2011), imagining oneself in the person´s situation increases embarrassment. Doherty (1997) asserts that people can be considered particularly susceptible when they are able to read the emotional expressions of others. Nadler et al. (2010) defend how each individual´s emotions, expressed in a group, can spread to others, and once spread can affect performance. However, it is important to salient that the spread of emotions would involve a combination of factors that would affect the extend and level of transfer of emotions in particular group or team (Vijayalakshmi & Bhattacharyya, 2012).

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[1] Management: In the present study we will use social demographic data to specify

Based on these assumptions, emotional contagion could increase the feeling of embarrassment. In addition, the studies carried out in Brazil by Gondim (2012, 2014) provided empirical support to affirm that individuals that possess susceptibility to emotional contagion also experience higher levels of embarrassment, than individuals with less susceptibility. In those studies, the results pointed out the existence of a weak correlation between the embarrassment and the emotional contagion. In this sense, this study would like to verify if with a larger sample size, this correlation continue to be positively associated.

In this sense, the first hypothesis that will be retest is:

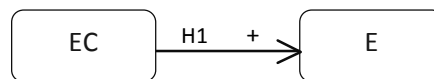*H1: Emotional contagion(EC) is positively associated with Embarrassment (E)*

Figure 1. Correlation of Emotional Contagion over Embarrassment

The level of education and occupational status (if the worker occupies a position of management or not) can vary the strength of the relationship between emotions (Doherty, 1997). Another important point is that the phenomenon of emotions in workplace and them effects on managers and their subordinates has emerged as a critical point of this research. In this sense, the next three hypotheses will compare managers and their subordinates to try to identify if the levels of embarrassment, emotional contagion and emotional intelligence, in fact can be different for these two groups as occurred in the Brazilian research. However, it is important to salient that there is a continuing controversy about the difference between leadership and management. Not all managers exercise leadership. Bass (2010) argued that although management and leadership overlap, the two activities they are not synonymous. Understand this difference that is done in these two concepts is crucial to this work, once it will compare the susceptibility of embarrassment, emotional intelligence and emotional contagion in two distinct groups: one composed by people who are in a management position and their team of work. In this sense, this research is supported by the two assumptions: not all managers exercise leadership and that not all leaders manage (Zaleznik, 1977).

The moderating effect of emotional intelligence on the relationship between embarrassment and emotional contagion

Conventionally, emotion was viewed as the antithesis of rationality, and thus something unlikely to be associated with management (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995). During many years managers were prepared to avoid emotions in the workplace. When they avoid emotions, they diminish their possibility to "catch others" emotions (Bhullar, 2012a; Hatfield, et al. 1994), presenting lower levels of emotional contagion. An important point discussed is that even when managers feel emotions, they tend to consider the extent to which these emotions they are feeling are appropriate to express in a given context (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Diefendorff, Croyle & Gosserand, 2005; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987).

If there is a greater susceptibility to perceive emotional contagion when more attention is directed to the subject (Barsade, 2002; Johnson, 2008) and managers were prepared to avoid emotions in the workplace (Bass, 2010; Humprhey et al., 2008), we state in our study that:

H2: Managers show lower levels of emotional contagion than their subordinates.

Another significant statistical result that could be verified in the Brazilian study is that managers show lower levels of embarrassment than their subordinates. Consequently, positions of high status in the organization require high type of emotional control to break social rules and act in a more audacious and uninhibited way.

If managers present lower levels of emotional contagion they probably will demonstrate a lower level of embarrassment, once there are evidences that emotional contagion can trigger the feeling of embarrassment (Miller, 1987). For example, when witnessing another person in an uncomfortable situation (Miller, 1987; Vijayalakshmi & Bhattacharyya, 2012), cultural and social norms can also impacts one´s ability to respond to this type of situation (Hatfield et al., 1993), and affective identification with the other (Stocks & Lishner, 2011). It is important to consider that people feel uncomfortable when they are experiencing embarrassment, and as consequence, they are often motivated to avoid this kind of situation (Miller, 1996). In this sense, the next hypothesis that will be tested is:

*H3: Managers show lower levels of Embarrassment than their subordinates***.**

The Brazilian work also found a positive correlation between emotional contagion and emotional intelligence. Once more, was observed that the educational level and occupational status can vary the strength of this relationship. In this sense, it is possible to affirm that managers present high levels of emotional intelligence, consequently have the ability to recognize, construct and adjust the process of emotional contagion. When this result was analyzed, the researchers justified that, nowadays, there is a growing demand for a quality of the interaction between managers and their (subordinate) followers. This demand may contribute to the fact that managers could be more sensitive to others emotions and consequently has increased the power of influence over their subordinates (O´Boyle, Humphrey, Pollack, Mawver & Story, 2011).

Empirical works suggested that people in management position are more able to indeed deal with their feelings and expressions of emotions (Brotheridge, 2006; Glaso, Ekerholt, Barman, & Einarsen, 2006; Hoschschild, 1983; Humprhey et al., 2008). According to these authors, the emotions that are felt by managers can be different from what they need to show to their followers. It is very common that managers may fake enthusiasm for a difficult work or challenge that they are not really feeling enthusiastic about (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002).

Managers, in general, have to make a bigger effort to consider the extent to which the emotions they are feeling are appropriate to express in a given context (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). It is important to clarify that Emotional Intelligence implies not just being able to manage one´s own feelings, but it has the ability to regulate the emotions of others. (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

In accordance with these arguments, the next hypothesis that will be retest is:

H4: Managers show higher levels of emotional intelligence (EI) than their subordinates.

E

-

H2

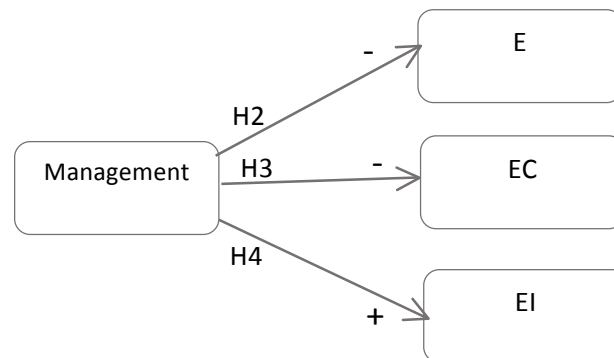Management   H3   -   EC

H4

+   EI

Figure 2. Hypothesized model of the correlation effects of Management on Embarrassment (E), Emotional Contagion (EC) and Emotional Intelligence (EI).

Recent empirical reviews have considered emotional intelligence as a useful construct in workplace context the better perception, understanding and regulation of emotions providing better interpersonal work relationship (Brackett, Rivers & Salovey, 2011; Schutte & Loi, 2014). It is important to highlight that if emotional intelligence helps to enhance the way that person thinks and acts in a given context, certain levels of this construct will be needed in order to solve problems of emotions, developing adaptation strategies and defense mechanisms, avoiding afflictions throughout the life of the individual, while preserving their physical and mental health. Finally, the emotional intelligence presents itself as a good predictor of health and well-being (Moshe, Zeidner, Matthews, Gerald, Roberts and Richards, 2012).

Moreover, emotional intelligence is postulated to promote positive social functioning when individuals are able to detect other´s emotions and adopt other´s perspectives, increase communication and regulate behavior (Brackett et al., 2011). In this context, the management of emotions, adaptation strategies and defense mechanisms can therefore be implemented to avoid suffering throughout the life of the individual, while preserving their physical and mental health (Gross, 1998). Several studies provide evidence that the Emotional Intelligence is a particularly useful construct to assess individual differences in emotional regulation (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Mikolajczak & Luminet, 2008; Schalaerth et al. 2013).

In this sense, the next two hypotheses are:

H5: Emotional Intelligence (EI) will moderate the relationship between management and Emotional Contagion (EC).
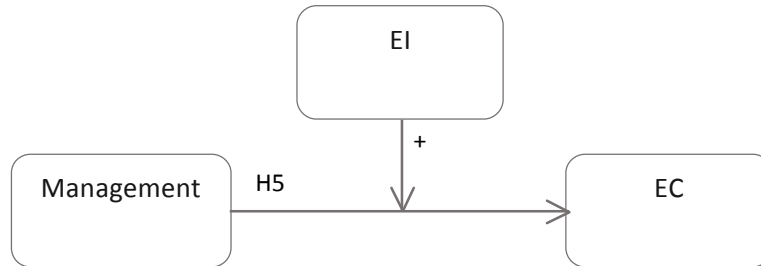

Figure 3. Moderation effects of Emotional Intelligence (EI) on the relationship between management and Emotional Contagion (EC).

H6: Emotional Intelligence (EI) will moderate the relationship between management and Embarrassment (E).
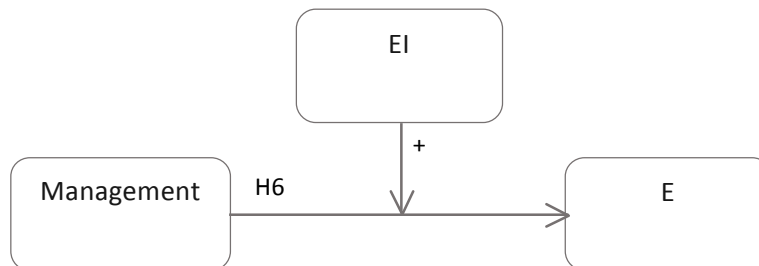
Figure 4. Moderation effects of Emotional Intelligence (EI) on the relationship between Management and Embarrassment (E)

3. Methodology

3.1. Sample

It is important to salient that the initial sample, used by the Brazilian study, was composed of 300 workers. The present work increased the sample size adding to the initial sample 356 respondents more. Because of that, the sample is composed of 756 Brazilian workers (277 managers and their 481 subordinates) with different professional occupation in distinct private organizations (medium and large size), being 42 % (n=318) male respondents and 57.8% (n=438) female with an age between 18 and 65 years, with a mean (M) of 32.15 years of work and standard deviation ($SD)$ = 9.11 of years of education.

3.2. Measures

As explained before, the study carried out in Brazil (Gondim, 2012), provides empirical and methodological background for the current research. Because of that, the same instruments that were used in the Brazilian study were used in the present work.

The instruments that are being used in this study are: Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS): unidimensional self-report scale with 33 items (Schutte, at al. 1998); Scale Embarrassment: multifactorial self-report scale with 22 items (Diniz, 2009); Emotional Contagion Scale, self-report scale of two factor (positive and negative emotions), developed by Doherty (1997) and adapted to the Brazilian context by Gouveia et al (2007).

In the following section, it is possible to know all the psychometric characteristics of the three instruments used and which authors had validated each one.

3.2.1. Scale of Emotional Intelligence

Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS) was created by Schütte et al. (1998) and has been designed to map onto the Salovey and Mayer (1990) model of Emotional Intelligence to relate the three following aspects: appraisal and expression of emotion, regulation of emotion and utilization of emotion.

This instrument brings together 33 items (for example: *I hope I accomplish well in most of the things that I try; When I am in a good mood, solving problems is easy for me*) that define a one-factor structure ($\alpha = .90$). Such items are answered in point Likert-type scale, five points, ranging from 1 (Disagree strongly) to 5 (strongly agree). This scale was validated in Brazil, by Gouveia et al., (2012).

3.2.2. Scale of Embarrassment

Originally, this scale describes 40 situations of everyday life for which the participant must say to what extent considers embarrassing (Miller, 1992). The items are answered by means of a seven-point scale, which goes from 1 = not embarrassing to 7 = very embarrassing.

Gouveia, Guerra, Singelis, Santos and Vasconcelos (2007) have proven the validity of this scale in Brazil, indicating that it covers eight factors of embarrassment feeling: normative public deficiency (α = .77, for example: *pour out drink on himself at a party*), failure to regulate the privacy of another (α = .81, for example: *surprise a person when she /he is in taster of a store in underwear clothes*), failure to adjust your own privacy (α = 0.80, for example, *be surprised when exiting the shower by a guest of the house*), situation of protagonist (α = .72, for example: *a group of friends sing "congratulations to you" at a restaurant*), loss of the paper (α = .62, for example: *tell a joke to a group of people that you know and in the end anybody smiles*), feel guilty (α = .68, for example, *see the girlfriend of your best friend kissing another man and in the next day you meet this friend*), bewilderment index (α = .63; for example, *go to a restaurant with friends farting jokes coarse the waiter and, when you return to the restaurant, the waiter comment how rude were your friends*), and bewilderment empathy (α = .75; for example, *be watching an amateur spectacle in which the artist is not successful in making people laugh*). The total score, corresponding to the sum of all items, presented an (Cronbach's alpha) of .92.

This study used the reduced version of the scale of embarrassment composed of 22 items (Diniz, 2009). It is important to salient that this is the same instrument used by Gondim (2012, 2014) and it exhibited higher saturations.

3.2.3. Scale of Emotional Contagion

The scale of Emotional Contagion was developed by Doherty (1997) and adapted to the Brazilian context by Gouveia et al. (2007). This scale is presented as a psychometrically appropriate instrument when the purpose is to know to what extent people give attention to the emotions of others or become infected with these.

The original instrument includes 18 items that describe five feelings (love, happiness, fear, anger and sadness) and a sixth dimension, which measures the level of attention given to the emotions of other people (for example: *being with a happy person picks me up when I'm feeling down or I notice myself getting tense when I'm around people who are stressed out.*), using a four-point scale, ranging from 1 (always) to 4 (never).

According to Doherty (1997), the items are organized into two factors: positive emotions (love, happiness) (α = .82) and negative emotions (anger, fear and sadness) (α = .80). It also includes three items to measure the level of attention given to the emotions of other people. When Gouveia et.al (2007), adapted this scale to the to the Brazilian context, pointed a structure of five first-order factors (basic emotions) and two second-order, defined as positive emotions (α = .64; love (α = .56) and happiness (α = .52) and negative emotions (α = .73; fear (α = .52), rabies (α = .61) and sadness (α = .60)] . The internal consistency with the version of 18 items is .82.

3.3. Procedures

The instruments were implemented in the software Enterprise Feedback Suite (EFS) produced by Globalpark, for conducting online searches using a survey type. Online collection was chosen due to the possibilities of coverage of the sample and the flexibility of each participant be able to choose the most suitable time to respond it (Pereira, Silva, & Silva, 2006).

Before completing the survey, it is presented to the respondent an informed consent form with the general information of the search, and contacts of researchers. At this moment, the respondent was also informed that all information supplied by him was confidential. Only after the participant consented, the questions were presented on the computer.

The participants answered demographic questions (gender, age, schooling, and labor condition: (manager or not manager), and three instruments to measure susceptibility to emotional contagion, embarrassment and emotional intelligence. The first 300 respondents took around 30 minutes to answer the survey while the others 356 took around 35 minutes.

The electronic survey, with all this procedures and instruments can be found in the annex 1.

3.3. Data Analysis

In order to test *H1*, it was used Pearson´s correlation to measure the strength of the association between Emotional Contagion and Embarrassment.

To test *H2, H3* and *H4*, descriptive statistics (mean and standard deviation) was used. Because we are working with two independent groups (managers and theirs subordinates), we used T-Test. To verify the equality of variances, Levene´s Test was carried out. As the two groups have unequal variances and sample sizes the welch correction was conducted.

To test *H5* and *H6,* ANOVA was used in order to analyse the differences between group means and their associated procedures. Hierarchical multiple regression will be used to test the above hypotheses once this statistical method allows that researchers could examine if there is a moderation relationship between the variables that will be studied. (Bryman & Cramer, 1997; Hair, 2005; Maroco, 2007; Maroco & Bispo, 2003; Pestana & Gageiro, 2005; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

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4. Results

Table 1 – Descriptive statistics and correlation matrix between Emotional Contagion and Embarrassment

	Min	Max	M	SD	EC	EMB
EC	1.00	4.00	2.97	.42	1	.52**
EMB	2.00	7.00	4.56	1.00	----	1

* p < .05   ** p < .01   *** p < .001 (n = 756)

Legend: EC – Emotional Contagion; EMB - Embarrassment

The Emotional Contagion (EC) had a Minimum of 1 and a Maximum of 4, whereas the Mean value was 2.97, with a SD (Standard Deviation) of .42. Plus, the Embarrassment (EMB) had a Minimum of 2 and a Maximum of 7, whereas the Mean value was 4.56, with a SD of 1. According to Cohen (1988), the effect size of the relationship between emotional contagion and embarrassment is strong (r = .52) and significant at the level p < .01.

Table 2 – Independent-Sample t-test for Embarrassment, Emotional Contagion and Emotional Intelligence in Managers and their subordinates

					n	*%*	
						Male	*Female*
Management	*Yes*				275	49.1	50.9
	No				481	38.0	62.0
	M	*SD*	*t*	*p*			
Embarrassment							
Managers	4.50	.95	-1.118	.254			
Subordinates	4.59	1.02					
Emotional Contagion							
Managers	3.01	.35	1.991	.033*			
Subordinates	2.95	.46					
Emotional Intelligence							
Managers	3.76	.38	4.968	.001***			
Subordinates	3.58	.54					

*** p < .001 ** p < .01   * p < .05; (n = 756)

Preliminary analyses were conducted to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality (Kolmogorov-Smirnov/ Shapiro-Wilk) and homogeneity (Levene Test). As two samples (managers and their subordinates) have unequal sample sizes, Welch´s t-test was also used. 3 t-test were conducted to compare the levels of Embarrassment,

Emotional Contagion and Emotional Intelligence in managers and subordinates. There were 275 managers (Male = 49.1, Female = 50.9) and 481 subordinates (Male = 38.0, Female = 62.0) in the study. The Embarrassment was the variable with higher values in both managers (M = 4.50, SD = .95) and subordinates (M = 4.59, SD = 1.02), but there was no significant difference between them, t (756) = -1.118, p = .254. The Emotional Intelligence, for managers (M = 3.76, SD = .38) and subordinates (M = 3.58, SD = .54), resulted in significant differences t (756) = 4.968, p = .001. Also, the Emotional Contagion for managers (M = 3.01, SD = .35) and subordinates (M = 2.95, SD = .46), was also found to be significantly different, t (756) = 1.991, p = .033.

Table 3 – Moderation analysis between Emotional Intelligence and Management, in the prediction of Emotional Contagion: non-standardized (b) and standardized (β), regression weights standard errors (SE) and t tests of statistical significance

Variables	B	SE	β	t	P
Emotional Intelligence	.32	.01	.69	21.80	.00
Management	9.26	3.97	.59	2.32	.00
Emotional Intelligence x Management	-.08	.03	-.64	-2.51	.01
R		.64			
R^2		.42			
F(2, 753)		272.475			.00

(n = 756)

Preliminary analyses were conducted to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity and homoscedasticity. Analyzing the regression coefficients in

Table 3 we can see that there is a statistically significant interaction between the independent variable Management and the Emotional Intelligence (p < .001). This means that the relationship between the Management and the Emotional Contagion is moderated by the effect of the Emotional Intelligence. It is possible to observe that there is a statistically significant interaction between the independent variable Management and the Emotional Intelligence (p < .001). This means that the relationship between the Management and the Embarrassment is moderated by the effect of the Emotional Intelligence. This model is statistically significant $F_{(2, 753)} = 272,47$; p < .05 and explained 42% (R^2) of the variability in the Emotional Contagion.

Figure 5: Moderation effects of Emotional Intelligence on the relationship between Management and Emotional Contagion.
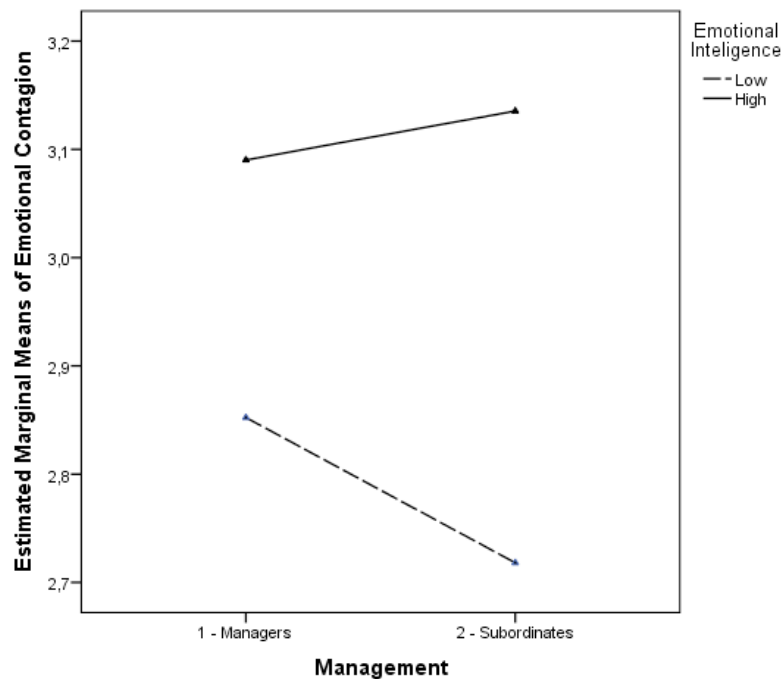
Examining the interaction plot, it can be noticed that when managers have low Emotional Intelligence they have higher values of Emotional Contagion compared to the subordinates. When managers have high values of Emotional Intelligence they have lower values of Emotional Contagion compared to subordinates

Table 4 – Moderation analysis between Management and Emotional Intelligence, in the prediction of Embarrassment: non-standardized (b) and standardized (β), regression weights standard errors (SE) and t tests of statistical significance.

| Variables	B	SE	β	t	P
Emotional Intelligence	.73	.49	.54	15.04	.00
Management	34.69	13.13	.76	2.64	.00
Emotional Intelligence x Management	-.32	.10	- .91	-3.10	.00
R		.49			
R^2		.24			
F(3, 752)		82.007			.00

(n = 756)

Hierarchical multiple regression was performed to investigate management to predict levels of emotional intelligence and embarrassment. Preliminary analyses were conducted to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity and homoscedasticity. Additionally, the correlations amongst in the predictor variables included in the study were examined and these are presented in Table 4. It is possible to observe that there is a statistically significant interaction between the independent variable Management and the Emotional Intelligence ($p < .001$). This means that the relationship between the Management and the Embarrassment is moderated by the effect of the Emotional Intelligence. This model is statistically significant F (3, 752) = 82,00; $p < .05$ and explained 24% (R^2) of the variability in the Embarrassment.

Figure 6: Moderation effects of Emotional Intelligence on the relationship between management and Embarrassment.
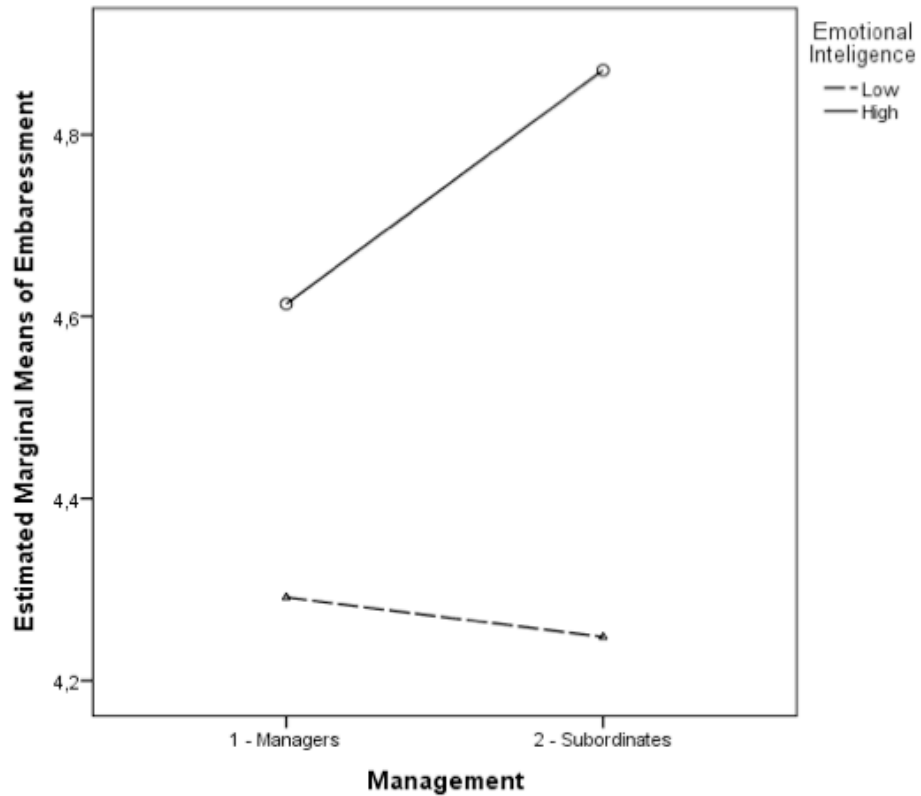
Examining the interaction plot, it can be noticed that when managers have low Emotional Intelligence they have higher values of Embarrassment compared to subordinates. When managers have high values of Emotional Intelligence they have lower values of Embarrassment compared to subordinates.

5. Discussion

The interest in investigating, specifically embarrassment, emotional contagion and emotional intelligence in managers and their subordinates is justified by the importance of managing and regulating emotions in social interactions, in work context and in particular in functions of management. Increasing the understanding in the role of theses emotions it is possible to learn how and what emotions should be expressed

and avoid the personal suffering and the maintenance of physical and mental health (Gondim & Borges-Andrade, 2009), facilitating the learning of new strategies of adjustment with the adoption of more adaptive (Gross, 1998; Nadler & Minda, 2010).

The first stage of this study, replicated the results elaborated by the previous study (Gondim, 2012, 2014) in order to verify if with a larger sample size (that allows to increase power of the study and the significance level of the findings), the status (hierarchical level) still was responsible to moderate the power of the relationship between emotional contagion, embarrassment and emotional intelligence with people who are in a management position. On the second stage of this work, we have investigated if there was moderator effect of emotional intelligence on the relationship between hierarchical level and emotional contagion and also between hierarchical level and embarrassment.

It is important to highlight that at the organizational level, a better understanding of the implications of emotions on organizational issues ensures individuals emotional interest, reduces conflicts and helps to develop strategies to improve the quality of management and increases the efficiency in work in teams (Brackett et al., 2011).

Literature in study of emotions has shown that once there are evidences that emotional contagion can trigger the feeling of embarrassment (Miller, 1987) and this study replicate and support these results once the effect size of the relationship between emotional contagion and embarrassment is positive, strong and significant (.52). According to Park (2010), it is important to highlight the fact that the premise assumed that the sample size is an important component affecting the statistical power was also confirmed when this result is compared with the results found in the same hypotheses tested in the study of Gondim (2012, 2014) and the relationship between these two constructs was positively weak significant.

The present study also found, that even though there is a significant difference in the two groups managers (M = 3.01) and subordinates (M = 2.95) for Emotional Contagion. However, the effect size is small. In this sense it could be desirable to verify in others studies if size effect could be higher in others samples composed by these two groups in different contexts. The level of this construct in managers was not low despite what we expected, it was presented higher in this group. One possible explication found in the literature to justify this result is that cultural and social norms can also impacts

one´s ability to "catch" the other feelings (Hatfield et al., 1993), and affective identification with the other (Stocks & Lishner, 2011). According to Hatfield et al., (1993), people tend to choose occupations that suit their temperaments and personalities. Once they ingress in their careers, their environment and activities usually shape them further. Domagalski (1999) is another author that defends the social nature of the work context takes on the character performance. Workers could be required to assume and be in an appropriate emotional state that pertains to a particular context: it is basically a social act that is performed for the benefit of others. Barsade (2001) defended that emotional contagion occurs among group members and Bhullar (2012 b) concluded that powerless people may be more aware of others´ feelings. In this regard, the spread of emotions occupies a central position.

In this context, the phenomenon called Emotional Contagion can be applied to all social settings. This fact can explain that managers need to pay attention in their team. They need to interact more with people. In this sense, the perception of one's own emotional contagion is influenced by the presence of people around us can make sense. In other words, emotional contagion can contribute to the convergence of emotions between two or more social actors, fundamental to the management function by enabling more effective interactions (Barsade, 2002; Bhullar, 2012b; Doherty, Orimoto, Singelis, Hatfield, & Hebb, 2005; Vijayalakshmi & Bhattacharyya, 2012).

Another relationship that was not confirmed was that managers should present lower level of embarrassment than their subordinates. No significant difference between these two groups was found. As the level of emotional contagion in manager presented a higher level instead of a lower one and understanding that the emotional contagion can trigger empathic embarrassment, it is possible that managers could share uncomfortable feelings of embarrassment with their subordinates. According to Miller (1987), merely watching someone in an embarrassing situation, observers become embarrassed themselves. One research suggests that embarrassment is an emotional response that has crucial personal and social consequences and people tend to avoid situations that could cause embarrassment (Stocks et al., 2011). Therefore, empathic embarrassment may often be related more to the individual observing the situation than to the observed person´s true level of embarrassment (Marcus & Miller, 1999).

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It is important to highlight that although embarrassment could be felt as painful by individuals, it could help them to respond adaptively to problems. The feeling of embarrassment could be able to repair disturbed relationship, allowing individuals to correct the mistake and adhering to standards of public behavior (Keltner & Anderson, 2000). In other words, embarrassment helps to remedy social transgressions, being vital to the social order (Keltner & Buswell, 1997).

The finding of the current study provide a significant difference in Emotional Intelligence between managers (M = 3.76) and their subordinates (M = 3.58). Here, it is also possible to verify that the effect size is relevant. In this sense, it could be desirable to verify in others studies if size effect could continue relevant in others samples composed by these two groups in different contexts. Managers, in general, have to make a bigger effort to consider the extent to which the emotions they are feeling are appropriate to express in a given context (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). It is important to clarify that Emotional Intelligence implies not just being able to manage one´s own feelings, but it has the ability to regulate the emotions of others (Mayer & Salovey, 1997), having more social support and including more constructive conflict management (Schalaerth et al., 2013).

Therefore, these findings let us to postulate that emotional intelligence could be associated with the extent to which managers conduct themselves in ways that are supportive of the aims of the organizations. In this organizational context, successful managers have been found to be responsible for promoting organizational performance, coping successfully with environmental demands and dealing with challenges situations (Brackett et al., 2011). In particular, managers need to influence their subordinates to perform beyond the organizational aims purposed. Because of that, organizations promotes continuous development of interpersonal competences of managers in order to encourage sense of power, better perception, understanding and regulating of emotions that could facilitate workplace satisfaction at the same time that improve job performance (Schutte & Loi, 2014). In this context, emotional intelligence is a widely tool for personnel hiring and training having a representing paper in management functions (Joseph and Newman, 2010).

The major finding in this study was that relationship between management and emotional contagion and the relationship between management and embarrassment is

moderated by emotional intelligence. The study of this moderation showed that if it is both true that emotionally intelligent managers also retain a positive viewpoint almost all of the time (Newman & Oboyle, 2015) and emotions can be contagious (Dohrety, 1997), it is possible to assert that high levels of emotional intelligence in managers can reinforce an emotionally intelligent environment, ensuring with this action, the development of a service-orientated climate. In this sense, managers can have a crucial paper of stimulating purposeful activity in others by changing the way their subordinates experience the workplace (Cartwright & Pappas, 2008).

Another important assumption that was fundamental to reflect is: if people try to avoid embarrassing situations whenever possible (Parrot, 1996) and emotionally intelligent managers are able to identify not only their own emotional states but also their subordinates feelings (Salovey & Caruso, 2002); it is possible to conclude that managers with high levels of emotional intelligence can better understand the emotions of others in the workplace, managing positive and negative emotions in themselves and others, diminishing embarrassing situations and supporting their subordinates to deal effectively with demands, to reframe their perceptions, demonstrating how is relevant to get positive relationship with the use of emotions and control of reactions, examining where they can improve without becoming defensive (Goleman, 2005).

Moreover, managers promote an environment of trust and respect when they are able to comprehend their follower´s feelings at the same time they are able to perceive the extend to which their subordinates expectations can be increased (Bass, 2010; George, 2000). Managers that possess high levels of emotional intelligence have a deep rooted sense of self which help them in understanding other people, retaining focus and understanding what is important and demonstrating the skill to manage disruptive emotions and keep impulses in check (Schalaerth et al. 2013; Schutte & Malouff, 2011). Emotional intelligence presents itself as a good predictor of health, well-being and work performance (Moshe, et al. 2012, Schutte & Loi, 2014).

There is evidence that emotional intelligence can both be taught and developed and a powerful tool for identifying potentially effective managers (Bracket et al., 2011; Goleman, 2001). Much could be gained when managers are trained on the emotional intelligence competencies: they could make better decisions, maintain supportive relationships, behave in prosocial ways and regulate their feelings in order to experience

and promote to their followers greater well being. Additionally, they can attain higher levels of emotional intelligence when they improve emotional recognition, expression, understanding, managing and control (Mikolajczak & Luminet, 2008; Moshe, et al. 2012).

It is clear that emotional elements should be considered while devising organizational policies, processes and procedures that occur within the organizations. Emotional intelligence helps to enhance the way that person thinks and acts in a given context, certain levels of this construct will be needed in order to solve problems of emotions, developing adaptation strategies and defense mechanisms, avoiding afflictions throughout the life of the individual, while preserving their physical and mental health (Salovey & Mayer,1990).

6. Limitations, future directions

This research presents certain limitations. The first one that can be pointed (the review of literature in this study showed) is the evidence that, there is still a long way to go to develop theoretical models regarding emotions in the context of labor, more specifically in the Brazilian reality.

This can be better exemplified, when it is noticed that in the Brazilian context, there are still few scales that were scientific validated to that reality and this can be a factor that can restrict the choice of the instrument. Emotional Contagion Scale, for example, is the unique scale validated to the Brazilian context.

Another point that should be considered is that the scales used in this study to measure embarrassment, emotional contagion and emotional intelligence do not directly contemplate the work context. Consequently, it is fundamental to conduct future research that could develop new scales that contemplate emotions within the context of labor.

All scales used in this study were self report measures that can be considered to be limited though uncertain self-knowledge (Woodruffe, 2001), they are also open to distortion by faking good or presenting a socially desirable self (Brackett &Mayer, 2003) and can be questionable if the person who is answering could have the ability to report all abilities in an accurate way (Bueno & Primi, 2003). Future research might

draw on indices based on alternative information sources in order to provide a better understanding of how individuals perceive emotions in labor context. One alternative is rethink how the knowledge in this field is produced in terms of research designs and sources of data. Maybe, these studies could mix qualitative and quantitative data as the means to build strong inferences. The combination of methods can offer a potential for exploring new dimensions, integrate the different actor´s point of view and for raising new research questions (Creswell, 2003).

Another limitation found was the social demographic questionnaire that can be considered limitative once it did not specify important items. For future investigations, it is suggested that the questionnaire used can bring more detailed information that can help to explore important topics. In this study we could not, for example, distinguish if people that occupied management position are leaders or managers, once no question to clarify their main tasks in day a day work was done. Other points that could be included in the demographic questionnaire are options where the respondents could write how long they have been in the current position and how long they occupied leaders position.

Importantly, more research is needed in order to contribute to the broader field of emotions in organizational contexts. Future investigations could focus on leadership and how it can influence the susceptibility of embarrassment, emotional contagion and emotional intelligence. This can contribute to understand better how leadership can play a role in emotional labor.

There is also a need to better understand which kinds of organizational cultures are able to promote respect for genuine emotional experience, not determined only by the needs of increasing results? Another important question could be: how innovative organizational cultures deal with emotions in labor context?

Despite the limitations recognized, we believe that the present study contributes to our better understanding of the roles of emotions by demonstrating the different function of emotional propensities for managers and their subordinates.

7. Final considerations

Emotions represent a crucial topic in the better understanding of organizational settings, making a significant contribution either to the academic community as to the organizational domain. However, it is important to salient that research in Brazilian

context is still in initial steps to establish a body of literature that reflects the importance of this process. In this sense, our investigation aims to contribute to the enrichment of the topic, as well as for the comprehension of the phenomenon in Brazilian context.

The study of the relationship between emotional intelligence, embarrassment and emotional contagion through the study of a large sample of Brazilian workers could be helpful for this purpose. Methodologically, in which observations were collected at two levels of analysis (managers and their subordinates).

Our findings demonstrated that managers report higher levels of emotional intelligence that can contribute to influence organizational behavior, lowering stress and increasing job satisfaction (George, 2000). Consistent with the literature review, this study also supports that both: the relationship between management and embarrassment and, the relationship between management and emotional contagion is moderated by emotional intelligence. Therefore, managers deal more effectively with emotions, benefiting their cognitive process and presenting advantages for the organizations. In this context, emotional intelligence may help individual´s comprehension of workplace events, inspiring a great sense of power at the same time that may also point to better interpersonal work relationships and increase satisfaction with the social base awarded by the workplace (Schutte & Loi, 2014).

Finally, the results highlight the role emotions play in organizational settings, at the same time that address the issues that are the focus of several theories of emotion at work. Our research may have practical implications, since it makes clear the importance of the role of emotions in the development of the individual behavior and organizational functioning. This study showed that emotions can influence individuals judgments and behavior while present a beneficial impact on task performance. In particular, emotions can direct or indirect influence on work team´s emotions and organizations climate. It is sense, to manage emotions can be strength to individuals that seek to improve their decision making and thus are able to encourage open-minded idea generation, because they can consider multiple points of view. Therefore, HR professionals could encourage workers to spread positive emotions and help to channelize neutral and negative emotions in a constructive way. It is possible to assume that emotions can be even more used as a powerful tool to improve harmonious organizational processes such as organizational culture, leadership, training and climate.

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Anex 1: Questionnaire

Caro participante,

Você está sendo convidado a responder a um questionário sobre emoções no trabalho e a sua relação com o bem-estar. Este estudo, de caráter internacional, está sendo desenvolvido por um grupo de investigação resultante de uma parceria realizada entre Portugal e o Brasil. Em Portugal, este projeto é coordenado pela Professora Doutora Carla Carvalho, docente e investigadora na Faculdade de Psicologia e de Ciências da Educação da Universidade de Coimbra, e no Brasil é liderado pela Professora Doutora Sonia Gondim, docente e investigadora na Universidade Federal da Bahia.

Se deseja participar da nossa investigação, por favor, clique no botão CONTINUAR. A previsão de preenchimento deste questionário é de alguns minutos. A sua participação é muito importante.

Gratas pela colaboração,

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Termo de Consentimento Informado

Para confirmar a sua participação, por favor, leia o texto abaixo e, caso concorde, selecione a opção "Concordo em participar da pesquisa".

Declaro ter conhecimento de que estou participando de um estudo conduzido por um grupo de pesquisadores da Universidade de Coimbra e da Universidade Federal da Bahia, cujo principal objetivo é investigar emoções no trabalho e sua relação com o bem-estar.

Estou informado(a) de que, se houver qualquer dúvida a respeito dos procedimentos adotados durante a condução da pesquisa, terei total liberdade para questionar ou mesmo me recusar a continuar participando da investigação. Meu consentimento, fundamentado na garantia de que as informações apresentadas serão respeitadas, assenta-se nas seguintes restrições: a)Os nomes dos participantes da pesquisa não serão divulgados em hipótese alguma;; b)Todas as informações individuais terão o caráter estritamente confidencial;;c)Os pesquisadores estão obrigados a me fornecer, quando solicitados, as informações coletadas;; d)Posso, a qualquer momento, solicitar aos pesquisadores, que os meus dados sejam excluídos da pesquisa.

A pesquisadora responsável por este projeto de pesquisa é Nadiane Martins, que pode ser contatada pelo endereço eletrônico nadiane.martinscunha@gmail.com.

 ( ) Concordo em participar da pesquisa.

Scale of Embarrassment

The moderating effect of emotional intelligence on the relationship between embarrassment and emotional contagion

Instruções: Tente imaginar da forma mais real possível que as situações apresentadas a seguir estão ocorrendo com você. Depois, selecione a opção que melhor expresse o grau que cada uma dessas situações é embaraçosa para você.

1. Nada embaraçosa	2. Muito pouco embaraçosa	3. Pouco embaraçosa	4. Mais ou menos embaraçosa	5. Embaraçosa	6. Muito embaraçosa	7 Totalmente embaraçosa

	Nada embaraçosa	Muito pouco embaraçosa	Pouco embaraçosa	Mais ou menos embaraçosa	Embaraçosa	Muito Embaraçosa	Totalmente embaraçosa
1. Suponha que você entra em um provador aparentemente vazio de uma grande loja e surpreende a outra pessoa apenas com roupa íntima.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Suponha que você derrama uma bebida sobre si mesmo em uma festa.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Suponha que está usando o banheiro na casa de alguém e uma pessoa do outro sexo abre a porta e entra.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Suponha que você pergunte a alguém com muletas se sofreu um acidente, e a pessoa ruboriza e lhe responde: "Não, tive pólio quando era criança."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Suponha que, justamente ao sair do banheiro, você se encontra com um convidado do outro sexo que caminha em sua direção.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Suponha que você e seus amigos foram comer em um restaurante na semana passada e seus amigos contavam piadas ao garçom. Você volta ao restaurante esta semana e outro garçom comenta sobre a grosseria de seu grupo.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Suponha que você tropeça e cai enquanto sobe em um ônibus cheio de gente.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

8. Suponha que você entra em uma sala aparentemente vazia, acende a luz e surpreende a um casal em uma situação íntima.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Suponha que você começa a falar com alguém que pensa que conhece, quando descobre que nunca viu a pessoa.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Suponha que está em um jantar com seu/ua companheiro/a e descobre que um dos convidados é uma pessoa com quem você teve uma relação antes de se envolver com seu atual companheiro/a	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Suponha que você abra a porta de um banheiro público e descobre que já está ocupado.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Suponha que você participa de uma apresentação junto com várias pessoas. Sua parte foi boa, mas um membro do grupo esquece o que dizer e desempenha-se pobremente. Depois, o grupo é criticado pela pobre apresentação.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Suponha que você é um dos convidados a um jantar e outro convidado, a quem você não conhece, ao cortar a carne dele esbarra no seu prato e o derrama sobre a sua roupa.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Suponha que você é incapaz de tossir enquanto escuta a uma conferencia.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Suponha que você está de visita na casa de um amigo e quando entra no banheiro, encontra uma pessoa do outro sexo que acaba de sair do banho.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Suponha que sua caneta cai durante uma importante reunião. Quando você se agacha para apanhá-la, bate com a cabeça na mesa.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Suponha que, enquanto trabalha no computador de um amigo, você acidentalmente apaga um arquivo. Logo depois seu amigo se queixa de haver perdido o referido arquivo.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

18. Suponha que você está experimentando roupa em um provador de uma grande loja e alguém entra e lhe vê de roupa íntima.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Suponha que, enquanto busca uma mesa na lanchonete, você derruba sua bandeja de comida.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Suponha que seus amigos falam de uma pessoa desconhecida que provocou um acidente de tráfego e você se dá conta de que é a pessoa de quem estão falando.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. Suponha que você está em um banheiro público quando repentinamente alguém abre a porta do compartimento em que você se encontra.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. Suponha que, enquanto compra roupa em uma loja, o encarregado começa a criticar o vendedor em voz alta.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Scale of Emotional Contagion

Instruções: Este é um instrumento que mede uma variedade de sentimentos e comportamentos em diversas situações. Por favor, leia atentamente cada uma das declarações a seguir e escolha a opção que melhor se ajusta a você.

1. Nunca	2. Raramente	3. Frequentemente	4. Sempre

	Nunca	Raramente	Frequentemente	Sempre
1. Presto atenção ao que as demais pessoas estão sentindo.	1	2	3	4
2. Estar com uma pessoa feliz me anima quando estou triste.	1	2	3	4
3. Fico nervoso (a) quando estou na sala de espera e escuto gritos de uma criança aterrorizada na sala do dentista.	1	2	3	4

4. Se alguém com quem estou falando começa a chorar, meus olhos se enchem de lágrimas.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
5. Encho-me de tristeza quando as pessoas falam da morte de seus entes queridos	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
6. Quando olho nos olhos da pessoa que amo, minha mente se enche de pensamentos românticos.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
7. Derreto-me quando a pessoa que amo me abraça carinhosamente.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
8. Choro em filmes tristes.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
9. Estar em volta de pessoas felizes enche-me de pensamentos felizes.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
10. Fico tenso quando estou em volta de pessoas estressadas.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
11. Consigo captar os sentimentos de outras pessoas.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
12. Irrita-me estar em volta de pessoas zangadas.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
13. Quando alguém me sorri com ternura, eu retribuo o sorriso e me sinto bem internamente.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
14. Meu corpo responde de forma agradável quando a pessoa que amo me toca.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
15. Fico tenso quando escuto uma discussão violenta.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
16. Presto atenção no modo como as pessoas dizem as coisas e não simplesmente no que dizem.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
17. Ver os rostos de pânico de vítimas nos noticiários me faz imaginar como elas devem estar se sentindo.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
18. Aperto minhas mandíbulas e fico tenso quando vejo rostos com expressões de fúria nos noticiários.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**

Scale of Emotional Intelligence

The moderating effect of emotional intelligence on the relationship between embarrassment and emotional contagion

Instruções: Gostaríamos de saber o quanto você concorda ou discorda com as frases apresentadas a seguir. Por favor, assinale a opção que representa sua concordância ou discorância com cada uma delas.

1. Discordo totalmente	2. Discordo	3. Nem concordo nem discordo	4. Concordo	5. Concordo totalmente

	Discordo totalmente	Discordo	Nem concordo nem discordo	Concordo	Concordo totalmente
1. Eu consigo falar com outras pessoas sobre meus problemas emocionais.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Quando enfrento obstáculos, lembro das vezes que enfrentei situações semelhantes e superei.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Espero me sair bem na maioria das coisas que tento.	1	2	3	4	5
4. As pessoas acham fácil confiar em mim.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Acho difícil entender as mensagens não verbais de outras pessoas.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Alguns dos principais acontecimentos da minha vida me levaram a reavaliar o que é ou não importante.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Quando meu humor muda, vejo novas possibilidades.	1	2	3	4	5
8. As emoções são uma das coisas que fazem minha vida digna.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Estou consciente das minhas emoções quando as estou sentindo.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Espero que coisas boas aconteçam.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Gosto de compartilhar minhas emoções com os outros.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Quando sinto uma emoção positiva, sei como fazê-la durar.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Eu organizo eventos para os outros aproveitarem.	1	2	3	4	5

	1	2	3	4	5
14. Procuro atividades que me façam feliz.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Estou consciente das mensagens não verbais que envio para outras pessoas.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Apresento-me de forma a causar boa impressão nos outros.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Quando estou de bom humor, resolver problemas é fácil para mim.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Ao olhar para suas expressões faciais, reconheço as emoções que outras pessoas estão vivendo.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Sei porque minhas emoções mudam.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Quando estou de bom humor, sou capaz de ter ideias novas.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Eu tenho controle sobre minhas emoções.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Reconheço facilmente minhas emoções quando as estou sentindo.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Ajudo a me motivar imaginando bons resultados para as coisas que faço.	1	2	3	4	5
24. Eu felicito os outros quando eles fazem algo bem.	1	2	3	4	5
25. Estou consciente das mensagens não verbais que outras pessoas enviam.	1	2	3	4	5
26. Quando alguém me fala sobre um evento importante em sua vida, quase sinto como se tivesse vivido eu mesmo (a) aquela situação.	1	2	3	4	5
27. Quando eu sinto uma mudança nas emoções, eu tendo a apresentar novas ideias.	1	2	3	4	5
28. Quando estou diante de um desafio eu desisto, porque acredito que vou falhar.	1	2	3	4	5
29. Sei o que outras pessoas estão sentindo só de olhar para elas.	1	2	3	4	5
30. Ajudo outras pessoas a se sentirem melhor quando estão mal.	1	2	3	4	5
31. Uso o meu bom humor para me ajudar a continuar tentando ao enfrentar obstáculos.	1	2	3	4	5
32. Posso dizer o que outra pessoa está sentindo ao escutar o tom de sua voz.	1	2	3	4	5

33. Para mim, é difícil entender por que as pessoas sentem o que sentem.	1	2	3	4	5

Social-demographical questions

Sexo: **Idade: _____**

(   ) Masculino   (   ) Feminino

Escolaridade:

(   ) Ensino Fundamental

(   ) Ensino Médio

(   ) Ensino Superior

(   ) Pós-graduação

Função gerencial (supervisão, direção, etc):

(   ) Sim

(   ) Não

A equipe de pesquisa agradece a sua valiosa participação.

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