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REKINDLING THE FIRE AND STOKING THE FLAMES: HOW AND WHEN WORKPLACE INTERPERSONAL CAPITALIZATION FACILITATES PRIDE AND KNOWLEDGE SHARING AT WORK

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Sharing positive events with others is a phenomenon referred to as "capitalization." Extant theory on capitalization considers the process of disclosing positive events as socioemotional in nature. However, individuals capitalize in the context of workplace relationships that serve instrumental functions, pointing to the possibility that the process of capitalization may at times be instrumental as well. In this paper, we integrate theory on capitalization with the social-functionalist model of emotions to develop a model that explains how workplace interpersonal capitalization serves the instrumental function of spurring knowledge sharing. We identify pride as a linking mechanism between workplace interpersonal capitalization and knowledge sharing, and we argue that experiencing pride is contingent on employees disclosing positive events that they attribute to their own efforts. We also identify perceived coworker responsiveness as a boundary condition qualifying the association between pride and knowledge sharing. A source- and time-separated field study and an experience sampling field experiment with a daily intervention provide support for our hypothesized model. Overall, our work broadens the concept of capitalization and contributes to the social-functionalist model of emotions.

Employees routinely experience positive work events such as receiving supervisor compliments, finishing work tasks ahead of schedule, and successfully assisting clients (Clark, Robertson, & Carter, 2018; Koopmann, Lanaj, Bono, & Campana, 2016; Miner, Glomb, & Hulin, 2005; see also Gable & Haidt, 2005). One typical reaction to positive events is to communicate them to others—a process referred to as "capitalization" (Gable, Reis, Impett, & Asher, 2004). Originally conceptualized within the context of close, nonwork relationships (Gable et al., 2004; Peters, Reis, & Gable, 2018), capitalization is assumed to serve primarily socioemotional functions (Peters et al., 2018), which are oriented around fostering affective and relational well-being (Colbert, Bono, & Purvanova, 2016; Nezlek, Imbrie, & Shean, 1994; Pillemer & Rothbard, 2018). Accordingly, for those who disclose positive events (i.e., disclosers), capitalization has been associated with myriad positive relational outcomes, such as trust, commitment, and liking (Gable & Reis, 2010; Ilies, Liu, Liu, & Zheng, 2017; Peters et al., 2018). More recent research has demonstrated that workplace interpersonal capitalization (i.e., the process of sharing personal work-related positive events with coworkers) also impacts socioemotional outcomes for those who are targets

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(i.e., responders). Specifically, directing this form of communication toward coworkers has been shown to be reciprocated with interpersonal citizenship behavior (Watkins, 2021), which is affiliative and "maintains the fabric of social relations" in organizations (Settoon & Mossholder, 2002: 263). Thus, existing research of capitalization, including in the context of work relationships, is strongly rooted in the assumption that the functions of capitalization are socioemotional in nature.

However, social interactions that unfold within the context of workplace relationships cannot be fully understood without considering the unique nature of those relationships (Pillemer & Rothbard, 2018). Whereas close, nonwork relationships chiefly serve socioemotional functions such as caring and intimacy (Clark & Reis, 1988; Reis & Shaver, 1988), workplace relationships largely serve instrumental functions (Colbert et al., 2016; Ingram & Zou, 2008; Methot, Lepine, Podsakoff, & Christian, 2016), such as contributing to task- or career-related goals (Fitzsimons & Shah, 2008; Pillemer & Rothbard, 2018). Importantly, socioemotional and instrumental functions are theorized to be distinct (Fitzsimons & Shah, 2008; Ingram & Zou, 2008; Pillemer & Rothbard, 2018). This raises the possibility that capitalization might be beneficial for facilitating distinctly instrumental functions of work relationships; however, existing theory does not sufficiently address whether, how, or when this would be the case. With this research, we address these limitations by integrating theory on capitalization with the social-functionalist model of emotions (Tracy, Shariff, & Cheng, 2010) to posit that workplace interpersonal capitalization can foster disclosers' knowledge sharing, or "the sharing of expertise or know-how" (Cheng, Tracy, Foulsham, Kingstone, & Henrich, 2013: 103). Knowledge sharing is a prototypical instrumental behavior that not only contributes directly to organizational goals (Wang & Noe, 2010) but also garners professional prestige for individual employees, acting as a key outcome within the social-functionalist model (Tracy et al., 2010).

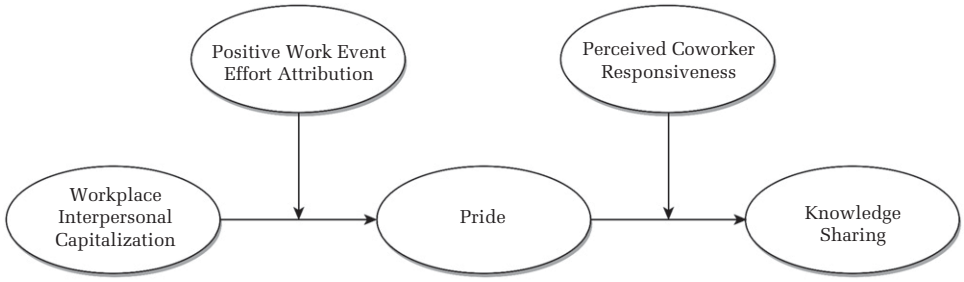
Going further, we identify the mechanism that connects the two workplace communication acts of capitalization and knowledge sharing. Because capitalization is self-enhancing, drawing disclosers' attention to their accomplishment of organizationally valued goals, it has the potential to spark an emotion congruent with those self-appraisals: authentic pride—a principal self-conscious emotion involving genuine feelings of self-worth resulting from self-credited achievements or prosocial acts (Tracy & Robins, 2007) (hereafter "pride").[1] Furthermore, the social-functionalist model of emotions posits that authentic pride motivates disclosers to further elevate their social standing by engaging in knowledge sharing. Thus, by integrating this theoretical perspective with theory on capitalization, we uncover *how* workplace interpersonal capitalization might encourage greater knowledge sharing with others at work.

Another key assumption underlying theory on capitalization is that "mundane everyday events may be just as influential as life-altering events, because it is the interpersonal nature of capitalization—the act of sharing and the response of the partner—that is key to reaping intrapersonal and interpersonal outcomes" (Peters et al., 2018: 2). This assumption is reasonable when considering that it is grounded in the context of close nonwork relationships, wherein socioemotional well-being takes primacy. This assumption implies that regardless of the shared event, capitalization is an opportunity for closer connection. However, if capitalization in workplace relationships can be instrumental in nature, then its outcomes may hinge on factors relevant to instrumental goals. Again drawing from the social-functionalist model of emotions (Tracy et al., 2010), we uncover *when* workplace interpersonal capitalization leads to pride—namely, when the positive event capitalized upon is attributed to effort (hereafter "effort attribution"), with effort attribution constituting a primary indicator of one's work-oriented goal progress. In doing so, we call into question the assumption in the capitalization literature that the nature or characteristics of the disclosed event are inconsequential.

Finally, we identify a key boundary condition that qualifies the association between pride and knowledge sharing. In accordance with theory on capitalization (Gable & Reis, 2010), we identify perceived coworker responsiveness (hereafter "responsiveness") as another important boundary condition, which in the current context reflects the extent to which a discloser infers caring and constructive responses to their capitalization attempts (Gable & Reis, 2010). Specifically, we argue that pride generated by positive event disclosure is more likely to lead to knowledge sharing when the discloser perceives higher levels of responsiveness in responders across capitalization interactions.

[1] Tracy and colleagues (2010) also consider "hubristic pride." We constrain our focus to "authentic pride" (i.e., "achievement-oriented pride") given that this type of pride is achievement-oriented and event-based, and therefore conceptually more fitting to positive event disclosure than its hubristic counterpart.

FIGURE 1
Theoretical Model



Demonstrating how the pride– knowledge sharing association is in fact conditional augments our understanding of *when* individuals outwardly seek prestige via knowledge sharing in response to feeling pride. In sum, our theoretical model (Figure 1) reflects an integration of extant theory on capitalization and the social-functionalist model of emotions. Our model suggests that workplace interpersonal capitalization enables employees to "rekindle the fire" of past positive work events, which encourages employees to "stoke the flames" via knowledge sharing.

The primary contribution of this paper is to broaden the concept of capitalization by developing theory centered on its instrumental potential. Whereas capitalization has previously been conceptualized as a purely socioemotional process (Gable & Reis, 2010), we propose that capitalization within work organizations also serves an instrumental function for disclosers by motivating them to share knowledge. In other words, we theorize that workplace interpersonal capitalization is undergirded by an instrumental process that is qualitatively distinct from the socioemotional process primarily postulated in the capitalization literature. Moreover, existing theory suggests that the positive event capitalized upon is trivial, and that it is the sharing of the event that chiefly influences capitalization's outcomes (Peters et al., 2018). We challenge this assumption by developing logic for how a discloser's effort attribution is a key boundary condition to the effects of capitalization. It is only when the focal event is attributed to effort that the instrumental process of capitalization is expected to become activated. This extension opens the door for subsequent theorizing about the characteristics of the positive events implicated in capitalization communications that might affect the process of capitalization. Finally, we also contribute to the social-functionalist model of emotions by postulating the boundary condition of responsiveness to the link between pride and knowledge sharing. This is an imperative extension when considering how the pride–knowledge sharing link has previously been conceptualized as evolutionary and universal (Tracy et al., 2010), implying an unbounded association.

THEORETICAL DEVELOPMENT

Capitalization

Events are discrete happenings that are bounded in space and time, and are distinct from features of the environment that are enduring and stable (Morgeson, Mitchell, & Liu, 2015). Seminal research in social psychology identified multiple ways of deriving additional benefit from positive events such as prolonging the enjoyment of events, anticipating events, and remembering events, which are all intrapersonal reactions referred to as savoring (Bryant, 1989; Langston, 1994). Subsequently, research in this domain evolved, having largely focused on the interpersonal reaction of telling others about one's good fortune, perhaps because of how common it is to share good news with others. Indeed, research has suggested that individuals tell someone else about their positive events between 60–80% of the time (Gable et al., 2004; Maisel, Gable, & Strachman, 2008; Reis et al., 2010). "Capitalization" is the label for this behavior of telling someone else about one's good fortune, also known as positive event disclosure.

Capitalization offers disclosers of positive events many advantages, including greater positive affect, self-esteem, and life satisfaction (Gable et al., 2004; Gable & Reis, 2010; Pagani, Donato, Parise, Iafrate, Bertoni, & Schoebi, 2015). Additionally, disclosers experience heightened levels of relationship quality, trust, and social acceptance from others when they capitalize (Gable et al., 2004; Gable, Gosnell, Maisel, and Strachman, 2012; Pagani et al., 2015; Reis et al.,

2010). Researchers have also studied the disclosure of positive events related to one's work. This research has shown that disclosing positive work events to one's spouse facilitates job satisfaction, family satisfaction, and work–family balance (Ilies, Keeney, & Scott, 2011; Ilies et al., 2017). Recent work has examined workplace interpersonal capitalization, or "the process of sharing personal work-related positive events with coworkers" (Watkins, 2021: 537), which is the conceptualization we adopt in the current study. Workplace interpersonal capitalization has been shown to elicit in responders emotional (i.e., inspiration, envy) and behavioral (i.e., citizenship behavior and social undermining targeted toward the discloser) reactions, with competition influencing whether these reactions are positive or negative (Watkins, 2021).

Across the many studies in the literature, capitalization has consistently been conceptualized as serving socioemotional ends. Indeed, the outcomes reviewed above are all oriented around affective or relationship well-being (Gable & Reis, 2010; Peters et al., 2018). Moreover, the process of capitalization has also been characterized as socioemotional, as evidenced by the mechanisms and boundary conditions of capitalization that are predominately relationally imbued, such as relationship quality (Demir, Haynes, & Potts, 2017; Kashdan, Ferssizidis, Farmer, Adams, & McKnight, 2013), relationship attachment (Gosnell & Gable, 2013; Shallcross, Howland, Bemis, Simpson, & Frazier, 2011), as well as cooperation and competition (Watkins, 2021). By extension, through integrating the social-functionalist model of emotions with theory on capitalization, we develop an instrumental perspective to broaden the current conceptualization of capitalization in the literature. In particular, we develop theory regarding its association with knowledge sharing—a prestige-seeking behavior that spurs work goals forward. In the following sections, we review the social-functionalist model of emotions and develop hypotheses regarding how and when capitalization leads to knowledge sharing.

Social-Functionalist Model of Emotions

The social-functionalist model of emotions was initially advanced by Tracy and Robins (2004) as a way to distinguish basic emotions (e.g., anger, happiness) from self-conscious emotions, which distinctively involve self-awareness, self-representation, and self-evaluation (Buss, 2001; James, 1890; Tracy & Robins, 2004; Tracy et al., 2010). This means that people experience positive self-conscious emotions "only when they become aware that they have lived up to … some actual or ideal self-representation" (Tracy & Robins, 2004: 105). Another distinguishing feature of self-conscious emotions is that they have evolved to specifically motivate the attainment of social acceptance and status (Tracy et al., 2010).

Pride is a key self-conscious emotion that is "generated by appraisals that one is responsible for a socially valued outcome" (Mascolo & Fischer, 1995: 66). Pride results from an appraisal that a positive event is relevant to one's identity and is internally caused (Lewis, 2016; Tracy & Robins, 2004; Weiner, 1985). Stated differently, pride is an affective response to self-caused accomplishments involving socially valued goals (Tracy & Robins, 2004; Williams & DeSteno, 2008). In the current paper, we focus on the emotion of pride given its relevance to positive events (e.g., achievements), which are a central component of capitalization.

The social-functionalist model of emotions (Tracy et al., 2010) is grounded in an evolutionary perspective of social groups and highlights how self-conscious emotions function to encourage socially approved behavior. The model posits that relative social status is a universal goal, as it signifies success at fulfilling fundamental human needs of both belonging and influence (Anderson, Hildreth, & Howland, 2015; Barkow, 1975; Cowlishaw & Dunbar, 1991; Hill, 1984). This view highlights how pride encourages individuals to seek prestige, which is a form of social status "granted to individuals who are recognized and respected for their skills, success, or knowledge" (Cheng et al., 2013: 105). Knowledge sharing is a prototypical behavior spurred by pride because "individuals who demonstrate knowledge and a willingness to share it" are afforded prestige-based social status by others (Tracy et al., 2010: 8). Knowledge sharing therefore benefits individuals in terms of garnering prestige and getting ahead in a social hierarchy, which is a tenet verified by empirical research. For example, across multiple laboratory experiments, participants who shared more knowledge experienced higher levels of influence over others (Cheng et al., 2013). Importantly, knowledge sharing has also evolved to benefit groups, as it provides learning opportunities for other group members (Cheng et al., 2013). This means that knowledge sharing affords individuals the opportunity to garner status with a behavior that is also prosocial, unlike other status-seeking behaviors such as intimidation (Cheng et al., 2013).

In the current research, we examine capitalization in the context of the workplace, wherein interpersonal interactions serve not only socioemotional

functions (e.g., getting along), but also instrumental functions (e.g., getting ahead) (Hogan & Shelton, 1998; Pillemer & Rothbard, 2018). In advancing our framework, we integrate theory on capitalization with the social-functionalist model of emotions—a model that specifically links feelings of pride in response to socially valued accomplishments to the instrumental behavior of knowledge sharing. In the next sections, we develop an explanation for how and when capitalization serves the instrumental function of encouraging knowledge sharing, which extends beyond socioemotional functions that have been the focus of prior capitalization research. We first describe how workplace interpersonal capitalization can elicit pride, yet explain that this elicitation is predicated on characteristics of the positive event capitalized upon, namely the extent to which the event is attributed to effort. We then highlight a key boundary condition to the pride-knowledge sharing link, namely responsiveness, thereby showing how and when this link is not as definitive as currently postulated in the pride literature.

Rekindling the Fire of Past Positive Work Events

In integrating theory on capitalization and the social-functionalist view of emotions, we suggest that workplace interpersonal capitalization is relevant to the experience of pride for two main reasons. First, capitalization should draw attention toward the self and the achievement of identity-related goals because psychologically revisiting the original positive events makes self-representation and self-evaluation salient, activating the process of self-enhancement and its corresponding feelings of pride. Second, capitalization should also highlight the relevance of individual positive work events to objectives valued by an individual's social group (Gable et al., 2004; Reis et al., 2010) because capitalization makes the success publicly known, and because positive work events are socially valued within organizations (Morgeson et al., 2015). Taken together, we argue that workplace interpersonal capitalization is germane to the positive self-conscious emotion of pride.

Empirical evidence indirectly supports this notion. To illustrate, capitalization induces positive affect above and beyond the positive affect that is yoked to the original event itself (Gable et al., 2004; Lambert et al., 2013; Rimé, 2007). In addition, research has shown that positive work events generate pride directly. For example, receiving praise at work (Grandey, Tam, & Brauburger, 2002; see also Bono et al., 2013) and being trusted (Baer, Dhensa-Kahlon, Colquitt, Rodell, Outlaw, & Long, 2015) are positively related to pride. Given that capitalization involves reliving emotions generated by the original event, this evidence indirectly supports the idea that sharing positive work events has the potential to elicit pride.

By extension, although we highlight the theoretical association between workplace interpersonal capitalization and pride, we do not expect this association to hold across all events that are capitalized upon. Rather, in accordance with the social-functionalist model of emotions, we argue that effort attribution is a boundary condition to the instrumental functionality of workplace interpersonal capitalization. Effort attribution refers to the degree to which an event is appraised as caused by a controllable internal factor (Tracy et al., 2010; Weiner, 1985). Effort attribution entails taking credit for one's success (Lazarus, 1991; Tracy & Robins, 2004). The social-functionalist model of emotions posits that "people feel pride … when they attribute the cause of events to some internal factor, taking credit for the situation" (Tracy & Robins, 2004: 116). Correspondingly, events high in effort attribution are appraised as caused by personal achievement and hard work, whereas events low in effort attribution are appraised as caused by external circumstances such as luck (Holbrook, Piazza, & Fessler, 2014). Therefore, events with high effort attribution are more likely to induce pride, as they signal relevance to socially valued instrumental goals in the workplace, such as task accomplishments and work achievements.

We correspondingly posit that workplace interpersonal capitalization elicits varying levels of pride based on whether the disclosed positive events are attributed to effort. When event effort attribution is high, capitalization should more strongly activate the self-conscious process that characterizes pride, compared to when event effort attribution is low. Exemplary positive work events that are typically high in effort attribution include completing a difficult work task, helping colleagues, and receiving praise for one's actions. In light of the social-functionalist model of emotions, capitalizing on such positive work events attributed to effort brings more attention to the self and makes one's work success evident to others, underscoring the relevance of such events to aims valued by coworkers or teammates, thereby activating the effect of capitalization on pride in disclosers (Tracy & Robins, 2004, 2007). In contrast, capitalizing on positive events low in effort attribution, such as receiving birthday wishes from colleagues, getting a new work computer, or

winning an office raffle would be unlikely to rekindle the self-conscious emotion of pride in disclosers because such events bring relatively less attention to the self and are less relevant to work-related goals.

These arguments are supported by cumulative evidence that individuals who attribute a positive event to their effort correspondingly experience relatively greater feelings of pride following the event (Dickens & Robins, 2020; Tracy & Robins, 2007; see also Holbrook et al., 2014). This research supports our claim that effort attribution should activate the stirring-up of pride induced by capitalizing on positive events. Likewise, these studies indirectly support the idea that when a positive work event that is capitalized upon is not attributed to effort, capitalization is unlikely to elicit the self-conscious emotion of pride. We therefore hypothesize that employees "rekindle the fire" of past positive work events when they share them with others, and when effort attribution for the event capitalized upon is high.

Hypothesis 1. The association between workplace interpersonal capitalization and pride is moderated by effort attribution, such that the association is positive when effort attribution is high, but not when effort attribution is low.

Stoking the Flames of Past Positive Work Events

We develop our model further by proposing that after employees "rekindle the fire" of their past positive events, they can subsequently be motivated to "stoke the flames." Per the social-functionalist model of emotions, pride is an "evolutionarily adaptive emotion" and meets the criteria for a "functional universal" attribute, meaning it universally evolved to serve particularly adaptive functions (Tracy et al., 2010: 2, 6). Specifically, pride serves the interlinked instrumental function of encouraging behaviors that increase one's social standing, having evolved to "help individuals transform culturally valued achievements into higher social status" (Tracy et al., 2010: 6), as well as "communicating critical social information between group members" (Martens, Tracy, & Shariff, 2012: 401). As reviewed above, knowledge sharing (i.e., the communication of expertise or know-how) is a prototypical behavior spurred by pride, as it facilitates prestige-based status. Empirical evidence has shown that sharing one's knowledge and expertise benefits the collective, thereby enabling individuals to gain and affirm their social influence (Anderson & Kilduff, 2009; Cheng et al., 2013; Wang & Noe, 2010). This suggests that in a workplace context, knowledge sharing is particularly instrumental for getting ahead by helping "uniquely communicate the high status" of individuals who experience pride (Shariff & Tracy, 2009: 631).

A core tenet of the social-functionalist view is that the pride–knowledge sharing relationship is evolutionary and universal in nature (Tracy et al., 2010). This view, however, overlooks the possibility that there may be important factors that qualify this association to where the effects of pride may at times be less universal, such that at times pride does *not* lead to knowledge sharing. Drawing from theory on capitalization, we suggest that pride felt in response to workplace interpersonal capitalization will motivate knowledge sharing to the extent that the discloser perceives responsiveness in coworkers during disclosures. In doing so, we challenge the notion that pride invariably functions to prompt knowledge sharing.

We posit that the association between pride and knowledge sharing is bounded by responsiveness, or the extent to which a discloser infers caring and constructive responses to their capitalization attempts (Gable & Reis, 2010). We focus on the boundary condition of responsiveness because it is perhaps the most central factor in capitalization resulting in benefits for disclosers (Peters et al., 2018). Indeed, "responsiveness is at the core of the interpersonal benefits … of capitalization" (Gable & Reis, 2010: 239). We suggest that responsiveness activates the instrumental behavioral functioning of pride felt in response to capitalization. Responsiveness is a suitable boundary condition in our theoretical framework because pride, knowledge sharing, and responsiveness are each fundamentally linked to social approval and acceptance (Cheng et al., 2010, 2013; Tracy & Robins, 2004).

In the current context, we hypothesize that the association between pride and knowledge sharing is stronger when responsiveness is high, and weaker when responsiveness is low. Responsiveness during capitalization reflects the extent to which a discloser is valued by responders (Gable & Reis, 2010). Responsiveness thus allows disclosers to gauge their social value during disclosure and use this information for subsequent interactions (Gable et al., 2012). Sharing work-related good news is a lower-stakes form of workplace communication; if coworkers do not value disclosers during these episodes, they will likely not value disclosers during knowledge sharing—a higher-stakes form of workplace communication (Cheng et al., 2013; Wang & Noe, 2010). Accordingly, when a discloser feels like they are valued during capitalization attempts, it will likely give

them extra confidence that their coworkers will also value their work contributions, and that sharing knowledge will favorably result in coworkers granting prestige-based status. In contrast, if a discloser does not feel valued during capitalization episodes due to coworkers being unresponsive, they will likely have the sense that their work contributions will not be valued by coworkers, and that sharing knowledge will fail to generate prestige. In essence, responsiveness is a barometer used to gauge future coworker reactions. Responsiveness therefore helps disclosers decide whether sharing knowledge with coworkers is a viable outlet for their pride. Simply stated, high (low) responsiveness indicates to disclosers that knowledge sharing is more (less) likely to produce prestige-based status, thereby providing more (less) motivation for knowledge sharing.

A study by Gable et al. (2012) supports our argument that responsiveness acts as a gauge for future expectations of how others will react in subsequent interactions. Specifically, individuals who reported higher (lower) levels of responsiveness across a series of capitalization episodes were more (less) likely to perceive others as being available for future social support. In support of our moderation argument, in an experiment, Reis and colleagues (2010) showed that disclosers were more apt to act prosocially toward responders (i.e., return an overpayment) when the responders exhibited responsiveness during capitalization. Although these studies have not examined the specific association between pride and knowledge sharing, they have nevertheless backed the idea that this association is contingent upon whether the discloser perceives that responders of capitalization exhibit responsiveness.

Hypothesis 2. The positive association between pride and knowledge sharing is moderated by responsiveness, such that the association is stronger when responsiveness is high (versus low).

So far, we have integrated theory on capitalization with the social-functionalist model of emotions to posit that employees can rekindle the fire of past positive work events when they engage in workplace interpersonal capitalization. Employees will feel pride when they capitalize at work, yet only when effort attribution is high, given that pride is a self-conscious emotion resulting primarily from events that are internally caused (Tracy & Robins, 2004; Weiner, 1985). We next argued that employees stoke the flames of their rekindled fire when they direct their pride toward knowledge sharing. Yet, in accordance with the tenet that responsiveness is a critical boundary to the outcomes of capitalization (Gable & Reis, 2010), we suggested that the pride–knowledge sharing association is bounded by responsiveness, such that the association is stronger (weaker) when responsiveness is higher (lower).

The above hypothesis development implies a two-stage moderated mediation model whereby workplace interpersonal capitalization is indirectly associated with knowledge sharing via pride, and that this association is moderated by event attribution at the first stage, and responsiveness at the second stage. This model implies that the effect of workplace interpersonal capitalization on knowledge sharing will be the strongest when effort attribution and responsiveness are both high. We thus advance the following moderated mediation hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3. The positive indirect association of workplace interpersonal capitalization on knowledge sharing via pride is moderated by effort attribution and responsiveness, such that the association is stronger when effort attribution and responsiveness are both high (versus when either or both are low).

OVERVIEW OF STUDIES

We conducted two studies to test our theoretical model. In Study 1, we surveyed employees of a large Chinese organization using a time- and source-separated design to examine the consequences of employees' general propensities to capitalize. In Study 2, using a sample of working professionals in the United Kingdom, we employed an experience sampling field experiment where we manipulated workplace interpersonal capitalization at the daily level. In this study, we tested whether employees vary in their knowledge sharing from day-to-day as a function of whether they capitalized on a past positive event on the given day. Our overall model testing therefore speaks to whether our model is "homologous," denoting the case when model relationships are similar in significance and magnitude at both the between-individual (Study 1) and within-individual (Study 2) levels of analysis (Chen, Mathieu, & Bliese, 2005; Kozlowski & Klein, 2000). We provide the data, syntax, analysis output, full study measures for all variables (Appendix A) here: https://osf.io/nzq7b/?view_only=298019938d8b4ab0bcdd713f057aa67c.

STUDY 1

We collected data from a privately owned manufacturing company in Eastern China, following preapproval from our affiliated Institutional Review

Board (IRB). This company designs, produces, and sells various types of mechanical gears. After contacting key executives to ensure that the company's organizational structure, policies, and working context fit with our research purpose, we were provided with a list of contact information for 524 full-time employees from 44 working teams, including 27 production teams, three research and development teams, and 14 administrative teams. Human resources (HR) managers introduced the purpose and procedure of our research and encouraged employees to participate in the study. Employees were informed that they would receive 20 RMB (about $3.10) and 30 RMB (about $4.70) for completing the first and the second surveys, respectively.

We designed and implemented a two-wave data collection, separating our independent and dependent variables by both time and source. In the Time 1 survey wave, we sent survey links to initial employees' (heretofore referred to as "disclosers") cell phones and emails, containing measures of workplace interpersonal capitalization, effort attribution, and the control variables of baseline pride, coworker friendship, task interdependence, positive event frequency, and team tenure, along with demographic information. One month later, disclosers received Time 2 survey links and completed measures of pride and responsiveness. At the end of the Time 2 survey, all participants took the role of targets, reporting the knowledge sharing of their coworkers in a round-robin manner (Warner, Kenny, & Stoto, 1979). Specifically, we asked participants to write down the names of all their team members; for participants with more than five team members, we asked for the names of the five team members with whom they worked most closely. Targets then assessed the extent to which each one of these team members shared work-related knowledge and information with them. We later matched these knowledge-sharing reports to the corresponding focal discloser for analysis.

In total, we matched 448 individual discloser reports with 1,989 round-robin reports on knowledge sharing from 44 teams, resulting in a response rate of 85.50%. The mean number of reports for knowledge sharing per discloser was 4.44 ($SD = 1.20$). Of the 448 focal disclosers, 71.40% were male. Their average age was 32.80 years ($SD = 9.10$), average organizational tenure was 3.60 years ($SD = 3.80$), and average team tenure was 2.75 years ($SD = 2.90$).

Measures

We followed the back-translation process (Brislin, 1986) to translate all English scales into Chinese. Specifically, two graduate students, who are native speakers in Mandarin and who are fluent in English, conducted the translation and back-translation work independently. Then, another Chinese graduate student with over five years' experience with academic reading and writing in English examined the back-translated scales following the original scales and modified the translated scales by working together with the two other students. Finally, a member of the authorship team who is highly fluent in both languages scrutinized the translated scales to ensure accuracy and readability.

Workplace interpersonal capitalization. At Time 1, disclosers reported their workplace interpersonal capitalization using the 5-item measure developed by Watkins (2021) adapted to reference the past two weeks.[2] Example items include, "I told my coworkers about the good things that happened to me at work," and "I regularly shared my work-related positive events with my coworkers" (1 = *Strongly disagree*; 7 = *Strongly agree*; $\alpha = .93$).

Effort attribution. At Time 1, disclosers completed a two-item effort attribution measure from Tracy and Robins (2007), which followed our prompt of, "To what extent were your personal work-related positive events you shared with your coworkers over the last two weeks … " The two items that followed were, "caused by your effort," and "caused by your behaviors and actions" (1 = *Not at all*; 5 = *Very much*; $\alpha = .94$).

Pride. At Time 2, disclosers self-reported the extent to which sharing their personal work-related positive events with their coworkers the last two weeks caused them to feel accomplished, achieving, confident, fulfilled, productive, self-worth, and successful (1 = *Very slightly or not at all*; 5 = *Extremely*; $\alpha = .96$), which are the seven items for achievement-oriented pride (Tracy & Robins, 2007). We referenced the capitalization in the stem of this measure to minimize the potential for other factors to confound our

[2] To mitigate recall bias for the measures that referred to specific aspects of capitalization (i.e., workplace interpersonal capitalization, effort attribution, pride), we used a two-week time referent. To examine whether this decision impacted our findings, we conducted a supplementary study to examine Hypothesis 1, but with measuring the focal variables with the stem of "in general." This study showed that Hypothesis 1 was also supported with this alternative choice of time reference for the focal variables. We present a study description, all measures, regression output, and interaction figure in Appendix B in the online supplemental files.

analysis, consistent with prior research (e.g., Conroy, Becker, & Menges, 2017; Watkins, 2021).

Responsiveness. At Time 2, disclosers completed the 3-item responsiveness scale from Gable et al. (2012). Participants were presented with the stem of, "When I tell my coworkers about my personal work-related positive events, ..." and then completed the items of, "my coworkers understand me," "my coworkers make me feel like they value my abilities and opinions," and "my coworkers make me feel cared for" (1 = *Not at all*; 5 = *Very much*; $\alpha = .90$).

Knowledge sharing. At Time 2, participants also took the role of targets, completing the 7-item knowledge-sharing scale from Srivastava, Bartol, and Locke (2006) in reference to the discloser. Sample items include, "[Discloser's name] shares his/her special knowledge and expertise with me," and "[Discloser's name] offers lots of suggestions to me" (1 = *Strongly disagree*; 7 = *Strongly agree*; $\alpha = .97$). We averaged these knowledge-sharing reports for each focal discloser to produce an aggregated measure of knowledge sharing. The aggregation indices, per the uniform distribution mean for $R_{wg(j)}$ (given that no systematic rating bias was expected [Meyer, Mumford, Burrus, Campion, & James, 2014)], supported this aggregation ($R_{wg(j)} = .96$, ICC(1) = .68, ICC(2) = .95, $F(446, 1542) = 19.49$, $p < .001$).

Controls. We assessed a series of control variables to rule out alternative explanations (Becker, 2005; Bernerth, Cole, Taylor, & Walker, 2018). We note that we ran analyses without any control variables included and the results hold at the same levels of significance as those reported below. Disclosers completed the following measures in the Time 1 survey. We first assessed coworker friendship and team tenure (in years and months) given that responses to capitalization are influenced by the type of relationship a discloser maintains with responders (Gable & Reis, 2010; Watkins, 2021). We used the 3-item scale from Colbert et al., (2016) to measure coworker friendship. A sample item is, "My coworkers are my friends" (1 = *Strongly disagree*; 7 = *Strongly agree*; $\alpha = .88$). We controlled for task interdependence to account for the possibility that some coworkers simultaneously capitalize and share knowledge because they have greater relational closeness. We used the 5-item task interdependence scale from Pearce and Gregersen (1991), which included the item "I work closely with my coworkers on my tasks" (1 = *Strongly disagree*; 7 *Strongly agree;* $\alpha = .85$). We also controlled for Time 1 pride to account for differences in affective temperament across individuals, which would otherwise confound our analysis as those with stronger positive affective dispositions are more prone to engage in social interactions and to feel positive emotions (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). This approach also allows us to assess changes in pride vis-à-vis capitalization. To examine Time 1 pride, we used the same seven items from Tracy and Robins (2007) as in our focal measure for pride, except that we asked participants how they felt the last two weeks in general (1 = *Very slightly or not at all*; 7 = *Extremely*; $\alpha = .95$). Finally, we asked participants the extent to which they experience personal work-related positive events (1 = *Not at all*; 7 = *To a very large extent*) to provide assurance that our results were not simply an artifact of some individuals experiencing more positive events than others, which could correspond to heightened capitalization and knowledge sharing.

Analysis and Results

Our current data structure necessitated multilevel modeling because disclosers sometimes worked in the same team, thereby violating assumptions of independence. We accordingly tested our model using multilevel path analysis (Edwards & Lambert, 2007) with Mplus version 8.3, accounting for nesting of individuals in teams within our analysis. We aggregated the knowledge-sharing variable and paired it to the focal discloser, and we did not entertain any team-level hypotheses, meaning that all our hypotheses were tested at the individual level (Level 1). Given that we were theoretically uninterested in any cross-level relationships, we used fixed slopes to examine our model relationships (see Chong, Kim, Lee, Johnson, & Lin, 2020; Ju, Huang, Liu, Qin, Hu, & Chen, 2019; Parke, Weinhardt, Brodsky, Tangirala, & DeVoe, 2018). We utilized maximum likelihood with robust standard errors that accounts for clustering of data (i.e., MLR estimator), and grand-mean centered our predictors prior to creating our interaction terms and before running our analysis (Hofmann & Gavin, 1998; for an example of grand-mean centering lower-level predictors, see Wolfson, Tannenbaum, Mathieu, & Maynard, 2018). We tested Hypotheses 1 and 2 by considering the predictors at one standard deviation above and below the means of the respective moderators. We examined moderated mediation (i.e., Hypothesis 3) using parametric bootstrapping with 20,000 resamples and 95% confidence intervals (CIs) (MacKinnon, Lockwood, & Williams, 2004; Preacher, Zyphur, & Zhang, 2010).

We conducted a multilevel confirmatory factor analysis (MCFA) to assess the fit of our measurement model and to test the discriminant validity of our constructs. The MCFA, which was comprised of eight factors including capitalization, effort attribution, pride, responsiveness, knowledge sharing, baseline pride, coworker friendship, and task interdependence revealed that each item significantly loaded onto its assigned factor, and that the model demonstrated excellent fit: ($\chi^2_{(674)} = 1{,}468.83$, CFI = .94, RMSEA = .05, $SRMR_{within} = .04$, $SRMR_{between} < .001$) (see Marsh, Hau, & Wen, 2004). This fit was superior to all other models that allowed two variables to load on the same factor, such as capitalization and pride loading on the same factor, or Time 2 pride and Time 1 pride loading on the same factor ($2{,}030.75 \geq \Delta\chi^2 \geq 412.80$, $p < .001$).

We report descriptive statistics and correlations in Table 1, and the results of our path analysis, both with and without control variables, in Table 2. In calculating pseudo-R^2 values (Kreft & de Leeuw, 1998; Snijders & Bosker, 1994), the predictors in our model explained 27% and 30% of the variance in pride and knowledge sharing, respectively. We also calculated Δ pseudo-R^2 values when incrementally adding control variables (pride: Δ pseudo-R^2 = 20%; knowledge sharing: Δ pseudo-R^2 = 12%), direct relationships to focal variables (pride: Δ pseudo-R^2 = 6%; knowledge sharing: Δ pseudo-R^2 = 20%), and hypothesized interactions (reported below) to the null model. Hypothesis 1 predicted that effort attribution moderates the association between capitalization and pride such that the association is only positive when effort attribution is higher (but not lower). In support of this hypothesis, the interaction between capitalization and effort attribution was significant vis-à-vis pride ($\gamma = .09$, $p = .001$, Δ pseudo-R^2 = 3%). To examine the form of the interaction, we plotted it in Figure 2. Simple slopes analysis revealed that when effort attribution was higher, the association of capitalization and pride was positive and significant ($\gamma = .16$, $p = .001$), whereas when effort attribution was lower, the association of capitalization and pride was not significant ($\gamma = -.03$, $p = .488$). The form of this interaction accurately aligns with our logic for Hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis 2 predicted that responsiveness moderates the positive association between pride and knowledge sharing. Responsiveness significantly moderated the relationship between pride and knowledge sharing ($\gamma = .10$, $p = .041$, Δ pseudo-R^2 = 1%). To assist with interpretation, we plotted this interaction in Figure 3. Consistent with Hypothesis 2, simple

TABLE 1
Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for Study 1

	Variable	Mean	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1	Capitalization	5.14	1.34	*(.93)*													
2	Effort attribution	2.99	1.05	.44**	*(.94)*												
3	Capitalization × effort attribution	0.62	1.54	−.05	.05												
4	Pride (Time 2)	2.45	0.98	.35**	.44**	.17**	*(.97)*										
5	Responsiveness	3.29	0.82	.27**	.38**	.13*	.58**	*(.90)*									
6	Pride (Time 2) × responsiveness	0.47	1.01	.16**	.19**	.27**	.47**	.16**									
7	Knowledge sharing	5.20	1.11	.26**	.27**	.12*	.40**	.50**	.22**	*(.97)*							
8	Team tenure	2.75	2.90	.08	.10*	.05	.15**	.07	−.02	.08							
9	Coworker friendship	4.97	1.35	.51**	.39**	.05	.32**	.32**	.16**	.37**	.02	*(.88)*					
10	Task interdependence	4.80	1.18	.45**	.43**	.07	.28**	.29**	.15**	.29**	.02	.72**	*(.85)*				
11	Positive event frequency	4.29	1.42	.41**	.40**	.08	.31**	.32**	.22**	.24**	.06	.52**	.49**				
12	Pride (Time 1)	4.83	1.23	.59**	.58**	.11*	.41**	.42**	.20**	.37**	.07	.56**	.57**	.48**	*(.95)*		
13	Discloser gender	1.29	0.45	.03	−.10*	−.01	−.03	−.00	−.10*	.01	−.01	.00	−.06	−.08	−.08		
14	Discloser age	32.76	9.11	.03	.05	−.07	.10*	.06	−.07	.03	.33**	.02	.03	.04	.09	.03	

Notes: Level 1 $n = 447$, Level 2 $n = 44$. α reliabilities for multi-item scales are listed in parentheses along the diagonal. We aggregated the knowledge sharing responses (n = 1,989) to the individual discloser level prior to analysis.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

TABLE 2
Path Analysis Results for Study 1

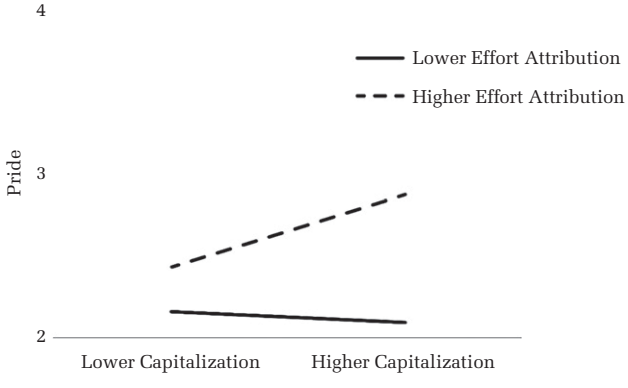
	Results Without Control Variables				Results With Control Variables			
	Pride		Knowledge Sharing		Pride		Knowledge Sharing	
Variable	γ	*SE*	γ	*SE*	γ	*SE*	γ	*SE*
Intercept	2.39**	0.05	4.98**	0.16	2.39**	0.05	5.00**	0.16
Controls								
Team tenure					0.05**	0.01	−0.00	0.02
Coworker friendship					0.07*	0.04	0.18**	0.05
Task interdependence					−0.04	0.06	−0.00	0.06
Positive event frequency					0.06	0.04	−0.05	0.04
Pride (Time 1)					0.09†	0.05		
Focal Variables								
Capitalization	0.14**	0.03	0.08*	0.04	0.07*	0.03	0.03	0.05
Effort attribution	0.32**	0.04	0.04	0.07	0.25**	0.04	0.02	0.08
Capitalization × effort attribution	0.10**	0.03	0.03	0.04	0.09**	0.03	0.03	0.05
Pride (Time 2)			0.06	0.07			0.05	0.08
Responsiveness			0.54**	0.07			0.51**	0.07
Pride (Time 2) × responsiveness			0.11*	0.05			0.10*	0.05
Pseudo R^2 (%)	23		27		27		30	

Note: Level 1 $n = 447$, Level 2 $n = 44$.
† $p < 0.10$
* $p < 0.05$
** $p < 0.01$

slopes analysis revealed that when responsiveness was higher, pride was significantly associated with knowledge sharing ($\gamma = .14$, $p = .031$); however, when responsiveness was lower, pride was not significantly associated with knowledge sharing ($\gamma = -.03$, $p = .775$).

Hypothesis 3 predicted that effort attribution and responsiveness moderate the indirect association of capitalization and knowledge sharing via pride.

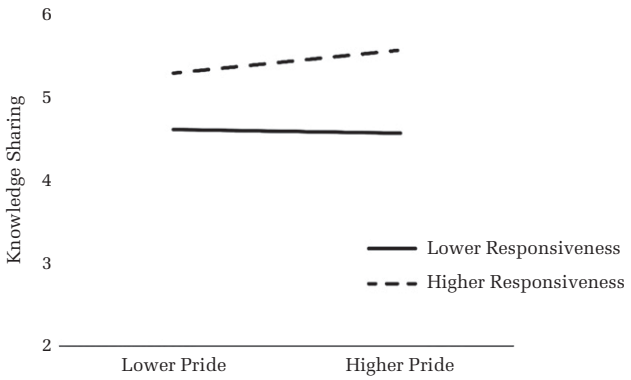
FIGURE 2
The Moderating Role of Effort Attribution on the Association between Workplace Interpersonal Capitalization and Pride (Study 1)



To assess Hypothesis 3, we compared the difference of indirect relationships when these moderators were higher versus lower. This difference was marginally significant (*difference* = .02, 95% CI [−0.002, 0.052], 90% CI [0.002, 0.046]).[3] When effort attribution and responsiveness were higher, the indirect relationship was significantly different from 0 ($ab = .02$, $SE = .01$, 95% CI [0.002, 0.051]). In contrast, when effort attribution and responsiveness were lower, the indirect relationship was not significantly different from 0 ($ab = .00$, $SE = .00$, 95% CI [−0.009, 0.013]). Additional analysis revealed that the indirect association for when effort attribution was higher and responsiveness was lower ($ab = -.00$, $SE = .02$, 95% CI [−0.041, 0.030]), and for when effort attribution was lower and responsiveness was higher ($ab = -.00$, $SE = .01$, 95% CI [−0.018, 0.007]) were both not significant, implying that the indirect association was positive only when both moderators were higher. Taken together, Hypothesis 3 is supported.

[3] According to Preacher and colleagues (2010), 90% CIs are often justified in mediation research. Moreover, given that our hypotheses are unidirectional (i.e., we hypothesize "positive" associations), additional justification exists to test our mediation hypothesis with one-tailed tests using 90% CIs (Cho & Abe, 2013; Churchill & Iacobucci, 2010; Gravetter & Wallnau, 2013; see also Baer et al., 2018).

FIGURE 3
The Moderating Role of Responsiveness on the Association between Pride and Knowledge Sharing (Study 1)



Discussion

Overall, the analysis from Study 1 provided strong support for our theoretical model. The positive association between workplace interpersonal capitalization and knowledge sharing operating through pride was bounded by conditions of both higher effort attribution and target responsiveness, respectively. Study 1 offers many strengths in that we separated the dependent variable by source, and the mediator and second-stage moderator variables by time (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Additionally, we employed a round-robin design and aggregated participant reports, which mitigates selection bias and increases the reliability of our dependent variable (Warner et al., 1979). Notwithstanding, Study 1 is limited in a few respects. First, it remains unclear whether our results generalize beyond the current context of one organization in the manufacturing industry in China. Second, we are not able to fully assess whether a given team member was both a target of capitalization *and* knowledge sharing. Third, capitalization can be viewed as a discrete episode, and it remains unclear whether our findings generalize to the episodic level. Fourth, Study 1 is correlational in nature and does not sufficiently establish causality. To address these concerns, we conducted Study 2—a field experiment of employees representing various organizations and industries in a Western country.

STUDY 2

For Study 2, we conducted a multiweek field experiment using experience sampling methodology (e.g., Foulk, Lanaj, Tu, Erez, & Archambeau, 2018; Lanaj, Foulk, & Erez, 2019). Field experiments simultaneously offer relatively high levels of both internal and external validity—something that is not possible with observational studies or laboratory experiments (Cook & Campbell, 1979; Grant & Wall, 2009). After obtaining IRB approval, we utilized Prolific (Peer, Brandimarte, Samat, & Acquisti, 2017) to obtain a panel of participants who met our study requirements from a wide variety of industries and occupations to minimize contextual constraints and to maximize the generalizability of our findings (Rousseau & Fried, 2001). Specifically, we required that participants (a) resided in the United Kingdom, (b) worked in a job that requires regular interaction with coworkers, (c) worked a traditional full-time 9–5 schedule, and (d) commuted to work every day. To ensure that participants met these criteria, we utilized Prolific's built-in profile screening tool, allowing us to filter out ineligible participants *a priori* (which prevents participants from answering screening questions dishonestly). Second, we employed a screening survey, where we asked screening questions centered on our criteria to 250 initial panel participants who were naïve to our sampling criteria, which resulted in 153 participants who were fully eligible for our study.

We invited qualified participants to complete an "entry survey," which assessed our Level 2 variables (i.e., responsiveness, trait self-esteem, coworker tenure). One hundred and forty-two participants completed the entry survey. On the following Monday, we began our Level 1 variable data collection by sending out two daily surveys over the course of 10 consecutive workdays. We sent a morning survey each day at 6 a.m. followed by an afternoon survey at 4 p.m. to all those who completed that day's morning survey and whose specified coworker was working that day (explained in more detail below). Each survey was only available for four hours, and the mean time difference between morning and afternoon surveys was 9.56 hours. The morning survey delivered the capitalization manipulation and measured the effort attribution and daily control variables (i.e., pleasantness of event, morning pride, days since positive event), whereas the afternoon survey assessed pride and knowledge sharing. After removing participants who did not complete at least three pairs of daily surveys (32 participants) (see da Motta Veiga & Gabriel, 2016; Trougakos, Hideg, Cheng, & Beal, 2014), who failed a third verification of daily commuting to work (3 participants), or who failed at least one of two attention checks (e.g., "Please select

'somewhat disagree' to validate your responses") in the entry survey (2 participants), our final sample comprised 105 participants. Participants completed 920 morning surveys and 792 afternoon surveys. After removing the unpaired daily surveys, our final Level 1 sample size was 787. Participants completed an average of 8.77 pairs of daily surveys ($SD = 1.91$). Participants self-reported their ethnicity and gender as follows: 85% White, 8% Asian, 8% Black; 55% female, 45% male. Participants were 34.86 years old on average ($SD = 9.60$), had 14.25 years of work experience ($SD = 9.82$), and worked an average of 38.42 hours per week ($SD = 4.77$). Participants' occupations included animal technologist, chef, nurse, warehouse supervisor, HR advisor, pharmacist, radiographer, dietician, and occupational therapist.

The outcomes of capitalization are greatly influenced by the relationship dynamics between the discloser and the responder (Gable & Reis, 2010; Watkins, 2021). In order to rule out alternative explanations related to differences in the target of disclosures, and to ensure that individual targets of capitalization were also the targets of knowledge sharing, we instructed the participant to reference the same target of capitalization (i.e., responder) over the entirety of the study. To this end, in the entry survey we asked participants to list three coworkers (a) with whom they had daily face-to-face interactions, (b) who were scheduled to work at participants' office or work site in the next few weeks (e.g., no scheduled holidays, no scheduled remote work), and (c) with whom they would feel comfortable sharing good news. This third criterion is consistent with Reis and colleagues' (2010) suggestion to ensure an actual relationship between the individuals; additionally, this approach helped in maximizing compliance with our manipulation instructions, which we describe below. We subsequently randomly chose one of these coworkers and instructed participants to only refer to this randomly chosen coworker for all the remaining questions in the entry survey, and for each daily survey over the next few weeks. In sum, focal participants acted as disclosers, who referred to their randomly chosen coworker as the target of capitalization and knowledge sharing throughout the entire study. We consistently used embedded data and piped text functions to display the selected coworker at the top of survey measures that referenced this coworker (e.g., responsiveness) to remind the participant to refer to the same coworker throughout the study.

Workplace Interpersonal Capitalization Manipulation

We designed a workplace interpersonal capitalization manipulation (hereafter "capitalization manipulation") that prompted employees to disclose positive events that had happened on a previous day. We delivered the capitalization manipulation before each workday began—that is, before participants were able to experience and share any current-day positive work events. In employing our manipulation, we utilized a constrained random matrix approach (see Foulk et al., 2018; Lanaj et al., 2019). Specifically, on each day, half of the participants were assigned to the capitalization condition, whereas the other half were assigned to the control condition. At the same time, participants were assigned to the capitalization and control conditions an equal number of times (five times each). The order in which participants received the daily manipulations was randomized within participants. This approach helps to ensure that our findings are not due to temporal or exogenous factors.

Our manipulation was an instruction to participants to disclose a past positive work event on some days but not others. Participants assigned to the capitalization condition (coded as 1) on a given morning read, "For today, think of a personal work-related positive event that happened in the past (e.g., yesterday, a few days ago, last week, last month) that you would be able to share with your coworker;" participants assigned to the control condition (coded as 0) on a given morning read, "For today, think of something you typically talk to your coworker about that you would be able to bring up in conversation with your coworker." In both conditions, we instructed participants to write two to three sentences describing what they discussed with their coworker, and we reminded participants to always reference the same coworker, who had been randomly chosen, during the entry survey. We then instructed participants to "find time *this morning* to [share this personal work-related positive event with your coworker/start a conversation with your coworker regarding this typical conversation topic]."

The positive work events written about and disclosed by focal participants varied greatly, involving events such as achieving a high score on an audit, receiving gifts, and fixing a broken *x*-ray machine (see Table 3). Typical conversation topics written about and discussed were also quite diverse, including topics such as managing workloads, making plans to fulfill customer orders, family happenings, and weekend plans. Participants chiefly capitalized

TABLE 3
Representative Qualitative Responses for Past Positive Event Disclosures from Study 2

Past Positive Event Description Excerpts	Days Between Event and Disclosure	Effort Attribution Raw Score	Pride Raw Score
New stationary! Seems like a really small insignificant thing but where I work it's like Christmas!	2	1.00	2.43
One of our biggest customers placed a large order. The company has made a number of staff redundant over the last couple of months so this helps to secure jobs.	30	1.00	3.00
I found out that a colleague that I disliked got a promotion which meant that they moved dept.	30	1.00	2.00
When it was my birthday my colleagues got me a cake and card and balloons. It was really nice that they had made the effort and made me feel happy and appreciated at work.	180	1.00	2.43
A coworker approached me and asked me for advice, knowing that I specialized in a certain area before working here.	1	2.50	1.57
I am going to talk to my co worker about how we managed to get an *x*-ray machine working again. This happened 3 weeks ago. If we had not got it working then they would have had to send patients home.	21	5.00	5.00
The time we assisted a customer who fell over and broke their arm, managed to comfort and be with them while arranging help from medical professionals.	90	4.50	3.43
Achieving a high score on an audit conducted by the local government, achieving the highest rating possible is actually a positive sign.	88	5.00	3.71
I have been having issues with my replacement glasses which have finally been sorted! So it makes the use of computers at work much easier … and the rest of my job far more pleasant.	3	4.00	3.29
Last week we received a "Greatex". Basically a nurse commending us on how we help out the patients in her clinic.	6	4.00	4.00

Notes: Each day, participants responded to the prompt of "Think of a personal work-related positive event that happened in the past (e.g., yesterday, a few days ago, last week, last month) that you would be able to share with your coworker." Participants then wrote two to three sentences about the positive event.

face-to-face (89.3%), although email (4.6%) and phone (5.4%) were also used. The disclosed events varied in how long ago they transpired ($M = 40.59$ days, $SD = 123.00$, median = 6 days).[4]

[4] An analysis of the open-ended participant responses indicated that in 96.77% of cases, participants referred to a distinctive positive event compared to previous days in the study, suggesting that our results are not unduly biased by participants referencing the same positive event on subsequent days. Furthermore, our analysis showed that participants wrote about a positive event in the control condition only 5.47% of the time, which indicates that participants were compliant with our instructions, and also that this contamination was not a biasing factor in our analysis. Notwithstanding, this factor would be more likely to suppress (vs. inflate) our model estimates, as it would muddle the distinctiveness of the manipulation, which further assuages concern about potential bias in our data.

Measures

Effort attribution. In the morning survey after participants in the daily capitalization condition wrote about a past positive work event, we asked participants the extent to which the positive event was "caused by your effort," and "caused by your behaviors and actions" (1 = *Not at all*; 5 = *Very much*), which were the same two items from Tracy and Robins (2007) that we used in Study 1 (daily average $\alpha = .91$).

When participants in the daily control condition completed the morning survey, they skipped the effort attribution questions because attributions to positive events were not applicable in this condition (they were not instructed to disclose or write about a positive event). However, it was still critical to include the control condition cases to test our predictions, which involve the comparison of capitalization days to noncapitalization days. We accordingly followed the procedure from Leslie, Manchester, Park,

and Mehng (2012) and created a new variable whereby we group-mean centered the raw effort attribution variable (Aiken, West, & Reno, 1991) and multiplied it by the capitalization condition value (0 = control condition, 1 = capitalization condition). This newly computed variable therefore equaled 0 for participants on days when they were assigned to the control condition and ranged from −2.80 to 2.30 for participants on days when they were assigned to the capitalization condition. Although we multiplied these terms to create the new effort attribution variable, this new variable does not constitute a true interaction term because it does not fully cross the two predictor variables. Hence, the effort attribution variable statistically represents variation in effort attributions among capitalization cases, with control cases acting as a baseline comparison point.

Pride. We measured pride in the afternoon survey using the same seven items from Tracy and Robins (2007) as in Study 1, and used the prompt "Regarding your interactions with your coworker *this morning,* to what extent did you feel … " (1 = *Very slightly or not at all*; 5 = *Extremely*; daily average α = .96)

Knowledge sharing. We assessed knowledge sharing in the afternoon survey with three items from Srivastava et al. (2006) adapted to the current context. Participants were asked to refer to, "This afternoon (following your morning coworker interactions) … " and were then presented with the items, "I shared my special knowledge and expertise with my coworker," "I shared a lot of information with my coworker," and "I offered lots of suggestions to my coworker" (1 = *Strongly disagree*; 7 = *Strongly agree*; daily average α = .91). We asked about *afternoon* knowledge sharing to help facilitate temporal precedence.

Responsiveness. According to capitalization scholars, "active-constructive capitalization responses convey understanding, validation, and caring (i.e., responsiveness)" (Gable et al., 2012: 966; see also Peters et al., 2018). Our theorizing considers responsiveness as a stable tendency in how the discloser perceives responders' understanding, validation, and caring. We thus treated responsiveness as a Level 2 moderator variable, and we measured this variable in the entry survey with the 3-item active-constructive perceived responses to capitalization attempts scale from Gable and colleagues (2004). Participants were presented with the prefix of, "When I tell [randomly selected coworker's name automatically inserted via piped text] about something good that has happened to me … " and completed the following items: "my coworker usually reacts to my good fortune enthusiastically," "I sometimes get the sense that my coworker is even more happy and excited than I am," and "My coworker often asks a lot of questions and shows genuine concern about the good event" (1 = *Not at all true*; 7 = *Very true*; α = .71).

Controls. To account for cyclical variation and time trends in daily states and behaviors, we controlled for day of the week, and sine and cosine functions equal to one work week (Beal & Weiss, 2003; Liu & West, 2016). We also controlled for the impact of morning pride in order to increase evidence of causality and to show that capitalization was associated with *change* in pride (Gabriel et al., 2019).[5] We asked participants in the morning survey before the delivery of the daily manipulation, "How are you feeling right now?" and presented the same items and scale anchors as we did with pride measured in the afternoon (daily average α = .96). To remove the alternative explanation that disclosed events may simply be more pleasant than typical conversations (see Reis et al., 2010, Study 5), we asked participants to respond (1 = *Strongly disagree*; 7 = *Strongly agree*) to the following statement: "[This event was quite pleasant/This conversation topic is quite pleasant]." We also controlled for the number of days since the positive event, which allows us to test whether capitalization involving events that transpired weeks ago is just as instrumental as capitalization involving events that happened just a day or two ago. We asked participants on capitalization days how many days ago the positive event had transpired and created a variable in the same way as we created the effort attribution variable (by multiplying the person-centered "days since positive event" variable by condition).

[5] Whereas our model implicitly predicts *changes* in pride from morning to afternoon, we, in contrast, do not hypothesize *changes* in knowledge sharing from one day to the next, but rather hypothesize that knowledge-sharing *levels* will be higher on a given day when employees capitalize on a past positive work event. We therefore do not include previous day knowledge sharing as a control variable in the presented results. This is in accordance with Gabriel and colleagues (2019: 18), who stated that controlling for the previous time-period measure of the outcome is appropriate when researchers "want to predict *change* (e.g., morning to afternoon) contingent on specific events," but is less suitable for when "researchers want to predict the *level* of the outcome contingent on specific events." Nevertheless, to test for robustness we ran a separate model test with previous-day knowledge sharing as a control, and the results meet the same levels of significance as those reported here.

We also accounted for potential confounding Level 2 variables given that Study 2 tested Hypothesis 2 using a cross-level interaction. Theory suggests that trait self-esteem can potentially impact how one perceives capitalization responses (Smith & Reis, 2012) and the likelihood of sharing knowledge with others (Cheng et al., 2013). We thus controlled and measured trait self-esteem with the 6-item measure from Cohen and Garcia (2005). An example item is, "I am confident in my abilities" (1 = *Strongly disagree*; 7 = *Strongly agree*; $\alpha = .77$). Finally, perceived responsiveness and knowledge sharing may each be related to how long the discloser and responder have known each other (Logan & Cobb, 2013; Peters et al., 2018; Srivastava et al., 2006); we accordingly controlled for coworker tenure in years. We note that our model results reported below meet the same standards of significance with and without the inclusion of these controls (Becker, 2005; Bernerth et al., 2018).

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

We conducted a manipulation check to verify that our daily instructions to participants to capitalize on a past positive work event versus discussing typical topics were effective. We asked participants in the afternoon survey whether they had been asked that morning to either (a) "share a positive event from a prior day with my coworker," or (b) "start a conversation related to what my coworker and I typically talk about." A χ^2 test of independence of categorical variables indicated that the manipulation was successful ($\chi^2_{(1)} = 572.16$, $p < .001$), and that manipulation instructions remained salient to participants during each workday. We also asked whether participants had initiated the conversation they wrote about in the morning survey. After excluding cases in which the responding coworker had not been at work (65 cases), participants reported that they initiated the written-about conversation 90.78% of the time, signifying high levels of compliance with our manipulation instructions. We present results below while maintaining these cases of noncompliance to remain conservative in our reporting (maintaining these cases works against the detection of supportive findings). Of note, our hypotheses follow the same pattern of significance with these cases removed.

We utilized multilevel modeling given our within-individual experience sampling design. We accordingly conducted multilevel path analysis with Mplus version 8.3 to simultaneously test our model relationships and hypotheses (Edwards & Lambert, 2007). We modeled random slopes for the pride–knowledge sharing pathway given that we regressed this slope on the Level 2 variables. We modeled fixed slopes for the Level 1 pathways where there was no cause to model a random slope, thereby shielding these slopes from Level 2 noise (Liu, Zhang, & Wang, 2012; Preacher et al., 2010) (see also Chong et al., 2020; Ju et al., 2019; Parke et al., 2018). We group-mean centered our Level 1 predictor variables and grand-mean centered our Level 2 predictor variables prior to analysis (Hofmann & Gavin, 1998; Zhang, Zyphur, & Preacher, 2009). We employed parametric bootstrapping with 20,000 resamples to test our indirect hypotheses (MacKinnon, Fritz, Williams, & Lockwood, 2007). We modeled our moderation hypotheses at higher (+1 *SD*) and lower (−1 *SD*) moderator values (Aiken et al., 1991).

We performed an MCFA to verify that the data fit the measurement model, and that the latent variables were distinct from each other. We included the within-person factors of effort attribution, pride, morning pride, and knowledge sharing, and the between-person factors of responsiveness and trait self-esteem. The model where each construct was specified as a separate factor exhibited good fit ($\chi^2_{(172)} = 432.31$, $p < .001$, CFI = .96, RMSEA = .04, $SRMR_{within} = .03$, $SRMR_{between} = .10$) (see Marsh et al., 2004). Furthermore, this model demonstrated superior fit to any other model that allowed two variables to load onto the same factor, such as a model in which pride and morning pride items loaded onto the same factor, or a model allowing trait self-esteem and responsiveness items to load onto the same factor ($2{,}565.61 \geq \Delta\chi^2 \geq 46.79$, $p < .001$).

Hypothesis Testing

We present descriptive statistics and correlations in Table 4, and the results of our multilevel path analysis (with and without control variables) in Table 5. The focal Level 1 variables exhibited a substantial amount of within-individual variance (effort attribution = 79.14%; pride = 60.00%; knowledge sharing = 57.78%). We calculated the pseudo-R^2, and our model explained a meaningful incremental amount of variance in pride (9%) and knowledge sharing (14%) (Snijders & Bosker, 1994). In addition, we computed Δpseudo-R^2 values when incrementally adding controls (pride: Δpseudo-$R^2 = 3\%$; knowledge sharing: Δpseudo-$R^2 = 1\%$), direct relationships of focal variables (pride: Δpseudo-$R^2 = 3\%$; knowledge sharing: Δpseudo-$R^2 = 13\%$), and hypothesized interactions (reported below) to the null model.

TABLE 4
Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for Study 2

	Variable	Mean	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
	Level 1														
1	Capitalization manipulation	.50	.50		.18	−.04	−.20*	−.32**	−.08	−.13	.14	.17	.55**	.12	.13
2	Effort attribution	3.84	1.18	−.00	*(.91)*	.46**	.16	.02	.32**	.04	.23*	.10	.10	.01	.17
3	Pride	3.32	1.03	.19**	.22**	*(.96)*	.57**	.63**	.83**	.12	.45**	.41**	.14	−.11	.10
4	Knowledge sharing	4.64	1.52	−.02	.04	.34**	*(.91)*	.32**	.38**	.06	.38**	.05	−.00	−.05	.01
5	Event pleasantness	5.49	1.33	.11**	.15**	.13**	.00		.59**	−.04	.37**	.31**	.02	−.02	−.03
6	Morning pride	2.58	1.03	−.06	.01	.07*	.02	.00	*(.96)*	.01	.21*	.39**	.05	−.19	.09
7	Days since positive event	40.59	123.00	.00	.05	−.01	.02	.07*	.04		.26*	−.05	−.10	−.05	.09
	Level 2														
8	Responsiveness	5.31	1.00								*(.71)*	.06	−.05	.26*	−.14
9	Trait self-esteem	4.60	.89									*(.77)*	−.00	−.12	−.03
10	Coworker tenure	3.86	4.39											−.12	.47**
11	Discloser gender (0 = male, 1 = female)	.55	.50												−.18
12	Discloser age	34.86	9.60												

Notes: Level 1 $n = 787$, Level 2 $n = 105$. Within-person correlations are shown below the diagonal and between-person correlations are shown above the diagonal. Coefficient alphas are reported on the diagonal for the multi-item measures.
* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$

We examined Hypothesis 1, which centered on whether the capitalization–pride link is bounded by effort attribution. We first examined the association between the effort attribution variable and pride, which was significant ($\gamma = .16$, $p = .001$, Δpseudo-$R^2 = 3\%$), providing preliminary support for Hypothesis 1. As mentioned above, the current method does not allow for the modeling of a true interaction because attributions are not applicable to the control condition cases. Thus, to examine this moderation more closely we followed the procedure of Leslie and colleagues (2012) and tested whether the simple slopes representing higher and lower levels of effort attribution in the capitalization condition were significantly different from 0. Specifically, this technique compares the values of the control condition cases to the capitalization condition cases at higher and lower levels of effort attribution. We calculated the simple slopes at higher and lower levels of effort attribution for those in the capitalization condition by adding the coefficient of the capitalization manipulation ($\gamma = .28$, $p < .001$) to the product of the effort attribution coefficient ($\gamma = .16$, $p = .001$) and the higher and lower effort attributions at higher and lower levels (+ or −1.18; equal to the standard deviation prior to group-mean centering). We plotted these slopes in Figure 4 to aid in interpretation. As Figure 4 shows, the simple slope for higher effort attribution was positive and significant ($\gamma = .47$, $p < .001$), which indicates that when effort attribution was higher, disclosers experienced higher levels of pride on days when they capitalized compared to days when they did not. Conversely, the simple slope for lower effort attribution was not significant ($\gamma = .10$, $p = .181$), which signifies that when effort attribution was lower, there was no difference in pride when comparing capitalization days to noncapitalization days. Taken together, these analyses support Hypothesis 1.

We next tested Hypothesis 2, involving the moderating role of responsiveness. In support of Hypothesis 2, responsiveness moderated the association between pride and knowledge sharing in the expected direction ($\gamma = .13$, $p = .004$).[6] We plotted this

[6] This model test involves a cross-level interaction, or "multilevel mixed effect" (Lang, Bliese, and Runge, 2021). We accordingly heeded the advice of Lang et al., (2021: 7) to use the generalized R^2 in lieu of other approaches, such as Δ pseudo-R^2: "Most approaches for estimating R^2 values in mixed-effects models build on the residuals so that these R^2 values either do not change or they decrease … Thus typical R^2 approaches are not useful for

TABLE 5
Path Analysis Results for Study 2

	Results Without Control Variables				Results With Control Variables			
	Pride		Knowledge Sharing		Pride		Knowledge Sharing	
Variable	γ	*SE*	γ	*SE*	γ	*SE*	γ	*SE*
Intercept	3.17**	.08	2.97**	.25	3.18**	.08	2.91**	.24
Controls								
Day of week					.08	.09	−.16	.12
Sine					.14	.14	−.32†	.19
Cosine					.10	.09	−.18	.11
Pleasantness of event					.06*	.03	−.03	.03
Morning pride					.12†	.07		
Days since positive event[a]					.00	.00	.00	.00
Trait self-esteem[b]							−.55*	.26
Coworker tenure[b]							−.03	.06
Focal Variables								
Capitalization manipulation	.30**	.06			.28**	.06	−.19*	.08
Effort attribution[a]	.16**	.05			.16**	.05	−.03	.06
Pride			.49**	.07			.52**	.07
Responsiveness			−.19	.19			−.15	.19
Pride × responsiveness			.14**	.05			.13**	.05
Pseudo R^2	6%		12%		9%		14%	

Note. Level 1 $n = 787$, Level 2 $m = 105$.

[a] We followed the procedure of Leslie et al. (2012) and created a new variable whereby we group-mean centered the raw effort attribution/days since positive event variable (Aiken & West, 1991) and multiplied it by the capitalization condition value (0 = control condition, 1 = capitalization condition). This variable accordingly represents a main effect of effort attributions/days since positive event among capitalization cases (see Methods section for additional details).

[b] We also modeled the interactions of pride × trait self-esteem (γ = .14, *SE* = .07, $p = .035$), and pride × coworker tenure (γ = .01, *SE* = .02, $p = .438$).

† $p < .10$

* $p < .05$

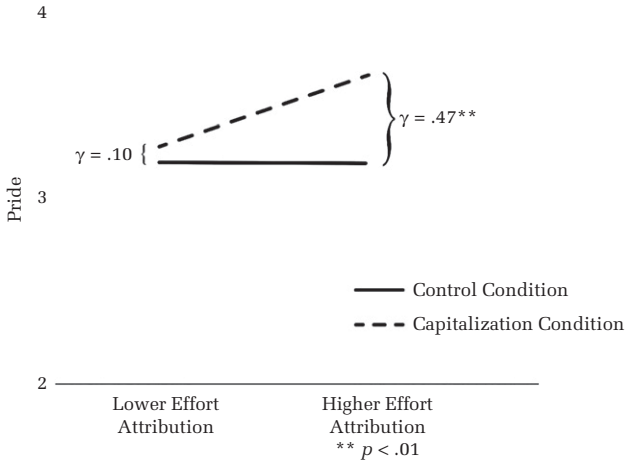
** $p < .01$

interaction in Figure 5. As Figure 5 shows, when responsiveness was higher, pride was positively associated with knowledge sharing (γ = .66, $p < .001$). When responsiveness was lower, pride was also related to knowledge sharing, albeit to a lesser extent (γ = .39, $p < .001$).

Hypothesis 3 refers to effort attribution and responsiveness moderating the indirect relationship between capitalization and knowledge sharing. To test Hypothesis 3, we calculated the difference of indirect associations at higher versus lower levels of the moderators. This difference was significant, as the 95% confidence interval did not span 0 (*difference* = .27, 95% CI [0.126, 0.435]). When the moderators were higher, the indirect relationship was positive and significant (*ab* = .31, *SE* = .07, 95% CI [0.177, 0.464]); contrariwise, when the moderators were lower, the indirect relationship was not significant (*ab* = .04, *SE* = .03, 95% CI [−014, 0.099]). We also calculated the indirect relationships when effort attribution was higher and responsiveness was lower (*ab* = .18, *SE* = .05, 95% CI [0.097, 0.287]), and for when effort attribution was lower and responsiveness was higher (*ab* = .07, *SE* = .05, 95% CI [−0.024, 0.163]). This analysis shows that variation in capitalization is more sensitive to effort attribution than to responsiveness. This is because, regardless of responsiveness values, both indirect relationships were significant when effort attribution was higher, and both indirect relationships were insignificant when effort attribution was lower. In all, Hypothesis 5 was supported.

extended multilevel mixed-effects models. A solution is to use a generalized R^2 statistic." We thus used the generalized R^2 formula (Lang et al., 2021) and calculated the generalized R^2 statistic. This calculation revealed the value of .07, indicating that the interaction explained 7% of the Level 1 variance in knowledge sharing. Following the approach of Koopman and colleagues (2021), we calculated a difference in log-likelihood (LL) test, which indicated that this was a significant amount of variance explained ($\Delta LL_{(1)} = 18.20$, $p < .001$).

FIGURE 4
The Moderating Role of Effort Attribution on the Association between Workplace Interpersonal Capitalization and Pride (Study 2)

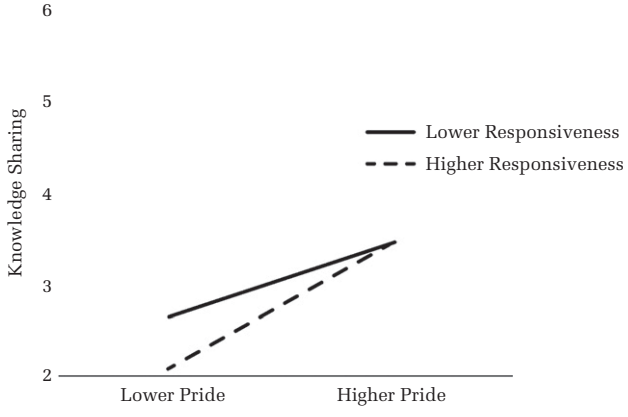


Note. To aid in the interpretation of the effect of effort attribution, we plot effort attribution on the *x*-axis, and the two conditions as separate slopes. Testing this hypothesis involves comparing control condition values to (a) capitalization condition lower effort attribution values, and (b) capitalization condition higher effort attribution values. Effort attribution always maintains a value of 0 in the control condition, as indicated by the flat line denoting the control condition.

Discussion

Study 2 extends our findings from Study 1 in several important ways. First, we followed a discloser and their referent coworker over two weeks, which allows us to shore up concerns about potential interpersonal confounds and mismatch between capitalization target and knowledge sharing target. This is because the discloser referenced the same coworker over the entirety of the study, and because our hypothesis testing makes comparisons across days within the same coworker relationship rather than across different individuals. In addition, taken together with the results of Study 1, our within-individual approach in Study 2 allows us to demonstrate homology, whereby capitalization operates similarly at the between-individual level compared to the within-individual level. Capitalization is thus instrumental both episodically and as an individual tendency.

FIGURE 5
The Moderating Role of Responsiveness on the Association between Pride and Knowledge Sharing (Study 2)



Relatedly, although the interaction patterns for responsiveness in Studies 1 and 2 were largely consistent with each other and with our hypotheses, one nuance bears mentioning. Comparing the interaction plots related to responsiveness in Study 1 (Figure 3) and Study 2 (Figure 5) may prompt one to ask whether participants of Study 1 and Study 2 shared more knowledge on average with more responsive and less responsive coworkers, respectively. Specifically, in Study 1 the intercept for higher responsiveness appears higher than the intercept for lower responsiveness, whereas in Study 2 the intercept for lower responsiveness appears higher than the intercept for higher responsiveness. However, in both studies, the zero-order correlation between responsiveness and knowledge sharing was positive and significant (Study 1: $r = .50$, $p < .001$; Study 2: $r = .38$, $p < .001$), suggesting that Study 2 participants did not on average share more knowledge with less responsive coworkers. Moreover, in the Study 2 path analysis (Table 5), the coefficient for responsiveness was nonsignificant with the presence of the interaction term in the model predicting knowledge sharing ($\gamma = -.15$, $p = .416$), which indicates that the intercepts for higher and lower responsiveness in Figure 5 did not significantly differ. Finally, in Study 2, we suggest that the potency of the Level 1 factor of pride ($\gamma = .52$, $p < .0001$) likely reduced the opportunity for the Level 2 variable of responsiveness to exhibit a meaningful direct association.

Study 2 also allows us to somewhat evidence causality due to the randomly assigned manipulations and the temporal precedence in variable measurement (although we acknowledge that we can only speak to causality in the front half of our model where we manipulated capitalization). We also mention that our sample comprised employees who worked in multiple organizations and industries in the United Kingdom, thereby demonstrating that our findings are robust across organizations, industries, and nations (cf. Study 1). We draw attention to the

lack of association between "days since positive event" and pride (see Table 5). This suggests that disclosers experienced a comparable level of pride when they disclosed a positive event that happened weeks or months ago compared to when the event happened yesterday. This finding suggests that individuals can rekindle the fire even when the positive feelings from the event have long since dissipated.

GENERAL DISCUSSION

In this paper, we develop a model centered on how and when employees rekindle the fire and stoke the flames of their past positive work events. Across an observational field study and an experience sampling field experiment with a daily intervention, we found support for our contention that capitalization is associated with increased pride and subsequent knowledge sharing, and that these associations were bounded by the discloser's effort attribution of the positive work event and perceived coworker responsiveness, respectively. We review theoretical and practical implications below.

Theoretical Implications

The central contribution we make with this work is to theory on capitalization. Seminally developed in close relationship contexts, capitalization is characterized as a socioemotional process which facilitates affective and relational well-being (Gable & Reis, 2010). However, individuals disclose positive events to others who are not relationship partners, and commonly disclose positive events to coworkers (Watkins, 2021). At work, coworker relationships also serve instrumental functions (Colbert et al., 2016), opening up the possibility that sharing positive events at work can be instrumental. In this research, we describe how capitalization serves the instrumental function of encouraging knowledge sharing—a prototypical behavior used to garner prestige-based status in social groups and to facilitate group objectives (Tracy et al., 2010). Evidencing this idea demonstrates that the process of capitalization is instrumental, which extends beyond the primarily socioemotional focus of prior research. Moreover, in taking the discloser's perspective, we broaden what we know about workplace interpersonal capitalization, which to date has only been considered from the responder's perspective (Watkins, 2021).

Relatedly, existing tenets in the capitalization literature emphasize that it is the sharing of the positive event and the response of the partner that facilitate positive capitalization outcomes. This point is so integral to existing theory that it has been labeled as a "fundamental assumption" (Peters et al., 2018: 2). However, this emphasis overshadows the possibility that positive capitalization outcomes may hinge on characteristics related to the disclosed event. This possibility is important to uncover when considering capitalization outside of close relationship contexts such as the workplace where instrumental (i.e., work goal-oriented) processes are paramount. Of note, across both studies, when effort attribution was lower, capitalization and pride were not related at all. Our hypotheses and findings centered on effort attribution, therefore challenge prevailing assumptions in the capitalization literature, and demonstrate how the characteristics of the positive event capitalized upon act as a critical boundary to the effects of capitalization. On this point, we suspect that there are other characteristics of the positive event beyond effort attribution that are also relevant; our work thus highlights the opportunity for additional theorizing oriented around the disclosed positive event.

We also contribute to the social-functionalist model of emotions. As articulated above, this model posits that pride universally functions to prompt knowledge sharing (Tracy et al., 2010). This evolutionary account of pride implicates brain structures and neurochemicals as further evidence of pride's uniform function (see Zahn et al., 2009). This account suggests that humans are hard-wired to share knowledge in response to feeling pride; correspondingly, this association has largely gone unchallenged and remains unqualified. By extension, we theorize that this association is bounded by responsiveness, such that the relationship is weaker (stronger) when responsiveness is lower (higher). This hypothesis was supported in both studies, which demonstrates that the relationship between pride and knowledge sharing is contingent upon how responsive coworkers are to the focal employee during commonplace interactions such as workplace interpersonal capitalization. This extension implies that pride's association with prestige-oriented behaviors such as knowledge sharing is not as robust as previously theorized.

Practical Implications

Our research reveals that workplace interpersonal capitalization and knowledge sharing were indirectly associated, provided that disclosers attribute the cause of positive events to their effort and perceive targets as responsive. Knowledge sharing is a behavior

that garners prestige from others in the group, yet it also facilitates the objectives of work organizations (Haas, Criscuolo, & George, 2015; Tracy et al., 2010; Wang & Noe, 2010). This means that sharing good news at work is an informal behavior that encourages resource sharing within organizations, which should be of particular interest to knowledge-intensive and innovation-oriented organizations. Organizational leaders should accordingly consider actively encouraging the sharing of positive events in their work units. Leaders could do this by directly asking employees to share good news in meetings or by redesigning workspace layouts to facilitate more serendipitous interactions. Importantly, other research has shown that capitalization can backfire by resulting in unfavorable social comparisons or social undermining (Watkins, 2021; see also Brown, Ferris, Heller, & Keeping, 2007). Hence, leaders should consider multiple factors before they unilaterally encourage capitalization in their organizations.

Our model describes how the positive association of capitalization-induced pride and knowledge sharing behavior is more (less) likely to hold in the case of high (low) responsiveness. Leaders should correspondingly coach employees to be responsive to each other when they are targets of workplace interpersonal capitalization so that more organization-benefiting knowledge sharing ensues from this commonplace interpersonal interaction. Practically, given that responsiveness can be taught (Conoley, Vasquez, Bello, Oromendia, & Jeske, 2015), managers could model to employees how to genuinely demonstrate responsiveness when they themselves are the target of positive event disclosures. If leaders heed this suggestion, they will need to be careful not to let their reaction become controlling in nature (Gable & Reis, 2010), which could decrease intrinsic motivation for the activity spotlighted in the disclosure. This is particularly true if the leader's reaction involves more than just verbal praise, such as congratulating employees with financial rewards (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Limitations and Future Directions

In both studies, effort attribution consistently acted as a strict boundary to the effects of workplace interpersonal capitalization in that disclosure only elicited pride when effort attribution was higher (but not lower). Meanwhile, although responsiveness exhibited a "strengthening effect" (Gardner, Harris, Li, Kirkman, & Mathieu, 2017) across both studies, as expected, the precise shape of the interaction varied. In Study 1, pride and knowledge sharing were only positively associated when responsiveness was higher. In contrast, in Study 2 pride and knowledge sharing were positively associated at both higher and lower values of responsiveness, yet were comparatively more strongly associated when responsiveness was higher. We think that this difference was mainly a result of the different levels of analysis. Specifically, the daily association (vs. between-individual association) of pride–knowledge sharing appears to be stronger and therefore less contingent on responsiveness. This suggests that capitalization-elicited pride starts out potent, and then wanes in potency over time. This observation paints Study 1 as a conservative test of our hypotheses given its between-individual design. Future research can explore the half-life of pride elicited by capitalization to augment understanding related to how long the effects of capitalization play out before diminishing.

We developed our theoretical predictions within the context of the workplace; however, the social-functionalist model of emotions is not constrained to the workplace, and its tenets are applicable to any social group (Henrich & Gil-White, 2001; Tracy et al., 2010). Notwithstanding, it is unclear to what extent our model generalizes to other contexts, such as romantic relationships, religious groups, schools, or families. We speculate that capitalization would also trigger instrumental processes in these other contexts, given the relevance of the social-functionalist model across contexts. For example, disclosing work-related good news with one's partner (Ilies et al., 2011, 2017) might serve instrumental functions related to negotiating whose career takes priority (Livingston, 2014), developing one's professional identity from a secure base (Petriglieri & Obodaru, 2019), or managing expectations about the value one places on work (Masterson & Hoobler, 2015). Future work can explore these ideas.

In our theoretical development, we postulated positive outcomes of capitalization for disclosers, namely pride and knowledge sharing in accordance with the social-functionalist model of emotions. This approach aligns with most capitalization research, which has predominately exhibited favorable outcomes. However, capitalization can backfire, particularly in the workplace (Watkins, 2021), yet we did not directly build theory on the instrumental downsides of workplace interpersonal capitalization. We note this as a limitation and encourage future work to continue expanding what we know about the potential costs of sharing good news at work,

particularly for disclosers. This would facilitate an understanding of the overall net effects of workplace interpersonal capitalization.

Our model positions responsiveness as a boundary condition to the effects of pride on knowledge sharing. Yet, our model does not explain why and when disclosers are more likely or less likely to perceive responsiveness in their coworkers during capitalization. We observe that in the capitalization literature writ large, knowledge has yet to be developed regarding antecedents of this key boundary condition (see Gable & Reis, 2010; Peters et al., 2018). Given that responsiveness continues to demonstrate relevance for positive capitalization outcomes, we deem it urgent that researchers uncover why disclosers vary in their responsiveness perceptions.

CONCLUSION

Capitalization is a commonplace phenomenon. Indeed, individuals share their positive events with others 60–80% of the time (Gable et al., 2004; Reis et al., 2010). To date, capitalization has been conceptualized as a socioemotional process aimed at facilitating affective and relationship well-being (Gable & Reis, 2010). Notwithstanding, when considering capitalization in other contexts, such as the workplace, sharing positive events may be more instrumentally imbued than previously assumed. In this research, we develop a model that describes how and when workplace interpersonal capitalization spurs an instrumental process that motivates knowledge sharing. As such, employees can rekindle the fire and stoke the flames of their past positive work events, ultimately advancing work goals. This rethinking of capitalization is noteworthy, and we hope it sparks insightful future inquiry.

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