


**Work Event Experiences: Implications of an Expanded Taxonomy for Understanding
Daily Well-Being**


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Abstract

This article builds on earlier research on work events and uses a recently developed taxonomy of situation perceptions—the CAPTION taxonomy—to study daily work events. The authors specifically test the ideas that the specific affective event dimensions A (Adversity) and O (humOr), and cognitive and typicality dimensions—I (Importance), C (Complexity), and T (Typicality)—contribute to explaining daily well-being beyond P (Positive valence) and N (Negative valence). Study 1 included $N = 242$ employees who filled in a diary over five workdays, and Study 2 included a total of 295 employees in an experience sampling design. Results from multilevel confirmatory factor analyses with events nested in persons and days nested in persons suggested that a 7-dimension model—in line with the CAPTION taxonomy—improved model fit. Multilevel structural equation modeling further revealed that the additional dimensions contributed to explaining well-being after work (Study 1) and well-being at work (Study 2) at both the between- and the within-person level. These effects were in particular driven by the A (Adversity) and O (humOr) dimensions. The authors discuss to what degree a multidimensional perspective on situation perceptions can improve occupational health researchers' understanding of work events as drivers of well-being at work.

Keywords: work events, situations, CAPTION, affective well-being, ESM

Work Event Experiences: Implications of an Expanded Taxonomy for Understanding Daily Well-Being

In the past 20 years, occupational health (OH)-psychologists have shown an increasing interest in studying events at work. Work events are typically described as cohesive situations in organizations that diverge from work routine (Morgeson et al., 2015). Examples are the presentation of a project, a supervisor-meeting, or a personal compliment handed out by a colleague. Past research suggests that work events are related to important employee outcomes like their mood and fatigue (Gross et al., 2011; Zohar et al., 2003), work engagement (Demerouti & Cropanzano, 2016), and work-role behavior (Matta et al., 2014).

An influential idea in the literature is that work events elicit affective reactions in employees that then influence their thoughts and behaviors (Morgeson et al., 2015; Rentsch, 1990; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Affective reactions are typically described using a two-dimensional taxonomy with a positive and a negative dimension (Watson et al., 1988). Based on the idea that events are closely tied to affective reactions, researchers have typically used this positive/negative taxonomy to describe work events and study their impact on well-being (Bledow et al., 2011; Fuller et al., 2003; Gross et al., 2011; Zohar et al., 2003; see Ohly & Schmitt, 2015 for an exception). Although the positive/negative taxonomy has been useful in past research on work events, several research streams suggest that capturing and understanding events may benefit from more elaborate frameworks that go beyond broad affect (Edwards & Templeton, 2005; Johns, 2006; Meyer et al., 2010; Mischel & Shoda, 1995; Morgeson et al., 2015).

One important research stream providing hints for important aspects that go beyond broad affect has developed in the organizational sciences starting with Johns' (2006) article on

context. Johns suggested that organizational researchers do not sufficiently take the situational aspects of organizational behavior into account, and highlighted that context has many facets of which situational strength may be especially important for understanding behavior in organizations. Building on this work, Meyer et al. (2010) suggested that situational strength is particularly characterized by clarity, consistency, constraints, and consequences. More recently, several of these ideas have been extended to events, and the resulting theoretical framework—event system theory (short: EST, Morgeson et al., 2015)—suggests that the event/behavior link is characterized by three core event dimensions—*novelty*, *criticality*, and *disruption*—that go beyond affective perceptions and determine situational strength.

A second research stream that provides clues for important aspects of events beyond broad affect dimensions has recently developed in personality psychology. Researchers in this area have focused on developing multidimensional taxonomies of situation perceptions with five to eight dimensions (Parrigon et al., 2017; Rauthmann et al., 2014; Ziegler et al., 2019). In addition to two general dimensions capturing the positivity and negativity of situations, these taxonomies include dimensions for specific affectivity, cognitive load, and typicality of the situation. Existing work in this area is not specifically work-related or focused on explaining outcomes or sequences of events in organizations. Instead, the primary emphasis is on developing taxonomies of subjective situation perceptions that are as comprehensive as possible and can function as useful measurement instruments.

In this article, we extend existing work on the link between event perceptions and daily occupational well-being. Our article contributes to the literature on work events in two ways. First, we follow calls in the existing literature (Johns, 2006; Meyer et al., 2010) to more systematically study the dimensionality of work event perceptions. We thus use multilevel factor

analysis to gain insights into the usefulness of an extended multidimensional taxonomy that also includes cognitive and strength dimensions. In so doing, we build on recent perspectives on situational strength (Johns, 2006; Meyer et al., 2010), events in organizational systems (Morgeson et al., 2015), and the multidimensionality of situation perceptions (Parrigon et al., 2017; Rauthmann et al., 2014; Ziegler et al., 2019). Our starting point is the Complexity, Adversity, Positive valence, Typicality, Importance, humOr, and Negative valence (CAPTION) taxonomy and we apply this taxonomy to work events. Second, we build directly on event system theory (Morgeson et al., 2015) and study the degree to which additional event perception dimensions (beyond positivity/negativity) extend occupational health researchers' understanding of daily and event-related fluctuations in well-being in diary and experience sampling designs. Our article includes two studies. The first study uses a diary design and links work events to daily well-being (after-work emotional exhaustion, positive, and negative affect), the second study is based on an experience sampling method (ESM) design and focuses on work events and event-related discrete emotions.

Events at Work

Work events have been described as occurrences within an organization that employees consider relevant or meaningful for either themselves or the organization (Rentsch, 1990). Researchers also suggested that work events have three main characteristics (Morgeson et al., 2015). First, work events happen in the *environment* and are thus outside of the employee's control. Second, work events lead to psychological reactions in the employee, e.g., affective reactions to the event (*psychological reactions*). Third, work events occur at a particular place and time and have a clear beginning and end. Therefore, work events are discrete and

discontinuous (*discreteness*), and thus differ from the majority of other situations that are frequently characterized by stability and the presence of routines (Morgeson et al., 2015).

Research on Work Event Experiences and Well-Being

OH- and work psychologists have been particularly interested in how subjective experiences of work events influence employees' well-being (e.g., Bono et al., 2013; Hoobler et al., 2010; Kuba & Scheibe, 2017; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996; Zohar et al., 2003). Most research in this area has focused on the affectivity of work events as a key defining feature (e.g., Basch & Fisher, 1998; Grandey et al., 2002; Gross et al., 2011). This affectivity perspective (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) suggests that work events frequently evoke a positive or negative emotional reaction in employees, and these affective interpretations of events then shape employees' daily well-being.

Table 1 provides an illustrative overview of findings that link work-event perceptions to daily well-being in work psychology journals since the release of the affective event framework in 1996. As shown in Table 1, most measurement approaches for subjective experiences of work events have built on measures for affect and have adjusted them to specifically capture work-event-related affect. The most commonly used measurement approach for affect is the two-dimensional positive/negative affect taxonomy (Watson et al., 1988), and most existing approaches for measuring subjective experiences of work-events, therefore, adopt a distinction between positive and negative work events or reactions to work events. Our literature review (also see Table 1) revealed three core approaches used in extant research.

The first approach provides employees with a fixed list of positive and negative events and asks them to indicate events that occurred during the day. Researchers then sum up the total

number of positive and negative events to positive and negative event scores (Bono et al., 2013; Ilies, Keeney, et al., 2011; Zohar et al., 2003; Hoobler et al., 2010; Volmer et al., 2012).

The second approach is somewhat similar to the first one but does not use a fixed list of events. This approach instead first asks employees to freely describe the work events and their experiences related to the event with a few sentences. In a second step, the respondents are asked to specify whether they experienced the event as positive or negative. Researchers typically aggregate the combined counts of experienced positive and negative events to a total positive and total negative event score (Fuller et al., 2003; Gross et al., 2011; Kuba & Scheibe, 2017).

A third and more recent approach first asks employees to describe both positive and negative work events and related experiences using open questions. In the next step, the researchers sort these event descriptions into clusters (Ohly & Schmitt, 2015). For instance, a recent study using this approach (Ohly & Schmitt, 2015) assigned an event described by the employee as “The PC was broken-down” (p. 27) to a cluster called “Technical difficulties, problems with work tools and equipment” (p. 27). Although the three described approaches differ in how they capture work events, these approaches share the common feature in that they rate work events as either positive or negative.

Table 1 also provides some useful insights into typical findings in this research area. As shown in Table 1, research has found that negative work-event perceptions negatively relate to well-being by increasing fatigue and exhaustion (Gross et al., 2011; Kuba & Scheibe, 2017), perceived strain (Bono et al., 2013), as well as blood pressure (Bono et al., 2013). Table 1 also indicates that earlier research found that positive perceptions of work events positively relate to positive affect after work (Koopmann et al., 2016), job satisfaction (Ilies, Keeney, et al., 2011),

work engagement (Bledow et al., 2011), physical and mental health (Hoobler et al., 2010b; Volmer et al., 2012), and general life satisfaction (Ilies, Keeney, et al., 2013).

Context, Situations, and Event Systems in Organizational Research

Work that is relevant for understanding events has also been discussed outside well-being research. Johns (2006) wrote an influential article on context which suggests that organizational researchers should take situational aspects in organizations more broadly into account. Johns argued that situational strength may be important to understanding context and that organizational researchers should study different aspects of situational strength. Following this call, Meyer et al., (2010) conceptually studied situational strength and theoretically suggested that situational strength can be characterized by clarity, consistency, constraints, and consequences. More recently, Morgeson et al. (2015) extended several of these ideas to events and integrated two streams of existing theory in organizational sciences, namely open system theory (Katz & Kahn, 1978) and process theories (Rescher, 1962). In the resulting theoretical framework—the event system theory—Morgeson et al. (2015) suggest that three core event dimensions affect the event/behavior link. These core dimensions—*novelty*, *criticality*, and *disruption*—go beyond affective reactions and determine situational strength. The primary emphasis in this theoretical framework is on explaining when events affect behavior and features of organizational entities and trigger subsequent events.

Psychological Situations and Their Dimensionality

Research on situation characteristics has long suggested that measuring characteristics of situations is challenging. From a theoretical perspective, Rauthmann et al. (2015) suggested three ways to describe situations.

The first approach is to characterize situations by *cues*. Cues are physical elements or features of a situation (*who* did *what*, *where*, *when*, and *why*?) that can allow researchers to describe a given situation in a relatively objective way. For example: “An employee and their supervisor (*who*?) have a meeting (*what*?) in the supervisor’s office (*where*?) at noon (*when*?) to discuss the stage of the current project (*why*?).”

The second approach groups situations into similar *classes*. For instance, the office situation mentioned in the previous paragraph as an example can be classified as a social situation or as an anxiety-evoking situation depending on the focus of the researcher. An advantage of describing situations by grouping similar situations into classes is that this approach is relatively simple and easy to understand. However, researchers argued that the use of this approach also limited early attempts to study situations to specific “types” of situations, and discouraged research from considering the full range of possible situations (see Horstmann et al., 2018 for an overview).

The third approach is the focus of the present article and is commonly known as situation measurement. This approach purposefully includes the person’s subjective perception of a situation and focuses on capturing situation *characteristics* through the lens of these subjective experiences (Rauthmann et al., 2015). Individual experiences of situations, as captured by the situation measurement approach, have also been described as *psychological situations* (Parrigon et al., 2017; Rauthmann et al., 2014; Ziegler et al., 2019). An advantage of this approach is that two people may experience and interpret the objectively same situation in two different ways (e.g., helpful vs. frustrating). The two diverging experiences will likely result in different affective reactions, thoughts, and behavior. Therefore, it can be useful to study the psychological characteristics of situations. In the office example in the paragraph before the previous

paragraph, for instance, the supervisor may report that they and the employee had a constructive meeting, in which they gave useful advice on how to proceed with the project. In contrast, the employee may report a frustrating meeting during which the supervisor criticized their work.

Studying psychological situations has long been difficult because of a lack of established taxonomies and measures. However, personality psychologists recently addressed this crucial problem and developed novel measures and taxonomies for psychological situations. To build those taxonomies, researchers have used two different strategies—top-down and bottom-up. In the top-down approach, researchers develop items and scales for a theoretically derived taxonomy (see Brown et al., 2015 for an example based on evolutionary and motivational theory). In contrast, bottom-up approaches try to sample a comprehensive set of items and then use empirical methods like factor analysis to develop a stable taxonomy. Most recently developed situation taxonomies that are widely used in the literature have been developed based on this bottom-up approach (Parrigon et al., 2017; Rauthmann et al., 2014; Ziegler et al., 2019).

One frequently used example is the eight-dimensional Duty, Intellect, Adversity, Mating, positivity, Negativity, Deception, and Sociality (short DIAMONDS; Rauthmann et al., 2014) taxonomy. This taxonomy has been extracted from a comprehensive list of situations that provide an opportunity for people to express their personality.

The Situation Five (Ziegler et al., 2019) is based on a lexical approach. The basic assumption of lexical approaches is that situational perceptions are embedded in human language. To develop their items using a lexical approach, Ziegler et al. (2019) therefore screened dictionaries for adjectives that describe situations.

In this study, we focus on a third bottom-up taxonomy—the seven-dimensional Complexity, Adversity, Positive valence, Typicality, Importance, humOr, and Negative valence

(short CAPTION; Parrigon et al., 2017) taxonomy to assess situations. CAPTION is also based on a lexical approach. However, Parrigon et al. (2017), screened movie subtitles instead of dictionaries. Their rationale was that movies consist of an array of situations and contain adjectives describing the ongoing scene and thus provide a rich resource of situation descriptions.

Expanding the Taxonomy of Work Event Experiences

Our goal in this article was to integrate work on events in organizational research (e.g. Morgeson et al., 2015) with recent work on situation taxonomies (e.g., Parrigon et al., 2017). In so doing, we built on existing work on events and well-being, and on research on situational strength (e.g., Meyer et al., 2010) and events in organizational behavior. We decided to rely on the CAPTION taxonomy because this taxonomy is particularly suitable to study work events. The way Parrigon et al. (2017) and the broader literature on situation perception conceptualize situations is closely related to Morgeson et al.'s (2015) definition of work events. First, general situations are “a constellation of actions, objects, organisms, and place” (Edwards & Templeton, 2005, p. 706). These actions, objects, organisms, and places form the *environment* of the perceiver—a central feature of event definitions (Morgeson et al., 2015). Second, situations influence objects and actors but also depend on individual perception (Edwards & Templeton, 2005; Parrigon et al., 2017). This situation feature matches the *psychological reactions* of events (Morgeson et al., 2015). Finally, actions, objects, actors, and places coexist at a particular time period (Edwards & Templeton, 2005; Pervin, 1978). Events are also defined as co-occurrence of place and time (Morgeson et al., 2015). However, an important difference between situations in the CAPTION taxonomy and typical definitions of work events is the fact that situations are not necessarily limited to a clear beginning and an end. Accordingly, situations, unlike work events,

can be part of a continuous routine. Work events are *discrete* and discontinuous and commonly interrupt routines. Because of this difference, it seems important to test whether or not the CAPTION taxonomy can be applied to capture work events. Another difference in addition to the event nature of work events is the fact that CAPTION has to our knowledge not been developed with work in mind so it is also important to assess the degree to which the taxonomy can be used in this context.

A second advantage of the CAPTION taxonomy is that it includes dimensions that correspond with the traditional positive/negative event taxonomy next to dimensions that match the situational strength dimensions suggested in EST. Positive valence (P) includes sociality, intimacy, and general positivity of the situation and negative valence (N) describes malicious or sinister situations. These two dimensions align with the traditional view on affective work events. Adverse situations (A) deplete resources, induce stress, or expend energy. Adversity in CAPTION corresponds with the *disruption* dimension in EST. Typicality (T) distinguishes common and well-known from new and ambiguous situations and, thus, matches with the *novelty* dimension in EST. Importance (I) determines whether the situation is relevant for specific goals and covers the EST dimension *criticality*.

Additionally, CAPTION encompasses the dimensions complexity and humor that also have already been studied in the context of situations and events at work (Horton & Griffin, 2017; Robert & Wilbanks, 2012). The complexity (C) dimension describes cognitively complex and scholarly situations that demand in-depth thinking or learning. The humor (O) dimension comprises positive light-hearted (e.g., goofy) and darkly humorous (e.g., childish or mischievous) situations.

Hypotheses

As noted earlier, the goal of this article was to extend existing research on relationships between work event experiences and well-being by introducing an extended multidimensional view and measurement approach for work event experiences. Earlier research has established that it is useful to measure work events by capturing work-event-related positive and negative affect (Bono et al., 2013; Casper et al., 2019; Gross et al., 2011). The overarching research question of this article was to study whether applying the CAPTION taxonomy to work events is useful and provides additional insights. CAPTION expands the two dimensional positive/negative taxonomy with specific affective (humor and adversity), cognitive (complexity and importance), and typicality characteristics in addition to the already established positive/negative dimensions. Figure 1 provides an overview of our hypotheses and study variables.

Dimensionality at the Within- and Between-Person Level

To study whether the additional CAPTION dimensions capture work events and provide important additional insights, we first studied the dimensionality of work event perceptions at both the within- and between-person level using multilevel factor analysis (e.g., Colquitt, 2001; Dyer et al., 2005; Roesch et al., 2010). We compared the seven-dimensional CAPTION taxonomy to a simpler positive/negative taxonomy. Additionally, we also contrasted the CAPTION taxonomy with a four-dimensional taxonomy (positivity, negativity, cognition, and typicality). The four-dimensional taxonomy derived from a synopsis of multiple situation taxonomies in personality psychology (Rauthmann et al., 2019) and omits specific sub-dimensions of the CAPTION taxonomy.

Situation taxonomies have typically been used to investigate between-person differences in trait situational characteristics (Parrigon et al., 2017; Ziegler et al., 2019). Although between-

person effects are interesting to study, situation characteristics may not only differ from one person to another but may also differ across multiple situations. Because mechanisms at the between-level do not necessarily generalize to the within-level (Chen et al., 2005; Curran & Bauer, 2012), it is necessary to study whether the proposed CAPTION factor structure generalizes from the between- to the within-person level. To illustrate this point, it may be possible that a person more easily starts laughing and characterizes situations generally as funnier than another person (O) while the second person is more vulnerable for sentimental warmth than the first (P). However, when both persons characterize a specific situation as funny (O), they might both also perceive the situation as warm and positive (P).

Hypothesis 1: A 7-dimensional CAPTION taxonomy will provide a better fit to daily work events data than a two-dimensional (positivity, negativity) event taxonomy and than a general 4-dimensional (positivity, negativity, cognition, typicality) situation taxonomy a) at the between-person level and b) the within-person level.

Added Value of CAPTION in Explaining Daily Well-Being

In the next step, we studied the degree to which these dimensions are related to daily well-being outcomes. In the two studies we conducted, we focused on a total of seven different daily well-being criteria. In the first study, we measured emotional exhaustion and positive/negative affect in the evening as typical broad daily well-being measures (Watson et al., 1988). Emotional exhaustion is the core dimension of burnout and is typically defined as physical and emotional fatigue due to extensive work exposure (Maslach et al., 2001; Sonnentag, 2017). Additionally, we used general positive and negative affect in the evening as outcome variables. General positive and negative affect is not related to a particular event and thus conceptually differs from work-event-related positivity/negativity dimensions discussed earlier.

These general positive and negative affect measures are not limited to the interpretation of the event and are thus not constrained in place and time (Maslach et al., 2001; Watson et al., 1988).

In the second study, we used a momentary assessment approach and gathered multiple measurements of well-being each day. Because of the more limited time-frame in this second study, we focused on four discrete emotions: joy, pride, anger, and guilt (Barclay et al., 2005; Gooty et al., 2014; Grandey et al., 2002; Hillebrandt & Barclay, 2017; Rupp & Spencer, 2006; Spencer & Rupp, 2009; Weiss et al., 1999). Discrete emotions capture subcomponents of positive/negative affect and are thus more specific and more closely linked to facial expressions (Ekman, 1993; Feldman Barrett & Russell, 1998). For assessing discrete emotions, we apply the emotion framework of Weiss et al., (1999). The framework is composed of two outward-focused (joy, anger) and two inward-focused emotions (pride, guilt) with one positive and one negative emotion per focus. All four emotions are well established in OH and have unique links to work-relevant constructs (Glomb, 2002; Hu & Kaplan, 2014; Ilies, Peng, et al., 2013; Shockley et al., 2012).

In developing our hypotheses on the well-being outcomes, we built on the idea that specific affective (adversity and humor), cognitive (complexity and importance), and typicality characteristics would provide explanatory value in addition to the already established positive/negative dimensions. We specifically assumed that the dimensions would broadly improve the prediction of the daily well-being outcomes. However, we also studied potential unique and specific relationships between work event dimensions and specific outcomes in an exploratory fashion. Building on these ideas, we developed two sets of research objectives.

The first set of research objectives focused on the specific affective characteristics of work events (adversity and humor). These two dimensions differ from the general negativity

dimension in CAPTION that describes general discomfort and from the general positivity dimension of CAPTION that includes broad affect like positivity, sensitivity, and warmth of the work event. Adversity refers specifically to situations that are tiresome and frustrating and is conceptually related to the *disruption* dimension in EST (Morgeson et al., 2015). Humor specifically describes situations creating laughter and amusement. Researchers in different areas (Cooper et al., 2018; Mesmer-Magnus et al., 2012; Robert & Wilbanks, 2012) argued that humor is related to positive affect but also functionally distinct. In summary, we formulated the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 2: The Adversity and hUmOr event dimensions explain daily work-related well-being beyond the Positivity/Negativity event dimensions.

Hypothesis 3: The Adversity event dimension is negatively related to daily work-related well-being and the hUmOr event dimension is positively related to daily work-related well-being.

Based on organizational research arguing for situational strength and context explanations (Johns, 2006; Meyer et al., 2010; Morgeson et al., 2015), we also assumed that the non-affective dimensions would provide additional insights into daily well-being. Importance of work events has already been positively linked to well-being in form of goal-enhancing work events (Parker et al., 2020; Zohar et al., 2003) and in form of event *criticality* (Morgeson et al., 2015; Morgeson & Derue, 2006). Typicality—or *novelty* in EST—has rarely been studied in event research but EST (Morgeson et al., 2015) offers theoretical arguments for event novelty to negatively affect well-being. The relevance of complexity for situations has already been shown in earlier research (Horton & Griffin, 2017; Hunter et al., 2009; Tremblay et al., 2012). We specifically developed the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 4: The Complexity, Typicality, and Importance event dimensions explain daily work-related well-being beyond the Positivity/Negativity event dimensions.

Hypothesis 5: The Complexity, Typicality, and Importance event dimensions are positively related to daily work-related well-being.

Study 1

Methods

Participants and Procedure

The study used a diary design including five workdays with two measurement points per day and was formally approved by the institutional review board of the authors' university (ethical protocol number: -----). Employees, who were interested in participating in the study, received a paper booklet including the informed consent, detailed instruction on how to fill in the booklet, a background questionnaire asking for demographic information, and the diary booklet including questionnaires for each of the five days. Participants filled in the demographic questionnaire the day before the diary week started. Starting with the following day, the participants filled in the diary for five consecutive workdays, twice a day (morning and directly after work).

The target population was a diverse population of employees in Germany and Belgium. Five hundred forty-four employees agreed to participate in the study and 243 of them sent their booklets back. One participant was excluded from the analyses because they did not fill in the diary part of the study. The remaining 242 employees filled in 9.74 out of a total of ten measurement points on average¹. One-hundred fifty-three were female, 88 were male, and one

¹ To account for potential bias as a result of study attrition, we used inversed probability weighting using sampling weights. Using weights is a standard approach to control for biased samples when the study samples do not evenly represent the population (Thoemmes & Ong, 2016). We did this analysis in two steps. First, we built a

person did not indicate their gender. The participants were between 21 and 61 years old ($M = 38.48$, $SD = 12.07$). They had worked for their current organization for an average of 12.37 years ($SD = 12.10$), and 64.46% had a university education, 7.85% had a high-school degree, 20.66% had a middle school degree, and 6.61% had followed basic school education (one person did not indicate their school degree). The sample included a broad range of professions (about 30 different professions in total). Most participants worked as administrators (24), human resource management professionals (23), kindergarten or school teachers (23), and sales representatives (21).

Measures

All questionnaires were available in Dutch and German. We used short scales to keep the participants' effort manageable like it is typically done in diary designs (Ohly et al., 2010).

Events classification (after work). After completing the workday, participants were asked to shortly describe all events of the workday in one or two sentences. To clarify for the participants what a work event is, we added a short description and examples before each event section. We defined work events as “all events that you have experience in connection with your work and that you consider important or relevant. This includes not only major events (e.g., promotion, conflicts in the workplace) but also minor incidents (e.g., praise from a superior or customer, computer program crashes).” The questionnaire offered space for up to five events per day and participants were instructed to add additional events on the backside of the questionnaire

logistic regression and predicted the response (0/1) to each measurement point with person-level information collected in the pre-survey. We specifically predicted the responses to the measurement points with age, gender, education degree, tenure at the current company, and BIG 5 personality traits. From the logistical regression, we derived the probability weights indicating the conditional probability of a person with specific demographics and personality to respond to a measurement point. We inversed these scores and, thereby, give higher weights to respondents who are underrepresented in the sample. In a second step, we included the inversed probability weights in the multilevel SEM in lavaan. We found R^2 not to change up to three digits and we found no changes in estimates up to three digits. In summary, the results suggest that potential study attrition does not meaningfully affect the study results.

if needed (two participants reported each one additional event). Overall, each employee described on average 3.15 ($SD = 1.42$) work events per day. The participants then rated each work event using items adopted from the literature (Parrigon et al., 2017). To keep the questionnaire as short as possible, we used four items for each of the seven dimensions of the original CAPTION taxonomy. We used items from the CAPTION-SF (CAPTION-Short Form, Parrigon et al., 2017) questionnaire and translated them into Dutch and German. Two native speakers translated each item independently and then resolved potential differences through discussion. An example item was: “Did you perceive the situation as frustrating?”. The response scale ranged from 0 (*very little or not at all*) to 4 (*extreme*). In the Appendix, we provide examples of participants’ work events described and rated according to the CAPTION-SF scale.

Positive and negative affect (morning and after work). We measured positive and negative affect in the morning as well as directly after work. To keep the number of items low, we applied an eight-item scale (Ebesutani et al., 2012) based on the Positive Affect Negative Affect Scale (PANAS, Watson et al., 1988). The response scale ranged from 0 (*very little or not at all*) to 4 (*extreme*).

Emotional exhaustion (after work). Emotional exhaustion was measured after work. We used the nine-item subscale for emotional exhaustion of the Utrecht Burnout Scale (Schaufeli, 1995) with a response scale from 0 (*never*) to 6 (*all the time*). An example item was: “Today I felt empty at the end of the working day”.

Analysis

For all analyses, we used a multilevel structural equation modeling framework and the lavaan package in the R statistical computing environment (Rosseel, 2012). Following recommendations in the literature, we handled missing data using multiple imputations (Enders,

2010; Graham et al., 2007). We specifically relied on the mice (van Buuren & Oudshoorn, 2011) and semTools (Jorgensen et al., 2018) packages in R for these analyses and pooled the likelihood ratio statistics using the approach by Li et al. (1991). In line with recommendations in the literature, we ran 20 imputations (Graham et al., 2007). We began our analyses by running multilevel confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) to study the dimensionality of work events at the event- and the day-level and to test Hypothesis 1. We then used Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) two-step structural equation modeling approach to test the structural models for the study. The measurement model in the first step of the procedure expanded the multilevel CFA-model by adding emotional exhaustion and positive/negative affect. The structural models in the second step contrasted a basic model with effects of event positivity/negativity on the outcome variables at both levels of analysis with models with additional CAPTION dimensions to test our Hypotheses 2 to 5. In all models, we included positive/negative morning affect as control variables because morning affect relates to the perception of events during the workday (Casper et al., 2019). For model comparisons, we used difference tests and compared fit indices (Cheung & Rensvold, 2001).

Results

Multilevel Confirmatory Factor Analyses

Hypothesis 1 suggested that a 7-dimensional model will show increased fit compared to a 2- or 4-dimensional model at the event- and day-level. To study this question, we compared four different CFA-models nesting either work events ($k = 3,693$) in persons ($N = 242$) or workdays ($k = 1,172$) in persons ($N = 242$). In Table 2, we provide fit indices for all four CFA models at the event- and day-level. In interpreting this table, take into account that researchers commonly view comparative fit index (CFI) $> .90$, root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA) $<$

.09, and standardized root-mean-square residual (SRMR) $<.07$ as evidence for satisfactory model fit (R. B. Kline, 2016). As shown in Table 2, the 2-factor and 4-factor models provided a model fit far removed from levels of fit commonly viewed as satisfactory in the literature. In contrast, the 7-factor models increased the model fit considerably. Hypothesis 1 was thus supported. To further improve the fit of our measure, we deleted the item per dimension with the lowest factor-loadings on the original dimensions. For event negativity, all four items were loading equally well on the event negativity dimension but the item “despicable” showed high cross-loadings on the factor event adversity with modification indices (mi) = 358.29 for the event in person nesting and $mi = 103.85$ for the day in person nesting. We thus deleted this item from the event negativity dimension. The resulting 3-items per factor solution showed a satisfactory model fit (see Table 2). Factor loadings and ICC(1) values for the 4-item and 3-item solution at the between- and within-person level are available as online supplementary material. Although ICC(1) typically tends to resemble the between-person factor loadings, it still gives additional information (Bliese et al., 2019). The ICC(1) values range from .13 to .44 at the event-level and from .24 to .62 at the day-level with “frustrating” and “academic” having the most extreme values, respectively. Overall, the ICC(1) values suggest that all items capture variance at both levels of analysis and thus support the need to use a multilevel modeling approach.

Measurement Models

For building the full measurement model, we expanded the final CFA-model at the day-level (Model 4) by adding emotional exhaustion, positive/negative affect after work, and positive/negative affect in the morning (Model 5). Fit indices of the measurement model were satisfactory and are presented in Table 2.

Table 3 presents reliabilities at the between- and within-person level for Model 5. We estimated reliability using a CFA-based Cronbach's alpha to control for the multilevel structure of the data (Geldhof et al., 2014). Table 3 also presents the latent correlations of all latent variables at the between- and within-person level for Model 5. The correlations of some variables were considerable which is to be expected in this type of diary design. We specifically found three correlations of $r > .80$ at the between-person level (positive affect morning/after work, negative affect morning/after work, event negativity/negative affect after work). The high correlations suggest redundancy between the variables (T. Kline, 2005). However, it is intuitively expected that morning and after work affect are highly correlated.

Structural Models

Table 4 includes the model comparisons between the structural models testing Hypotheses 2 to 5. Hypothesis 2 predicted that specific affective dimensions (adversity and humor) predict daily well-being beyond event positivity/negativity. As shown in Table 4, a model (Model 6b) that included effects of adversity and humor next to positivity/negativity on well-being had a better model fit than a model including positivity/negativity alone (Model 6a), $\Delta \chi^2(12) = 132.22, p < .001$. These findings support Hypothesis 2 (for a full comparison of fit indices, see Table 4; for R^2 , see Table 5).

Hypothesis 4 suggested that cognitive and typical event dimensions explain daily well-being beyond event positivity/negativity. As shown in Table 4, model comparisons indicated that a model including complexity, importance, and typicality next to positivity/negativity improved model fit, $\Delta \chi^2(18) = 32.64, p = .018$. These findings support Hypothesis 4 (for a full comparison of fit indices, see Table 4; for R^2 , see Table 5). However, the effects were overall relatively small (see Table 5).

In a final step, we added paths from all seven CAPTION dimensions to well-being simultaneously (Model 6d) to test Hypotheses 3 and 5. As shown in Table 4, this full CAPTION model showed a better fit than all other models in Table 4. To answer Hypothesis 3, a more detailed examination of the effects in Table 5 indicated that the improvements in model fit from the specific affect dimensions primarily resulted from effects of adversity at the within-person level ($\gamma = .46$, $\gamma = -.27$, $\gamma = .40$ for emotional exhaustion, positive affect, and negative affect, respectively). Humor is only related to positive affect after work ($\gamma = .15$). Hypothesis 3 is partwise supported.

Further examinations also revealed limited evidence for substantial effects of the three cognitive and typicality dimensions on the outcomes (see Table 5) suggesting that Hypothesis 5 could largely be declined. We specifically did not find any relations between cognitive/typical event dimensions at the between-person or within-person level except a small negative relation between typicality of work events and positive affect after work.

Study 2

In Study 2, we first cross-validated our findings regarding the factor structure of work events established in Study 1 using a new sample. We then extended our theoretical ideas (Hypotheses 2-5) regarding the link between work events and well-being from broad well-being indicators (emotional exhaustion, positive/negative affect after work in Study 1) to discrete emotions at work (joy, pride, anger, and guilt). As discrete emotions change quicker than general affect, we investigated them directly after the event occurred. To achieve these goals, we conducted an online study and used an experience sampling method (ESM) design to measure work events and discrete emotions. Thus in Study 2, we focused on the event-level as the within-person level.

Methods

The second study used an ESM design including two measurement points per day over ten consecutive workdays and was formally approved by the institutional review board of the authors' university as part of the same project as Study 1 (ethical protocol number: -----). Employees who were interested in participating in this study provided their e-mail address and received a first e-mail giving information on the different parts of the research. Participants then received a first online survey, including informed consent and demographic questions. After the participants gave informed consent, they received two online surveys per day for two consecutive workweeks (ten workdays). Survey 1 was sent before noon (between 9:30 AM and 11:30 AM), survey 2 was sent in the afternoon (between 2:30 PM and 4:30 PM). Both surveys assessed whether a work event had occurred within the past hour and what emotions the participants felt at that moment. To avoid expectancy effects when receiving the two daily surveys, we randomized the time points within the time windows. Participants had two hours to fill in the surveys before they automatically expired.

The data collection targeted employees of diverse domains and professions in Belgium. Three hundred sixty-six employees agreed to participate but 29 did not fill in the informed consent and 42 did not fill in the diary part of the study. The remaining 295 participants (165 female, 129 male, one person did not indicate their gender) responded on average to 5.01 out of 20 online surveys², were between 21 and 67 years old ($M = 35.95$, $SD = 11.30$), and had worked on average 8.12 years ($SD = 9.48$) for their current organization. In this sample, 82.03% had a university degree, 7.12% had a high school degree, 8.14% had a middle school degree, 2.03%

² To account for potential bias as a result of study attrition, we again used inversed probability weighting with age, gender, education degree, tenure at the current company, and HEXACO personality traits. Again, R^2 and estimates did not change up to three digits. In summary, these results suggest that study attrition did not meaningfully affect the study results.

had a basic school education (two participants did not indicate their education level). The sample was composed of a broad range of professions with most participants working in engineering (34), health care (24), kindergarten or school teaching (24), consulting (21), and administration (21).

Measures

All questionnaires were available in Dutch and French. We again used shortened scales to reduce the effort for participants (Ohly et al., 2010).

Event classification. Participants were first asked to describe work events and then rate them on items derived from the CAPTION taxonomy using the same instructions as in Study 1. To diminish the daily effort for the participants, we reduced the CAPTION-SF scale to the three items derived from the reduced CAPTION model (Model 4) in Study 1.

Discrete emotions. For measuring discrete emotions after work, we extracted short scales for all four emotions from the literature. Anger was measured with the items “angry”, “irritated”, and “aggravated”, joy was measured with “happy”, “satisfied”, and “joyful” (Van Kleef et al., 2006), pride was measured with “proud”, “confident”, “successful” (Tracy & Robins, 2007), and guilt was measured with “guilty”, “ashamed”, “regretful” (Shaver et al., 1987).

Analysis

We used the same analytical approach as in Study 1.

Results

Measurement Models

We began by testing the reduced 7-factor multilevel CFA—established in Study 1—in the new sample ($k = 1,587$ work events in $N = 295$ employees, and $k = 1,298$ workdays in $N = 295$ employees). Results revealed satisfactory fit (see Table 6). Factor loadings and ICC(1)

values for all CAPTION items at the between- and within-person level were similar to the values in Study 1 and are accessible as online supplementary material. Next, we added all four emotions to the CFA-model for the full measurement model (Model 8). This model again showed satisfactory fit (see Table 6).

Table 7 presents reliabilities and latent correlations of Model 8 at the between- and within-person level. The high correlations are again to be expected in this sort of ESM design. The anger/adversity correlation exceeds $r > .80$ and suggests redundancy at the between- and within-person level (T. Kline, 2005) similar to Study 1.

Structural Models

Table 8 shows the model comparisons between the structural models testing our Hypotheses 2 to 5. As shown in Table 8, we again found support for Hypothesis 2 suggesting that the specific affectivity dimensions adversity and humor predict well-being beyond positivity/negativity. The model including the two additional dimensions provided a better fit, $\Delta \chi^2(16) = 188.27, p < .001$.

We also again found support for Hypotheses 4. As shown in Table 8, the model including cognitive and typicality event dimensions beyond positivity/negativity showed a better model fit than the model including positivity/negativity alone, $\Delta \chi^2(24) = 187.53, p < .001$.

In a final step, we ran a model that predicted emotions with all seven CAPTION dimensions simultaneously to test Hypotheses 3 and 5. This full CAPTION model showed a better fit than the previous models (see Table 8). Table 9 shows standardized estimates and z -values for all paths at the between- and within-person level for this full model.

As shown in Table 9, adversity had significant within-person effects on all four emotions ($\gamma = -.36, \gamma = -.19, \gamma = .72, \text{ and } \gamma = .30$ for joy, pride, anger, and guilt, respectively). Humor only

had an effect on the two positive emotions ($\gamma = .15$ and $\gamma = .12$ for joy and pride, respectively). Regarding Hypothesis 3, these findings suggest that adversity is a broad predictor of event-related emotions and humor only related to positive emotions.

Table 9 also indicated that complexity ($\gamma = .09$ for joy, and $\gamma = .18$ for pride) and importance ($\gamma = .15$ for joy, and $\gamma = .27$ for pride) were related to positive emotions at the within-person level. These findings suggest that cognitive dimensions were primarily linked to positive event-related emotions and, thus, partwise support Hypothesis 5.

Discussion

Most existing work on work events and well-being has built on a two-dimensional view of the nature of work events with positive and negative events. The present study extends this existing literature on work events (Basch & Fisher, 1998; Ohly & Schmitt, 2015; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) by integrating it with research on situation strength (Johns, 2006; Meyer et al., 2010), cognitive perspectives on events (Meyer et al., 2010; Morgeson et al., 2015), and broader perspectives on situation perceptions recently developed by personality psychologists (e.g., Parrigon et al., 2017). The result is an integrated multidimensional view of event perceptions. We studied the potential value of such an extended view and in particular the value of adding specific affective dimensions (adversity and humor) and cognitive and typicality dimensions (importance, complexity, and typicality) in two studies. Three key findings emerged from these empirical studies. First, we found that a multidimensional model improved model fit over the common positive/negative events framework at the event-, day-, and person-levels. Second, we found that accounting for additional affective and cognitive/typical event dimensions improved the explanation of daily well-being beyond the positive/negative event dimensions. The results specifically suggested that the addition of the specific affective dimensions improved

model fit in both studies. The cognitive dimensions improved model fit particularly in Study 2. Third, our results revealed specific patterns of relations between CAPTION dimensions and well-being indicators at the between- and within-person level. These findings are summarized in Table 10. At the within-person level, we especially found support for the idea that adversity is an important dimension that explains well-being outcomes beyond negative and positive event characteristics in both studies. Study 2 also provided evidence that more fine-grained discrete emotions are associated with complexity, importance, and typicality of events. Overall, negative and adverse events showed more and stronger links to well-being than positive/humorous or non-affective event dimensions.

Theoretical and Practical Implications

One theoretical implication of this research is that a multidimensional perspective provides some useful benefits for linking work events and occupational health. Our empirical findings provide evidence that supports assumptions of earlier research like event system theory (e.g., Morgeson et al., 2015) suggesting that cognitive dimensions are important. We found that adversity and importance—conceptually analog to the *disruption* and *criticality* dimensions in the EST framework—contributed to a better understanding of daily well-being at the between- and at the within-person level. Our findings at the within-person level are arguably most interesting because the within-person level provides insights into fluctuations in daily work life and especially the degree to which situational variations can explain these fluctuations.

A second theoretical implication is that our study provides initial evidence for specific links between event dimensions and daily well-being. These effects suggest that some dimensions are broadly relevant, and some dimensions only predict specific types of daily well-being. Adversity was linked to all seven well-being outcomes. In contrast, humor was only a

relevant predictor for positive well-being indicators and cognitive aspects of work events related to positive emotions (joy, pride) only, but did not contribute to negative aspects of well-being. For typicality we found, contrary to our expectations, a small positive relationship with anger and a small negative relationship with positive affect after work. We believe that these patterns provide a potential building block for future theory development. These specific links may also have practical implications because they can provide a better understanding of how employees react to certain types of events at work and can thus inform potential intervention strategies. For instance, our results suggest that encouraging humorous work events is associated with higher well-being. Earlier research has shown that a daily humor intervention increased happiness and decreased depression within one week (Wellenzohn et al., 2016). Likewise, our finding that cognitive aspects of events are linked to positive emotions suggests that small daily challenges and goals could directly strengthen well-being by increasing positive emotions at work.

Finally, the third implication of this work relates to our findings suggesting that negative and adverse events show more and stronger links to well-being than positive or humorous events. These findings are in line with earlier research documenting that bad is frequently stronger than good for predicting well-being outcomes at work (Bono et al., 2013; Eby et al., 2010; Gross et al., 2011; Zohar et al., 2003) Our findings are also in line with a broader stream of research suggesting that negative experiences are typically stronger than positive ones (Baumeister et al., 2001).

Strengths and Limitations

The present studies have several strengths. First, both studies are based on the elaborate diary and ESM designs with multiple measurement points per day. These designs enabled the participants to describe their events very shortly after they occurred and reduced hindsight bias.

Second, both studies assessed work events with the full set of seven CAPTION dimensions as well as an overall set of seven different well-being indicators and thereby highlight the potential for future applications. The comprehensive assessment of events showed that CAPTION is a suitable measure for daily work events and enabled us to reduce the number of items per dimension to limit the load for participants in future diary and ESM designs. The broad assessment of well-being allowed us to get more detailed insight into the diverse event dimension/well-being link and, thus, serves as a basis for future research.

The studies have also several limitations. A limitation of Study 1 is the fact that we did not have objective data on when the participants filled in the surveys due to the paper/pencil design of the study. However, we instructed participants to fill in the survey at the requested time points and to indicate the weekday, date, and time when they answered the survey. Participants in this study had no incentive to not answer these questions truthfully. However, like with the other responses in both studies and in all survey research, we cannot rule out this possibility. Study 2 addressed this potential limitation by collecting digital time stamps on when participants filled in the survey.

A limitation of both studies is the fact that the research design was quite time-intensive because participants needed to fill in a relatively large number of questionnaires. However, we partly addressed this limitation by developing a shortened version of the CAPTION-SF with just three items for each dimension. The use of this measure could be feasible in a variety of future research settings. This being noted, researchers likely need to balance time consumption in their research against the benefits of a multidimensional perspective. From our data, it is also clear that the positive/negative taxonomy used in earlier research captures a considerable amount of variability in work event experiences.

Future Research

For future research, a multidimensional perspective on work events may be useful to study relationships between events and well-being outcomes in more detail. For instance, our findings on affective well-being could be expanded to also study physical well-being in the future. Earlier research studied how work events relate to employees' physical well-being, however, the results are inconclusive (Bono et al., 2013; Koopmann et al., 2016; Meier et al., 2014). A more detailed dimensionality of events may help to disentangle the effects of work events on physical well-being.

Overall, a multidimensional approach including specific affective dimensions, cognitive, and typicality dimensions offers more opportunities for researchers to select dimensions that are relevant for their specific research questions. For example, researchers interested in burnout could focus on the adversity event dimension. In contrast, researchers interested in performance and innovation can opt for cognitive dimensions such as complexity and importance.

Conclusion

In this article, our goal was to broaden perspectives on work events. Our findings suggest that a multidimensional perspective on measuring work events provides insights beyond earlier research focusing on a two-dimensional positive/negative framework on daily work events. The additional dimensions explain daily well-being and show unique relationship patterns with well-being outcomes at the within- and between-person level. We believe that these findings provide a building block for more fine-grained work event research within and beyond occupational health psychology.

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Table 1

Overview of Studies on Work Events and Well-being at Work

Authors	Sample, design, and analyses	Measure of work events	Measure of well-being	Main findings
Basch and Fisher (1998)	<i>N</i> = 101 (hotel employees) Retrospective survey Qualitative data analysis	Work event (description)	Emotions (affection, pleasure, happiness, pride, optimism, enthusiasm, frustration, anger, disgust, unhappiness, disappointment, embarrassment, worry, relief, fear, hurt, bitterness, annoyance, and sadness)	1) Work events were categorized into 14 positive event categories that predicted positive emotions 2) Work events were categorized into 13 negative event categories that predicted negative emotions 3) The same event category instigated different emotional reactions in different people
Beehr et al., (2000)	<i>N</i> = 198 (bookdealers) Retrospective survey Regression analysis	List of 24 occupation-specific stressful events (occurrence)	Depression Frustration	1) Stressful events increased depression 2) There was no relationship between stressful events and frustration
Bledow et al. (2011)	<i>N</i> = 55 (software developers) ESM 2x per day HLM	Negative events (frequency) Positive events (frequency) List including 3 positive events + 3 negative events + additional events	Positive affect Negative affect Work engagement	1) Negative events decreased work engagement (mediated by negative affect) 2) Positive events increased work engagement (mediated by positive affect)
Bono et al. (2013)	<i>N</i> = 61 (health care professions) ESM 4x per day (15 workdays) HLM	Negative events (frequency) Positive events (frequency) Work-family-conflict (frequency) Every 2 hours: list including events of all 3 types	Systolic blood pressure Perceived strain	1) Positive events decreased perceived strain 2) Negative events increased perceived strain 3) Work-family-conflict increased perceived strain 4) No relation between positive events and blood pressure 5) Negative events increased blood pressure 6) Work-family-conflict increased blood pressure

Table 1 (continued)

Overview of Studies on Work Events and Well-being at Work

Authors	Sample, design, and analyses	Measure of work events	Measure of well-being	Main findings
Braukmann et al. (2018)	<i>N</i> = 154 (different industries) Diary 3x per day on weekdays, 2x per day on weekend days (8 consecutive days) HLM	Positive ICT events (occurrence) Negative ICT events (occurrence) List of 2 positive and 3 negative ICT event clusters	Detachment from work Quality of sleep	1) Negative ICT events partwise decrease work detachment (relation with e-mails and continue work task, no relation with work calls) 2) Negative ICT events partwise sleep quality detachment (relation with e-mails and work calls, no relation with continue work task) 3) Positive ICT events decrease work detachment 4) No relation between positive ICT events and sleep quality
Casper et al. (2019)	<i>N</i> (Time 1) = 1,039; <i>N</i> (Time 2) = 849; <i>N</i> (Time 3) = 815 3-wave longitudinal study Path modeling	Positive interpersonal work events (PIWE) Positive task-related work events (PTWE) Negative interpersonal work events (NIWE) Negative task-related work events (NTWE)	Positive affect Negative affect	1) Positive affect increased PIWE from T1 to T2 and from T2 to T3 2) Positive affect increased PTWE from T1 to T2 and from T2 to T3 3) Negative affect increased NIWE from T1 to T2 and from T2 to T3 4) Negative affect increased NTWE from T1 to T2 and from T2 to T3 5) NTWE increased negative affect from T2 to T3
Demerouti and Cropanzano (2016)	<i>N</i> = 112 (different professions) Diary design 2x per day (3 days) HLM	Negative events (intensity) Description of a negative work event that day	Positive affect Work engagement	1) Negative events decreased positive affect 2) Negative events decreased work engagement 3) No relation between negative events and positive affect and work engagement the following day
Diefendorff et al. (2019)	<i>N</i> = 250 (call center service) ESM (30 surveys over 10 workdays) Multilevel path analysis	Customer incivility (intensity)	Positive affect Negative affect Emotional exhaustion Psychological vitality	1) Customer incivility decreases positive affect 2) Customer incivility increases negative affect 3) Customer incivility increases emotional exhaustion via affect and emotion regulation 4) No relation between customer incivility and psychological vitality

Table 1 (continued)

Overview of Studies on Work Events and Well-being at Work

Authors	Sample, design, and analyses	Measure of work events	Measure of well-being	Main findings
Elfering et al. (2005)	<i>N</i> = 23 (counselling agency employees) Diary, event-based (7 days) HLM	Stressful events (stressfulness, controllability)	Well-being (mood)	1) Stressfulness of events decreased well-being 2) Controllability of events increased well-being
Fifield et al. (2004)	<i>N</i> = 27 (working rheumatoid arthritis patients) Diary 3x per day (20 workdays) HLM	List of 86 undesirable work events (frequency)	Negative mood Physical pain	1) Undesirable work events in the morning increased negative mood at midday 2) Undesirable work events in the morning increased physical pain at midday
Fuller et al. (2003)	<i>N</i> = 14 (administrative and classified staff) ESM 1x per day (14-18 weeks) Transfer Function Analysis	Stressful events (intensity) 2 open questions on stressful events Word-count method	Job satisfaction Perceived strain	1) Intensity of the stressful event increased strain the same day and decreased strain the following day 2) Intensity of the stressful event decreased job satisfaction the same day and increased job satisfaction the following day (mediated by perceived strain)
Grandey et al., (2002)	<i>N</i> = 36 (part-time working students) Diary, event-based (2 workweeks) HLM	Work events that caused strong feelings of love, happiness, anger, sadness, and fear (average intensity, intensity)	Positive affect (trait) Negative affect (trait) Job satisfaction Turnover intention	1) PA marginally increased positive emotional events 2) NA increased negative emotional events 3) There was no relation between positive emotional events and job satisfaction or turnover intention 4) There was no relation between negative emotional events and job satisfaction 5) Negative emotional events (esp. sadness) increased turnover intention (only for average intensity, not for intensity) 6) Results were similar for average intensity and intensity of emotional events

Table 1 (continued)

Overview of Studies on Work Events and Well-being at Work

Authors	Sample, design, and analyses	Measure of work events	Measure of well-being	Main findings
Grandey et al. (2004)	<i>N</i> = 198 (call center employees) Retrospective survey Path modeling	Customer verbal aggression calls (frequency, stress appraisal)	Emotional exhaustion Absence days	1) Frequency of customer verbal aggression increased emotional exhaustion 2) Stress appraisal of customer verbal aggression increased emotional exhaustion 3) Frequency of customer verbal aggression was unrelated to absence days 4) Stress appraisal of customer verbal aggression increased absence days
Gross et al. (2011)	<i>N</i> = 76 (government agents) 3-waves longitudinal study Event-based diary design 3x2 working days (in a range of 6 months) HLM	Negative events (frequency) Positive events (frequency) Red (negative events) and green (positive events) diary Description of/questions on events	Fatigue Chronic social stressors	1) Negative events increased fatigue 2) No relation between positive events and fatigue 3) Positive events decreased fatigue on days with more negative events 4) Positive events decreased fatigue when social stress was high
Hoobler et al. (2010)	<i>N</i> = 1167 (different professions) 2-waves longitudinal study (12 months apart) SEM	Generalized workplace harassment (GWH, frequency) Positive job experience (PJE, frequency) GWH list (considering the last 12 months) PJE list (considering the last 12 months)	Job stress Mental health Physical health	1) GWH positively predicted job stress at T1 and T2 2) PJE negatively predicted job stress at T1 and T2 3) GWH negatively predicted mental health at T1/T2 4) PJE positively predicted mental health at T1/T2 5) GWH negatively predicted physical health at T1/T2 6) PJE positively predicted physical health at T1/T2

Table 1 (continued)

Overview of Studies on Work Events and Well-being at Work

Authors	Sample, design, and analyses	Measure of work events	Measure of well-being	Main findings
Ilies, Keeney, et al. (2011)	<i>N</i> = 52 (non-profit organization) ESM 2x per day (3 weeks) HLM	Positive events (frequency) Most positive event (intensity) List of 36 positive events description/rating of the most positive event	Positive affect Negative affect Job satisfaction	1) Intensity of the most positive event increased positive affect 2) Frequency of positive events increased positive affect 3) No relation between the intensity of the most positive event and job satisfaction 4) Frequency of positive events increased job satisfaction (mediated by positive affect)
Ilies, Johnson, et al. (2011)	<i>N</i> = 49 (university employees) ESM 3x per day (2 weeks) HLM	Interpersonal conflict Social support List of conflict and support situations	Negative affect	1) Interpersonal conflict increased negative affect 2) Social support decreased the effect of interpersonal conflict on negative affect
Ilies et al. (2013)	<i>N</i> = 131 (university employees) Retrospective design (over 2 weeks) HLM	Positive events (frequency) Most positive event (intensity) List of positive events Description of the most important positive event that week/pleasantness rating	Positive affect Life satisfaction	1) Intensity of the most positive event increased positive affect 2) Frequency of positive events increased positive affect 3) Intensity of the most positive event increased life satisfaction 4) No relation between the frequency of positive events and life satisfaction
Koopmann et al. (2016)	<i>N</i> = 75 (different professions) ESM 3x per day (10 days) HLM	Positive work events (frequency) List of 4 positive and 5 negative events	Mood Psychosomatic complaints	1) Positive events increased positive mood (mediated by promotion focus) 2) Positive events decreased psychosomatic complaints (mediated by promotions focus)

Table 1 (continued)

Overview of Studies on Work Events and Well-being at Work

Authors	Sample, design, and analyses	Measure of work events	Measure of well-being	Main findings
Kuba and Scheibe (2017)	<i>N</i> = 95 (health care professionals) ESM 1x per day (10 days) HLM	Negative events (frequency) Open questions on stressful or pleasant events (up to 6 events per day)	Negative affect (end of the day) Fatigue (end of the day) Work engagement	1) Negative events increased negative affect 2) Negative events increased fatigue 3) Negative events decreased work engagement
Matta et al. (2014)	<i>N</i> = 50 (software programmers) Diary 1x per day (10 working days) Multilevel path analysis	Work event (occurrence) Open questions on 1 event per day (Positive coded as +1, negative events coded as -1)	Negative affect	1) Positive work events decrease negative affect after work 2) Negative work events increase negative affect after work
Meier et al. (2014)	<i>N</i> = 69 (different professions) Diary 2x per day (2 weeks) HLM	Conflict at work (intensity) Single item question	State job satisfaction State depression State somatic complaints	1) Conflict decreased state job satisfaction (when chronic depression symptoms were high) 2) Conflict increased state depression (when chronic depression symptoms were high) 3) Conflict increased state somatic complaints (when chronic depression symptoms were high)
Mignonac and Herrbach (2004)	<i>N</i> = 203 (managers) Cross-sectional study Linear regression	Positive events Negative events (weighted frequency) List of 19 possible events in the past 2 months Rating scale from 1 (very negative impact) over 3 (no impact) to 5 (very positive impact)	Frequency of emotions in the past week: Pleasure, comfort, tiredness, anger, anxiety Job satisfaction	1) Negative events increased tiredness, anger, and anxiety 2) Negative events decreased pleasure and comfort 3) Negative events decreased work engagement 4) Positive events increased pleasure and comfort 5) Positive events decreased tiredness 6) Positive events increased work engagement

Table 1 (continued)

Overview of Studies on Work Events and Well-being at Work

Authors	Sample, design, and analyses	Measure of work events	Measure of well-being	Main findings
Miner et al. (2005)	<i>N</i> = 41 (different professions) ESM 2x per day (2-3 workweeks) HLM	Positive events (work events supervisor events, coworker events) Negative events (work events supervisor events, coworker events) (occurrence)	Hedonic tone	1) All three groups of negative events decreased hedonic tone 2) Positive work and coworker events increased hedonic tone 3) There was no relation between positive supervisor events and hedonic tone 4) Negative events have a stronger effect on hedonic tone than positive events
Moore et al. (2004)	<i>N</i> = 1,244 (manufactory workers) 2-wave study (2 years apart) MANCOVA	Layoff event (occurrence)	Depression Physiological health complaints	1) Layoff events increased depression 2) Layoff events increased physiological health complaints
Ohly and Schmitt (2013)	<i>N</i> = 218 (full-time employees) Diary 2x per day (<i>N</i> = 155 for 2 weeks, <i>N</i> = 63 for 4 days) Concept mapping, HLM	Positive events (occurrence, description) Negative events (occurrence, description)	Enthusiasm, at rest, anger, worry, exhaustion	1) 4 clusters of positive events (PE) 2) 7 clusters of negative events (NE) 3) 4 PE clusters correlate with enthusiasm 4) 3 PE clusters correlate with at rest 5) 6 NE clusters correlate with anger 6) 3 NE clusters correlate with worry 7) 3 NE clusters correlate with exhaustion 8) event clusters predict additional variance beyond occurrence of PE/NE alone in at rest, anger, worry

Table 1 (continued)

Overview of Studies on Work Events and Well-being at Work

Authors	Sample, design, and analyses	Measure of work events	Measure of well-being	Main findings
Parker et al. (2020)	<i>N</i> = 72 (software programmers) Diary 3x per day (5 working days) Multilevel mediation path model	Goal frustrating event (occurrence) Goal attainment event (occurrence)	Evening relaxation Next-morning energy	1) Goal frustration event decrease evening relaxation between and within persons 2) Goal attainment event increase evening relaxation between but not within persons 3) Goal-frustration events decrease next morning energy via evening relaxation within but not between persons 4) No relation between goal-attainment events on next morning energy
Paterson and Cary, (2002)	<i>N</i> = 71 (employees in the public sector) Retrospective survey Path analysis	Downsizing event (intensity of affective appraisal)	Change anxiety	1) Negative affective appraisal increased change anxiety compared to positive affective appraisal
Potter et al. (2002)	<i>N</i> = 109 (working female arthritis patients) Longitudinal study, weekly phone interviews (12 weeks) HLM	List of 9 work-related interpersonal stressor events	Negative affect Disease-specific physical well-being	1) Interpersonal stressor events increased negative affect 2) Interpersonal stressor events decreased disease-specific physical well-being

Table 1 (continued)

Overview of Studies on Work Events and Well-being at Work

Authors	Sample, design, and analyses	Measure of work events	Measure of well-being	Main findings
Rothbard and Wilk (2011)	<i>N</i> = 28 customer service representatives ESM 3x per day (3 weeks) HLM	Perceived customer positive affective display during a call Perceived customer negative affective display during a call	Positive affect Negative affect	1) Start-of-workday positive mood was positively related to perceived customer positive affective display 2) Start-of-workday negative mood was positively related to perceived customer negative affective display 3) Perceived customer positive affective display was positively related to employee positive affect subsequent to the call 4) Perceived customer negative affective display was negatively related to employee negative affect subsequent to the call
Rueff Lopes et al. (2017)	<i>N</i> = 80 (call center service) Diary 1x per day (10 workdays) ANN	Positive customer-related events (occurrence, description) Negative customer-related events (occurrence, description)	Positive affect Negative affect Cardiovascular efficiency	1) Negative affect aroused by customer-related events increased cardiovascular efficiency 2) Positive affect aroused by customer-related events increased cardiovascular efficiency
Todorova, Bear, and Weingart (2014)	<i>N</i> = 232 (health care professions) 2-wave longitudinal study (2 months apart) HLM	Mild/intense task conflict Task conflict expression scale	Positive active emotions Job satisfaction	1) Mild task conflict increased positive active emotions (mediated by information acquisition) 2) Intense task conflict decreased positive active emotions (mediated by information acquisition) 3) Mild task conflict increased job satisfaction (mediated by information acquisition and positive active emotions) 4) Intense task conflict decreased job satisfaction (mediated by information acquisition and positive active emotions)

Table 1 (continued)

Overview of Studies on Work Events and Well-being at Work

Authors	Sample, design, and analyses	Measure of work events	Measure of well-being	Main findings
Volmer et al. (2012)	<i>N</i> = 138 (civil service agents) Diary design 2x per day (5 days) HLM	Social customer conflict (SCC, weighted frequency) List of 16 items on social customer conflict (rating scale 1-5)	Work detachment Positive affect Negative affect	1) SCC increased negative affect 2) No relation between SCC and positive affect 3) SCC decreased work detachment (mediated by negative affect)
Wang et al. (2019)	<i>N</i> = 200 (university employees) ESM 5x per day (8 successive workdays) MSEM	Achievement events (frequency) Recognition events (frequency) List of achievement and recognition events (before noon)	Work engagement Autonomy-need satisfaction Competence-need satisfaction Relatedness-need satisfaction	1) Achievement events increased work engagement 2) Recognition events increased work engagement 3) Achievement events increased autonomy-/ competence-/ relatedness-need satisfaction 4) Recognition events increased competence-/ relatedness-need satisfaction
Zohar (1999)	<i>N</i> = 41 (military jump masters) Diary 3x per day (5 working days) Pooled-time series analysis	Unexpected hassles (severity)	Negative mood Fatigue	1) Daily unexpected hassle severity increased negative mood 2) Daily unexpected hassle severity increased fatigue 3) The relationship between hassle severity and negative mood was stronger when assignment complexity was high
Zohar et al. (2003)	<i>N</i> = 78 (health care professionals) ESM 3x per day (3 days) HLM	Goal-disruptive events (frequency) Goal-enhancing events (frequency) 3 questions on goal-disruptive events, 3 questions on goal-enhancing events	Positive affect Negative affect Fatigue	1) Goal-disruptive events increased negative affect 2) Goal-enhancing events increased positive affect 3) Goal-disruptive events increased fatigue 4) No relation between goal-enhancing events and fatigue

Note. The studies in Table 1 are an illustrative collection of articles on the relation of affective work events on well-being. We include articles published since the release of the affective event framework in 1996. Specifically, we include articles from *Academy of Management Journal*, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *Work and Stress*, *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *Applied Psychology—An International Review*, and *Motivation and Emotion*. We used the keywords “work events well-being”, “affective events well-being”, “work events affect”, “affective work events”, “positive work events”, “negative work events”, “work event conflict”, “well-being event conflict”, and “conflict at work well-being”. We restricted the results to quantitative research on self-contained events with a clear beginning and end. We further excluded studies describing broad behavior, general stress, and general conflict as events. Additionally, we included Basch and Fisher (1998) as a central article on the topic of work events and affective reactions. ESM = Experience Sampling Method; HLM = Hierarchical Linear Modeling; SEM = Structural Equation Modeling; MSEM = Multilevel Structural Equation Modeling.

Table 2

Study 1: Fit Indices for All Confirmatory Factor Analysis Models for Work Events Nested in Persons and for Workdays Nested in Persons, and Fit Indices for the Measurement Model for Workdays Nested in Persons including Emotional Exhaustion, Positive and Negative Affect

Structure	<i>k</i>	χ^2	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>CFI</i>	<i>RMSEA</i>	<i>SRMR</i> <i>between</i>	<i>SRMR</i> <i>within</i>
CFA								
Events nested in persons								
Model 1: 2-factor model	3,693	25,664.083	698	<.001	.522	.098	.216	.141
Model 2: 4-factor model	3,693	11,361.246	688	<.001	.796	.065	.159	.096
Model 3: 7-factor model	3,693	6,010.349	658	<.001	.898	.047	.142	.078
Model 4: 7-factor model, reduced	3,693	1,796.766	336	<.001	.962	.034	.094	.048
Days nested in persons								
Model 1: 2-factor model	1,172	9,207.666	698	<.001	.531	.102	.243	.143
Model 2: 4-factor model	1,172	4,532.054	688	<.001	.788	.069	.169	.098
Model 3: 7-factor model	1,172	2,636.527	658	<.001	.891	.051	.179	.081
Model 4: 7-factor model, reduced	1,172	889.914	336	<.001	.958	.038	.096	.046
Measurement model								
Days nested in persons								
Model 5: CAPTION and EE/PANAS	1,172	4,543.663	1,830	<.001	.903	.036	.092	.042

Note. *k* = events/days nested in *N* = 242 persons. CFI = confirmatory fit index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; SRMR = standardized root mean square residual; CFA = confirmatory factor analysis; EE = emotional exhaustion; PANAS = positive affect negative affect scale.

p* < .05; *p* < .01.

Table 3

Study 1: Latent Variable Correlations from the Measurement Model (Model 5) for all CAPTION Dimensions, Emotional Exhaustion (After Work), Positive Affect, and Negative Affect (Morning and After Work) and Latent Variable Reliabilities at the Between- and at the Within-Person Level

Variable	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.
1. Positive affect (morning)	—	-.56**	.02	-.03	.19**	.03	.08*	.09*	-.03	-.13**	.22**	-.05
2. Negative affect (morning)	.06	—	.03	.15**	-.09*	-.06	-.08	-.01	.13**	.18**	-.10*	.17**
3. Complexity	.24**	.30**	—	-.18**	.06	.28**	.62**	-.12**	-.10*	-.03	.08	-.08
4. Adversity	.01	.48**	-.00	—	-.54**	-.32**	-.54**	-.17**	.50**	.49**	-.37**	.45**
5. Positive valence	.26**	.37**	.52**	.08	—	.09*	.36**	.40**	-.28**	-.26**	.32**	-.18**
6. Typicality	.21*	.19*	.34**	-.04	.00	—	.39**	.02	-.21**	-.14**	.07	-.12**
7. Importance	.25**	.13	.74**	-.12	.48**	.46**	—	-.00	-.34**	-.23**	.26**	-.25**
8. Humor	.21*	.35**	.32**	.34**	.30**	.18	.26**	—	-.00	-.14**	.23**	-.04
9. Negative valence	.16	.63**	.15	.58**	.15	.13	.15	.73**	—	.35**	-.23**	.37**
10. Emotional exhaustion	-.08	.47**	.12	.59**	.15	.13	.13	.24**	.43**	—	-.62**	.70**
11. Positive affect (after work)	.85**	-.03	.31**	.02	.34**	.24**	.33**	.32**	.09	-.10	—	-.67**
12. Negative affect (after work)	.05	.91**	.29**	.63**	.36**	.07	.23*	.57**	.91**	.68**	.08	—
Reliability between	.93	.84	.88	.91	.90	.97	.94	.85	.87	.94	.92	.85
Reliability within	.83	.63	.73	.89	.87	.89	.87	.64	.73	.87	.82	.74

Note. Correlations below the diagonal are between-person correlations ($N = 242$). Correlations above the diagonal are within-person correlations ($k = 1,172$). Reliability is calculated using confirmatory factor analysis-based Cronbach's α estimation.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

Table 4

Study 1: Fit Indices for All Competing Structural Models and Results for χ^2 Difference Tests for Emotional Exhaustion, Positive and Negative Affect

Structure	χ^2	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR <i>between</i>	SRMR <i>within</i>
Structural model							
Model 6a: constrained P + N predict EE/PANAS	4,709.503	1,860	<.001	.898	.036	.101	.050
Model 6b: constrained P + N + A + O predict EE/PANAS	4,571.498	1,848	<.001	.903	.035	.094	.043
vs. Model 6a	132.219***	12		-.005	.001	.007	.007
Model 6c: constrained P + N + C + I + T predict EE/PANAS	4,680.733	1,842	<.001	.899	.036	.102	.048
vs. Model 6a	32.635*	18		-.001	.000	.001	.002
Model 6d: unconstrained full CAPTION predicts EE/PANAS	4,543.663	1,830	<.001	.903	.036	.092	.042
vs. Model 6a	161.122***	30		-.005	.000	.009	.008
vs. Model 6b	28.627	18		.000	-.001	.002	.001
vs. Model 6c	128.622***	12		-.004	.000	.010	.006

Note. *k* = 1,172 days nested in *N* = 242 persons. CFI = confirmatory fit index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; SRMR = standardized root mean square residual; CFA = confirmatory factor analysis; EE = emotional exhaustion; PANAS = positive affect negative affect scale; P = positive valence; N = negative valence; A = adversity; O = humor; C = complexity; I = importance; T = typicality.

p* < .05; *p* < .01; ****p* < .001.

Table 5

Study 1: Structural Equation Estimates and Test Statistics for the Structural Model (Model 6d) Predicting Emotional Exhaustion After Work, Positive Affect After Work, and Negative Affect After Work with All Seven CAPTION Dimensions Controlled for Positive Affect in the Morning and Negative Affect in the Morning at the Between- and at the Within-Person Level

Variable	Emotional exhaustion		Positive affect		Negative affect	
	Estimate	<i>z</i>	Estimate	<i>z</i>	Estimate	<i>z</i>
Between person						
Positive affect (morning)	-.15	-1.85	.79	9.28**	-.07	-0.89
Negative affect (morning)	.23	1.11	-.09	-0.49	.54	2.44*
Complexity	-.14	-0.81	-.04	-0.25	-.01	-0.06
Adversity	.54	4.05**	.15	1.32	.08	0.58
Positive valence	.02	0.14	.09	0.73	.02	0.17
Typicality	.08	0.75	.05	0.53	-.15	-1.33
Importance	.26	1.35	.08	0.47	.18	0.91
Humor	-.01	-0.04	.36	1.63	-.08	-0.34
Negative valence	-.03	-0.10	-.35	-1.20	.58	1.75
Within person						
Positive affect (morning)	-.10	-2.11*	.24	4.43**	.00	0.08
Negative affect (morning)	.04	0.70	.09	1.56	.10	1.64
Complexity	.03	0.46	-.01	-0.18	-.00	-0.06
Adversity	.46	8.28**	-.27	-4.61**	.40	6.51**
Positive valence	.07	1.51	.03	0.48	.11	1.98*
Typicality	.02	0.44	-.08	-2.05*	.05	1.36
Importance	.04	0.57	.11	1.63	-.03	-0.37
Humor	-.08	-1.83	.15	3.10**	-.02	-0.30
Negative valence	.15	3.41**	-.07	-1.50	.19	3.95**
Model 6a: R^2 between		.31		.80		1.00
Model 6a: R^2 within		.21		.17		.21
Model 6b: R^2 between		.44		.82		1.00
Model 6b: R^2 within		.28		.21		.24
Model 6c: R^2 between		.34		.83		1.00
Model 6c: R^2 within		.22		.19		.21
Model 6d: R^2 between		.46		.82		1.00
Model 6d: R^2 within		.28		.22		.25

Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

Table 6

Study 2: Fit Indices for All Confirmatory Factor Analysis Models for Work Events Nested in Persons and for Workdays Nested in Persons, and Fit Indices for the Measurement Model for Work Events Nested in Persons including Discrete Emotions at Work

Structure	<i>k</i>	χ^2	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>CFI</i>	<i>RMSEA</i>	<i>SRMR</i> <i>between</i>	<i>SRMR</i> <i>within</i>
CFA								
Events nested in persons								
Model 7: 7-factor model, reduced	1,587	642.792	336	<.001	.974	.024	.105	.046
Days nested in persons								
Model 7: 7-factor model, reduced	1,298	515.732	336	<.001	.964	.020	.075	.052
Measurement model								
Events nested in persons								
Model 8: CAPTION and emotions	1,587	1,540.102	880	<.001	.971	.022	.094	.043

Note. *k* = events/days nested in *N* = 295 persons. CFI = confirmatory fit index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; SRMR = standardized root mean square residual; CFA = confirmatory factor analysis.

p* < .05; *p* < .01.

Table 7

Study 2: Latent Variable Correlations from the Measurement Model (Model 8) for all CAPTION Dimensions and all Four Emotions at Work, and Latent Variable Reliabilities at the Between- and at the Within-Person Level

Variable	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.
1. Complexity	—	-.19**	.08*	.15**	.55**	-.17**	-.17**	.23**	.36**	-.19**	-.10*
2. Adversity	.42**	—	-.56**	-.40**	-.50**	-.36**	.64**	-.66**	-.52**	.81**	.34**
3. Positive valence	.11	.08	—	.17**	.37**	.47**	-.43**	.62**	.49**	-.45**	-.12*
4. Typicality	.32*	-.00	-.03	—	.32**	.12**	-.30**	.28**	.22**	-.27**	-.16**
5. Importance	.62**	-.01	.32**	.43**	—	-.03	-.43**	.48**	.54**	-.44**	-.21**
6. Humor	.22	.37	.45	-.00	.01	—	-.09	.39**	.24**	-.27**	-.07
7. Negative valence	.27	.70**	.14	-.09	-.12	.51**	—	-.44**	-.38**	.63**	.28**
8. Joy	.10	-.00	.45**	.28**	.44**	.21	-.22*	—	.76**	-.65**	-.31**
9. Pride	.29	.21	.53**	.19	.50**	.26	.06	.80**	—	-.51**	-.34**
10. Anger	.30*	.87**	.06	-.04	.00	.32	.73**	-.12	.14	—	.30**
11. Guilt	.19	.49**	.14	.05	.04	.39*	.54**	.02	.06	.55**	—
Reliability between	.71	.89	.89	.96	.95	.67	.87	.96	.90	.96	.92
Reliability within	.72	.80	.84	.88	.89	.71	.72	.91	.81	.91	.68

Note. Correlations below the diagonal are between-person correlations ($N = 295$). Correlations above the diagonal are within-person correlations ($k = 1,587$). Reliability is calculated using confirmatory factor analysis-based Cronbach's α estimation.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

Table 8

Study 2: Fit Indices for All Competing Structural Models and Results for χ^2 Difference Tests for Discrete Emotions at Work

Structure	χ^2	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>CFI</i>	<i>RMSEA</i>	<i>SRMR</i> <i>between</i>	<i>SRMR</i> <i>within</i>
Structural model							
Model 9a: constrained P+N predict emotions	1,890.091	920	<.001	.958	.026	.129	.056
Model 9b: constrained P+N+A+H predict emotions	1,617.918	904	<.001	.969	.022	.116	.052
vs. Model 9a	188.271***	16		-.011	.004	.013	.004
Model 9c: constrained P+N+C+I+T predict emotions	1,839.168	896	<.001	.959	.026	.116	.047
vs. Model 9a	187.534***	24		-.001	.000	.013	.009
Model 9d: unconstrained full CAPTION predicts emotions	1,540.102	880	<.001	.971	.022	.096	.043
vs. Model 9a	340.121***	40		-.013	.004	.033	.013
vs. Model 9b	166.687***	24		-.002	.000	.020	.009
vs. Model 9c	205.829***	16		-.012	.004	.010	.004

Note. $k = 1,587$ events nested in $N = 295$ persons. CFI = confirmatory fit index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; SRMR = standardized root mean square residual; CFA = confirmatory factor analysis; P = positive valence; N = negative valence; A = adversity; O = humor; C = complexity; I = importance; T = typicality. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

Table 9

Study 2: Structural Equation Estimates and Test Statistics for the Structural Model (Model 9d) Predicting Emotions at Work with All Seven CAPTION Dimensions at the Between- and at the Within-Person Level

Variable	Joy		Pride		Anger		Guilt	
	Estimate	<i>z</i>	Estimate	<i>z</i>	Estimate	<i>z</i>	Estimate	<i>z</i>
Between person								
Complexity	-.51	-1.37	-.24	-0.84	-.27	-1.17	-.24	-0.70
Adversity	.48	1.55	.41	1.59	.82	3.60**	.29	0.96
Positive valence	.20	1.02	.34	2.02*	-.08	-0.67	-.08	-0.44
Typicality	.14	1.19	.04	0.34	-.04	-0.54	.06	0.50
Importance	.55	1.56	.50	1.74	.26	1.15	.24	0.68
Humor	.34	1.31	.10	0.47	-.03	-0.20	.25	0.80
Negative valence	-.56	-2.20*	-.22	-0.99	.28	1.31	.34	1.36
Within person								
Complexity	.09	2.52*	.18	4.29**	-.04	-1.12	-.00	-0.05
Adversity	-.36	-6.95**	-.19	-3.45**	.72	12.56**	.30	3.64**
Positive valence	.30	7.45**	.21	4.63**	.04	1.06	.12	1.88
Typicality	.02	0.55	-.03	-0.88	.09	3.56**	-.01	-0.22
Importance	.15	3.62**	.27	5.73**	-.02	-0.44	-.05	-0.80
Humor	.15	3.78**	.12	2.65**	-.02	-0.67	-.00	-0.06
Negative valence	.01	0.30	-.01	-0.20	.20	4.43**	.11	1.29
Model 9a: R^2 between		.30		.35		.66		.31
Model 9a: R^2 within		.56		.37		.75		.15
Model 9b: R^2 between		.62		.62		.81		.36
Model 9b: R^2 within		.56		.37		.68		.13
Model 9c: R^2 between		.39		.45		.75		.38
Model 9c: R^2 within		.55		.43		.72		.14
Model 9d: R^2 between		.56		.48		.84		.40
Model 9d: R^2 within		.57		.44		.69		.13

Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

Table 10
Overview of Specific Relations Between CAPTION Dimensions and Well-being Indicators

Variable	Positive affect	Joy	Pride	Emotional exhaustion	Negative affect	Anger	Guilt
Between-person							
Complexity							
Adversity				x		x	
Positive valence			x				
Typicality							
Importance							
Humor							
Negative valence		x					
Within-person							
Complexity		x	x				
Adversity	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Positive valence		x	x		x		
Typicality	x					x	
Importance		x	x				
Humor	x	x	x				
Negative valence				x	x	x	

Note. x = significant link.

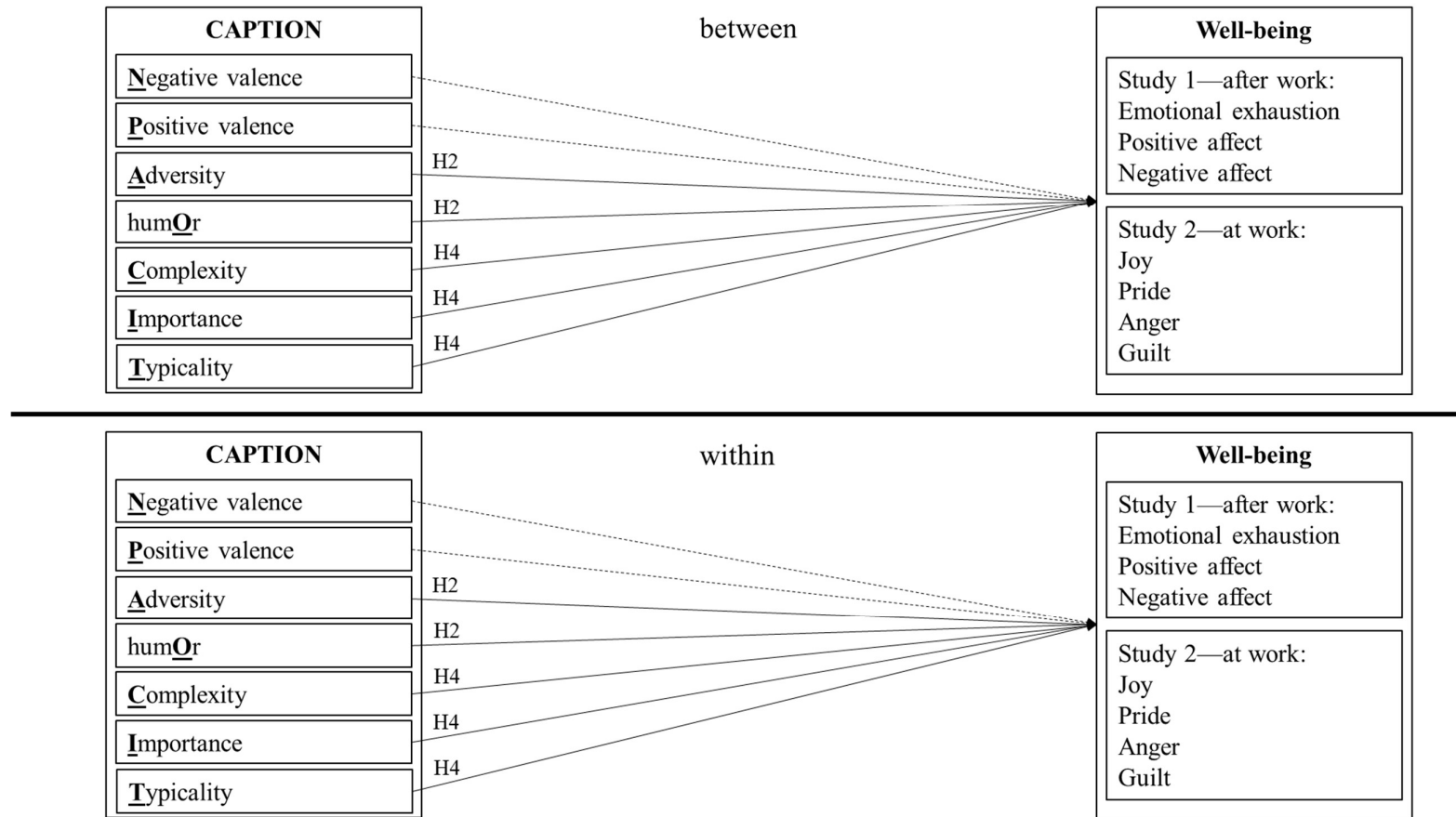


Figure 1. Proposed conceptual model presenting Hypotheses 2 and 4 at the between- and at the within-person level for Study 1 and Study 2. Hypothesis 2 suggests that specific affective dimensions of CAPTION (Adversity and humOr) explain daily well-being in form of emotional exhaustion, positive affect, and negative affect after work (Study 1) and in form of the discrete emotions joy, pride, anger, and guilt directly after the event (Study 2) over Positive and Negative valence of work events alone at the between-person level and at the within-person level. Hypothesis 4 suggests that cognitive and typical dimensions of CAPTION (Complexity, Importance, and Typicality) explain daily well-being in form of emotional exhaustion, positive affect, and negative affect after work (Study 1) and in form of the discrete emotions joy, pride, anger, and guilt directly after the event (Study 2) over Positive and Negative valence of work events alone at the between-person level and at the within-person level.

Appendix

Examples of Work Events Described by Participants and their Ratings on the CAPTION-SF Scale

	Event description					
	A regular customer complained that she has received the wrong medication.	Mail from a colleague who tried to avoid regulations and tried to pull me over the barrel. I insisted on the typical regulation.	A company that I tried to reach for three weeks finally called back.	Pep-talk from a colleague on all the literature that I have to read.	A colleague was in a bad mood.	The phone did not stop ringing.
Complexity						
Scholarly	0	0	1	2	0	0
Academic	0	0	0	3	0	0
Analytical	0	3	0	3	0	1
Instructional	0	2	0	0	0	1
Adversity						
Frustrating	4	4	0	0	4	3
Stressful	3	2	0	0	4	3
Tiresome	4	4	0	0	4	3
Fatiguing	4	2	0	0	3	3
Positive						
Valence						
Precious	0	0	4	3	0	0
Cherished	0	0	4	1	0	1
Heart-warming	0	0	2	2	0	0
Sentimental	4	3	0	0	2	0
Typicality						
Regular	3	4	0	2	2	1
Usual	3	4	0	1	2	3
Standard	2	3	0	0	0	2
Typical	2	3	0	1	1	1
Importance						
Productive	2	0	4	2	0	2
Effective	0	2	4	2	0	2
Useful	0	2	4	2	0	2
Helpful	0	1	4	3	0	1
Humor						
Goofy	1	3	0	0	3	0
Wacky	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mischievous	1	2	0	0	3	0
Childish	2	3	0	0	3	0
Negative						
Valence						
Repulsive	0	3	0	0	3	0
Malicious	0	3	0	0	2	0
Grotesque	2	2	0	0	2	0
Despicable	2	2	0	0	2	0