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How do We Know What Emotion to Show: The Influence of Culture and Relational Context on Display Rules in the Workplace

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How do We Know What Emotion to Show:
The Influence of Culture and Relational Context on Display Rules in the Workplace

By

Joanna M. Kraft

A Dissertation
Submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies
through the Department of Psychology
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy
at the University of Windsor

Windsor, Ontario, Canada

2013

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and Relational Context on Display Rules in the Workplace

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DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

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ABSTRACT

Display rules are an important and often overlooked aspect of emotional labour, a process which occurs when *how* we regulate and display our emotion is based on rules created by the organization. Only a limited number of studies have examined display rules within this context (Diefendorff & Greguras, 2009; Grosserand & Diefendorff, 2005; Gullekson & Vancouver, 2010; Mann, 2007). The current study examined display rules on both a part-time and full-time sample to examine how these rules may change across discrete emotions, work specific targets (e.g., internal customers such as supervisors, coworkers, and subordinates; and external customers or clients), and individual differences in social culture. Results replicated previous findings, and emphasized the importance of the internal customers. Further, display rules differed across samples, providing support for the examination of the influence of work status, industry, and individual cultural differences. Self-construal, as examined through independent and interdependent values, did not result in differences across emotional display rules, however, the application of the theory of planned behaviour and the concept of *instrumental collectivistic behaviour*, can provide insight to these findings, placing even more importance on context and organizational norms.

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“One of the most beautiful things about life is meeting people. Some are flashes in the sky, like a fire fly, blipping in and out of our life, but others are comets that blaze a path through our hearts and leave a trail of good times, never to be forgotten.”

-Susan Kraft

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Everyday interpersonal interactions are fraught with emotional complexities. We struggle with first identifying the emotions we are feeling, determining if we should communicate how we are feeling with those around us, and finally, deciding if that communication should be authentic (i.e., should we fake a more appropriate emotion, or emote our true feelings). This struggle is further complicated as the social situation and surrounding contextual pressures influence our emotional displays, as we may choose to hide our true emotions or even try to display a different emotion in its place. We all take a ride on the proverbial “emotional rollercoaster,” in which, every ride is different and at different points throughout the ride there may either be many dips and curves or straight paths; the overriding fact is that we all get on the ride. We all experience a variety of emotions throughout every aspect of our daily lives; whether we are alone, at home with our family, out with our friends, or even at work.

Emotions have been often studied in interpersonal interactions, however the workplace has been historically considered a place where it was not appropriate to show or discuss emotion (Mann, 1997). This pejorative view of emotion in the workplace contends that emotions are mutually exclusive of work and are therefore deemed disruptive, weak, and illogical (Mann, 1997). The workplace is not exempt from the “emotional rollercoaster” and the prohibition of emotions within the workplace inherently makes them an integral part of the workplace (as we now have to deal with the social norm to *not* deal with our emotions). The negative belief regarding emotions in the workplace originally devalued the importance of emotion research (Ashforth &

Humphrey, 1995). However, researchers throughout the early 90s (i.e., the era in which emotion research in organizations begun) have argued that “the emotional dimension is an inseparable part of organizational life and can no longer be ignored in organizational researchers” (Ashkanasy, Härtel, & Zerbe, 2000, p. 4). Emotions should be studied within the workplace, as our work environment is a large part of our life and frequently the location of many important social interactions. Within the workplace these social interactions often are carried out with a larger goal in mind, and therefore communication is of the utmost importance. When a large majority of communication is non-verbal, the way we display our emotions becomes increasingly more important.

Research examining emotions in the workplace have centered on the construct of emotional labour. Hochschild (1983) first examined emotional labour and determined that emotion work involves: interaction with clients; using emotions to influence the emotions, attitudes, and behaviours of other people; and the rules that govern these emotions. Emotional labour has been described as the work requirement to feel and express emotions in accordance with display rules (Grandey, 2000). It is the effort required to assess emotional dissonance (i.e., the discrepancy between felt and required emotional display) and to engage in emotion regulation strategies to reduce dissonance. The concept of emotional dissonance is based on cognitive dissonance theory; a theory that argues dissonance results from the incongruence between attitudes, thoughts, or feelings, and behaviour (Van Dijk & Brown, 2006). These authors also discussed how the experience of dissonance grows into a motivating force to either alter attitudes or behaviours in order to decrease the tension due to dissonance. Dissonance may not always result in tension or discomfort, especially when incongruence exists and the

required behaviours “do not threaten an individual’s overarching sense of self” (Van Dijk & Brown, 2006, p. 106). An individual may engage in activities as dictated by the organization (e.g., show an emotion they do not feel), but the negative results from this dissonance may be minimal, or non-existent, if these activities (e.g., non-genuine emotional display) support, or do not threaten, the employees’ sense of identity. In other instances the dissonance may result in tension or negative consequences, and in these cases, the individuals may try to decrease this dissonance through emotion regulation strategies.

Emotional labour is the effort necessary to evaluate emotional dissonance and then engage in emotion regulation strategies to reduce this dissonance. Emotion regulation is the process that individuals engage in, in order to influence what, when, and how they experience emotions and there are a variety of regulation strategies (i.e., mechanisms of emotion regulation; the specific way in which emotion regulation is achieved; Gross, 1998). For example, antecedent-focused strategies which occurs before the experience of the emotion such as selecting one situation over another or selecting specific aspects of a situation to focus on; while response-focused strategies occur after the emotion is generated, such as faking unfeelt emotions or putting on a smile to appear enthusiastic (Gross, 1998).

Emotional labour can be seen in many places throughout the workplace. Emotional labour could be: an employee remaining calm when about to lose his/her temper with a customer; a funeral director expressing feelings of sympathy and sorrow with clients as opposed to a perky, upbeat personality; or an employee suppressing feelings of irritation and forcing a friendly smile towards a coworker (Bono & Vey,

2005). Recall that emotional labour is the work requirement to feel and express emotions in accordance with display rules (Grandey, 2000). Display rules are specific expectations (which emotions to feel and express); conceptually, these are a component of emotion regulation (Matsumoto, Yoo, Hirayama, & Petrova, 2005). Display rules should be at the forefront of emotional labour research; however these rules are an often overlooked aspect of emotional labour. Without the requirement to follow display rules, as dictated by the organization, emotional labour is simply emotion regulation, a process individuals engage in on a daily basis. Emotional labour occurs when *how* we regulate our emotions is based on rules created by the organization. These rules may vary across: industry or occupation, social or organizational culture, and work specific targets (Diefendorff & Greguras, 2009; Mann, 2007). For example, targets within an organizational context may include supervisors, coworkers, subordinates, or customers.

Until we understand the types of rules that exist within the organization, across these specific contexts, we cannot fully comprehend how employees engage in emotional labour (or follow these rules). Employees must first perceive and acknowledge the types of display rules that exist, continue to assess their emotional dissonance (i.e., the discrepancy between felt and required emotional display), and then ultimately decide whether or not to follow these rules, and therefore engage in emotional labour. Although, a plethora of research has examined emotional labour (e.g., Bono & Vey, 2005; Diefendorff, Croyle & Grosserand, 2005; Grandey, 2000; Holman, Martinez-Iñigo, & Totterdell, 2008; Mann, 1999; Morris & Feldman, 1997) only a few studies have examined display rules within organizations (Diefendorff & Greguras, 2009; Grosserand & Diefendorff, 2005; Mann, 2007).

Research on display rules within the workplace have examined the emotional management strategies across discrete emotions and work specific targets and the influences of societal and occupational norms (Diefendorff & Greguras, 2009 Gullekson & Vancouver, 2010; Mann, 2007). Researchers have also examined the role of commitment to display rules within the workplace (Grosserand & Diefendorff, 2005). Research within the area of display rules within the workplace is still in its infancy and even though the work has considered important constructs, there is a need for additional studies that combine these often interrelated constructs within one study, along with the proper measurement techniques. Research has also demonstrated the need to include social culture, in addition to commitment within the discussion of display rules (Grosserand & Diefendorff, 2005; Gullekson & Vancouver, 2010; Mann, 2007), however to date, research has not included measurement tools that can adequately address these issues. Beyond the importance of social culture, organizational culture has not been directly researched. Nor have these cultural issues, which occur simultaneously within the workplace, been examined together in research studies. The current study addresses these social and organizational culture components and provides employees and employers with a more in depth view on the display rules that exist within organizations across workplace targets.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

As previously mentioned, display rules should be at the forefront of emotional labour research, as without display rules, emotional labour is only emotion regulation. Emotional labour occurs when *how* we regulate our emotions is based on rules created by the organization. Although, the focus of the current study was display rules, it is also important to acknowledge that this construct is deeply embedded within the larger construct of emotional labour. As such, before display rules can be sufficiently discussed, it is important to first situate this construct within the broader emotional labour literature. To begin with a detailed examination of the emotional labour literature will provide a greater background from which we can begin to take a closer look at display rules.

Emotional Labour

Emotional labour is an important construct to examine for several reasons. First, emotional labour has been shown to be a prominent factor within organizations (e.g., 70% of emotional labour occurs between employees; Mann, 1999) and therefore it is of interest to determine its relationships with important organizational variables. These variables include organizational outcomes such as job satisfaction, counterproductive behaviours and commitment (e.g., Bechtoldt, Welk, Hartig, & Zapf, 2007; Pugliesi, 1999; Yang & Chang, 2008). Second, research has found several consequences of emotional labour (such as stress and other health symptoms; Côté, 2005; Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000; burnout, decreased job satisfaction, decreased performance and withdrawal behaviours; Grandey, 2000) and continued research into this construct will help

determine the costs and benefits of the role requirement of emotional labour, especially between employees. The requirement to display positive emotions has been related to physical symptoms (as described by somatic complaints; Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000), increased perceptions of job stress (Pugliesi, 1999), and increased emotional exhaustion (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Montgomery, Panagopoluoi, de Wildt, & Meenks, 2006). It is not clear whether the consequences of emotional labour are always negative. Research has theorized that the regulation of emotions is related to strain; however, the directional impact may depend upon other social dynamic factors (e.g., the regulation strategy used; Côté, 2005).

The understanding of emotional labour can aid in determining how to minimize the costs and maximize the benefits of this work requirement. Although research examining emotional labour has focused on the consequences of emotional labour, the majority of this research has focused on the target of customers; researchers have encouraged the examination of other organizational targets (e.g., supervisors, coworkers; Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Morris & Feldman, 1996). Finally, emotional labour might vary across different industries and occupations, and these differences might have several implications for selection, training, and management.

Research examining emotional labour began with Hochschild's 1983 book "The Managed Heart" in which she examined the emotional demands of flight attendants. Hochschild determined that emotion work involves: interaction with clients; using emotions to influence the emotions, attitudes, and behaviours of other people; and the rules that govern these emotions. Research since 1983 has focused on this *service with a smile* mentality that workers face within the service industry (i.e., while interacting with

clients). This focus on the service industry is usually directed at emotional labour interactions with external customers (i.e., the person accessing the services such as a client or customer); nonetheless, research within this area has recently moved to examine how leaders can perform emotional labour (Gardner, Fischer, & Hunt, 2009; Glaso & Einarsen, 2008; Humprey, Pollack, & Hawver, 2008). Emotional labour between leaders and subordinates introduces the idea that emotional labour can be applied towards internal customers (i.e., between employees such as coworkers, supervisors, or subordinates). In today's workplace, display rules exist that dictate the manner in which employees should behave with each other, supervisors, or subordinates. It is of continued interest to examine the process of emotional labour within the context of internal customers and it is important to first understand how emotional labour has been defined and conceptualized.

Emotional labour has been defined in many different ways, however, most researchers include regulating, managing, or shaping emotions within their definition (e.g., Bono & Vey, 2005; Diefendorff et al., 2005; Morris & Feldman, 1996). One of the primary aspects of emotional labour is that it only occurs when this regulation of emotion is done in accordance with display rules (i.e., rules dictating appropriate displays; Glomb & Tews, 2004; Gosserand & Diefendorff, 2005; Morris & Feldman, 1996) or for the good of the organization (Grandey, 2000; Syed, 2008). While researchers disagree on how to define emotional labour and the specific processes involved, several studies have aimed at clarifying these issues for the research area (e.g., Bono & Vey, 2005; Grandey, 2000; Holman et al., 2008; Morris & Feldman, 1997; Steinberg & Figart, 1999; Zapf, 2002). Finally, a large majority of the research area aims to conceptualize emotional

labour through dimensions and regulation strategies (Diefendorff et al., 2005; Glomb & Tews, 2004; Kruml & Geddes, 2000; Mann, 1999; Morris & Feldman, 1996) and to determine the antecedents and consequences of emotional labour (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Diefendorff et al., 2005; Diefendorff, Richard, & Yang, 2008; Morris & Feldman, 1996; Zapf, Vogt, Seifert, Mertini, & Isic, 1999).

Overview of research area. Several literature reviews have been conducted under the topic of emotional labour. Grandey, Diefendorff, and Rupp (2012) provide an over-arching discussion of the research on emotional labour and discuss the three focal lenses (i.e., occupational requirements, emotional displays, and intrapsychic processes). Occupational requirements focuses on the job requirements to manage feelings in exchange for a wage; emotional displays focuses on employee behaviours and the need to compare display rules with emotions felt; intrapsychic processes are involved in the effort required to alter emotional displays (Grandey et al., 2012). Research in this area may view emotional labour through one or more of these lenses, however Grandey and colleagues contend that it is the dynamic interactions between all three that must be taken to fully understand the concept of emotional labour. Researchers have, beyond the above mentioned theoretical review of the literature, attempted to summarize and encapsulate the research that has been conducted on emotional labour.

Zapf (2002) conducted a review of the literature and concluded by defining emotional work as including: 1) a job component requiring face-to-face or voice-to-voice client interactions; 2) displayed emotions to influence the emotional state of others thus influencing their attitudes and behaviours; and 3) rules dictating the display of emotions. This definition, assumes that emotional work is *person related work* as opposed to *object*

related work (Zapf, 2002). In comparison, Bono & Vey (2005) found that emotional labour has been discussed in terms of emotional management, the presence of display rules and compliance, and role requirements (e.g., classification of jobs). Researchers have concluded that emotional labour is a multi-dimensional construct, but what these dimensions are is still subject to debate. Dimensions that have been posited include: aspects (e.g., frequency, attentiveness, variety), emotional dissonance (i.e., the discrepancy between felt and required emotional display), emotional labour performance, and emotional management strategies (e.g., deep acting, surface acting; Bono & Vey, 2005; Zapf, 2002).

Zapf discussed the beneficial aspects of emotional work, including more predictable work situations and more positive emotions at work. Situational characteristics (e.g., job characteristics, display rules, job autonomy) have been the focus of many research studies, along with individual differences (e.g., positive and negative affect, gender; Bono & Vey, 2005). Finally, these researchers have also made several suggestions for future research including: 1) the importance of personality traits; 2) the opportunity for the characteristics of the job to buffer the potential negative effects of emotional labour (e.g., job autonomy); and 3) the need for more research on emotional labour and performance. Zapf focused on emotional labour as occurring between an employee and a customer, while Bono and Vey identified the need for replication studies that examine targets beyond the customer context.

Conceptualization of emotional labour. The two reviews discussed above provided a general overview of the research that has been conducted within the field of emotional labour and identified several different conceptualizations which have been

proposed regarding regulation strategies involved (i.e., the specific way in which emotion regulation is achieved). For example, some authors focus on the aspects of the labour itself (i.e., frequency, duration, intensity, variety; Morris & Feldman, 1996); while others focus on the specific strategies involved including deep acting (i.e., modifying feelings through changing internal emotional states) and surface acting (i.e., modifying expression through faking the expected emotional display; Bono & Vey, 2005; Glomb & Tews, 2004). Several researchers have argued for the inclusion of genuine emotion as a dimension of emotional labour (Diefendorff et al., 2005). Other authors have employed an emotion regulation framework and applied this conceptualization to emotional labour through the strategies of deep acting and surface acting. For example, antecedent-focused (altering the stimulus) corresponds to deep acting, and response-focused (altering the response to the stimulus) corresponds to surface acting (Grandey, 2000; Holman et al., 2008). Finally, the focus and importance that has been placed on display rules and dissonance (and where these concepts occur within the emotional labour process) has varied greatly.

Dimensions of emotional labour. Morris and Feldman (1996) aimed to create a more complex conceptualization of emotional labour. In their proposition paper, emotional labour was defined as the “effort, planning, and control needed to express organizationally desired emotion during interpersonal transactions” and they also referenced display rules as the “standards or rules that dictate how and when emotions should be expressed” p. 988). Emotional labour is conceptualized in terms of four dimensions: frequency, display rule attentiveness (i.e., duration and intensity), variety, and emotional dissonance. Frequency is the amount of emotional display that is required

(such that when there are more displays required there is more demand for emotional labour) and attentiveness to the required display rules involves the length or duration of the emotion to be displayed and how strong the emotion is experienced and expressed (i.e., intensity). Variety includes the different types of emotions required to be displayed (e.g., positive, negative, neutral; Morris & Feldman, 1996); and as the variety of emotions required increases, there is a greater demand for emotional labour. When discussing intensity (i.e., how strong the emotion is experienced and expressed), these authors included the concepts of deep acting (i.e., modifying feelings in an attempt to actually experience the emotions that are required to be displayed) and surface acting (i.e., modifying expression by simulating or displaying emotions that are not actually felt).

Finally, consistent with reviews conducted by Zapf (2002) and Bono and Vey (2005), emotional dissonance is described as the conflict between felt emotions and the emotions required to be displayed (Morris & Feldman, 1996). These authors considered emotional dissonance as a dimension of emotional labour as opposed to a consequence. Emotional dissonance is then an important part of emotional labour as it follows the evaluation of display rules and, when present, leads to the occurrence of regulation strategies. Finally, Morris and Feldman proposed that emotional labour is a multidimensional construct and that future research should continue to develop and validate these four components. Similar to Bono and Vey, it was suggested that research move beyond service roles and examine other organizational roles.

Morris and Feldman (1996) are well known for focusing on what they term *dimensions* of emotional labour (i.e., frequency, display rule attentiveness, variety, and

emotional dissonance). These dimensions have also been examined within the literature as situational cues (or descriptive antecedents) for the emotional regulation process within emotional labour as opposed to dimensions of the construct itself (Grandey, 2000). It is important to evaluate the frequency, duration, intensity and variety of emotional labour as these cues may impact the type of regulation strategy employed and may pave the way for a variety of consequences of emotional labour. For example, research has shown that the frequency and duration demands may lead to an increase in faked expressions (Grandey, 2000). Research has found that frequency has a positive relationship with both surface and deep acting (aspects of intensity), while duration has a positive relationship with deep acting (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003). Deep and surface acting have been discussed as regulation strategies and have been found to correspond to response-focused and antecedent focused emotion regulation strategies. Again, these factors and dimensions are important; and more recent research has generated alternative conceptualizations of what role they play in the emotional labour process.

Regulation strategies. Grandey (2000) developed a model as a new way to conceptualize emotional labour. She defines emotional labour as the “process of regulating both feelings and expressions for the organizational goals” (p. 97). She reviews previous literature and argues that conceptualizations of emotional labour include the job characteristics (frequency, attentiveness, variety; as defined by Morris & Feldman, 1996) and the observable expressions of the employee. Grandey contends that the job characteristics invoke emotional labour, while the observable expressions are the goals of emotional labour. This is in contrast to Morris and Feldman (1996) who believe that job characteristics (such as frequency, attentiveness, and variety) are dimensions of

the emotional labour process, as opposed to antecedents to it. Grandey along with Diefendorff and colleagues (2008) furthered the conceptualization of emotional labour by incorporating theories of emotion regulation in order to create a more detailed set of emotion regulation strategies. Antecedent-focused regulation is concerned with altering the stimulus and includes situation selection (i.e., selecting one situation over another), situation modification (i.e., tailoring a situation to modify its emotional impact), attentional deployment (i.e., selecting a specific aspect of the situation to focus on), and cognitive change (i.e., selecting which meaning to attach to the situation; Diefendorff et al., 2008). Response-focused regulation involves altering the response to the stimulus and includes strategies such as faking unfeared emotions and concealing feared emotions (Diefendorff et al., 2008).

Along with this conceptualization Grandey (2000) developed a model (see Figure 1) which maps antecedent and response-focused regulation with deep and surface acting, respectively under the emotional regulation process. Preceding the emotion regulation process are situational cues including interaction expectations (e.g., frequency, duration, variety) and emotional events. Finally, other important factors within Grandey's model include personal and organizational factors (which influence the emotional regulation process) and the consequences of emotional labour (e.g., results may include improved organizational performance, but with health consequences for the employee). The model developed by Grandey gives greater insight into the process of emotional labour. It focuses on the regulation strategies of deep and surface acting and incorporates theories of emotion regulation from research outside of the workplace by including antecedent and response-focused regulation. Grandey's model advances the conceptualization of

emotional labour by moving the dimensions discussed by Morris and Feldman (1996) into the interaction expectations, which are a part of the situational cues prior to the emotional regulation process (as opposed to part of the regulation process or part of emotional labour itself). Where this model falls short, and coincidentally where Morris and Feldman succeed, is the application of display rules and emotional dissonance.

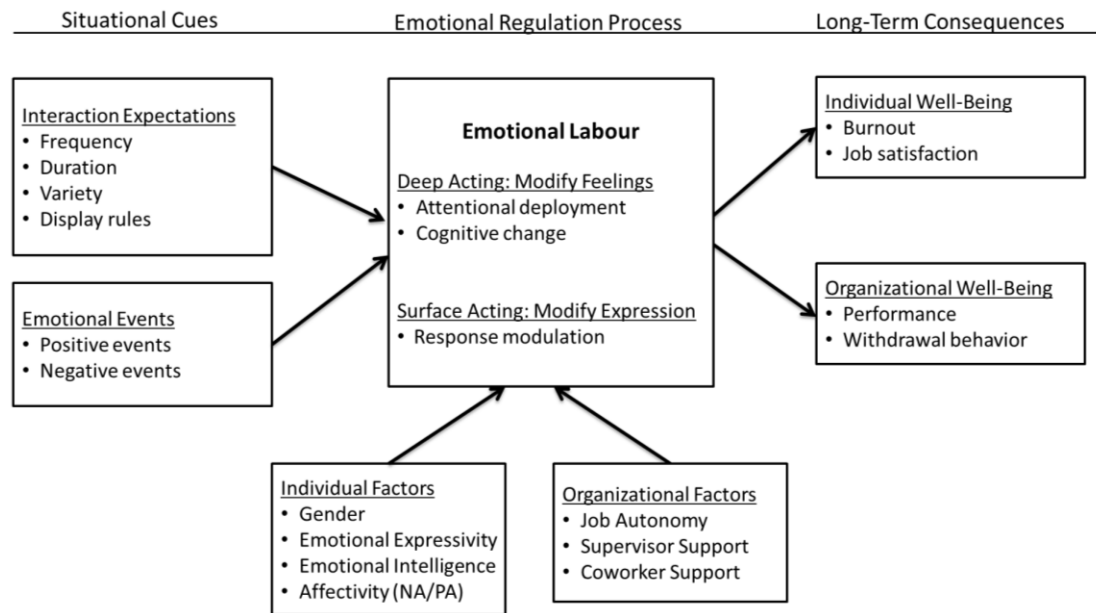


Figure 1. “The proposed conceptual framework of emotion regulation performed in the work setting. NA = negative affect; PA = positive affect.” (Grandey, 2000, p.101).

Grandey (2000) discusses how emotional labour is dictated by organizational goals; however she does not explicitly talk about the implicit rules that direct the emotional expression required. Further, there is no discussion of the role that dissonance (i.e., the discrepancy between felt and required emotion) plays in the process of emotional labour. Again, display rules should be at the forefront of emotional labour research. These are the rules that dictate appropriate emotional displays, and without these rules, and the consequential dissonance that may follow, emotional labour is simply

emotion regulation. It is the display rules, which potentially create dissonance, that are the key to emotional labour. As stated earlier, emotional labour occurs when *how* we regulate our emotions is grounded on display rules, and the subsequent emotional dissonance leads to the regulation strategies such as deep and surface acting. Several other researchers have examined the conceptualization of emotional labour with a greater focus on display rules and emotional dissonance.

Display rules and dissonance. Glomb and Tews (2004) defined emotional labour as managing emotions and emotional expression, according to display rules, in order to produce facial and bodily displays. These authors aimed to create a new conceptualization for emotional labour and to develop a questionnaire (i.e., the Discrete Emotions Emotional Labour Scale; DEELS) through a study which included five samples (89 employed students, 150 hotel employees, 44 healthcare providers, 55 police officers, and 217 group home employees). Emotional labour was conceptualized as including internal states (emotional dissonance), internal processes (self-regulation processes), and external behavioural displays (emotional expression; Glomb & Tews, 2004).

Emotional dissonance was defined by the authors as the discrepancy between emotions that are felt versus emotion that are required to be displayed. They conceptualized emotional labour across two dimensions: dictated emotion actually felt (no versus yes) and appropriate display dictated (no expressed display versus expressed display), which resulted in four conditions: 1) nothing felt or displayed, 2) appropriate suppressed display, 3) appropriate faked display, and 4) appropriate genuine display (p. 4). It was suggested that dissonance is a component of emotional labour but is not a necessary condition (e.g., dissonance does not need to occur for genuine displays to

occur). Along their rationale, when dissonance does not occur (condition 1 and 4) individuals do not need to engage in regulation strategies. Diefendorff, and colleagues (2005), who had the same definition of emotional labour, also examined the regulation strategies of deep, surface and genuine displays. More specifically, deep acting has been termed “acting in good faith” where felt emotions are modified so that the displays that follow would be genuine; surface acting has been termed “acting in bad faith” where felt emotions are either faked or suppressed; and genuine displays are the expression of emotions that are naturally felt (Diefendorff et al., 2005). Genuine displays are a fairly new concept that has been added to the deep and surface acting dimensions and these authors contend that genuine displays are a part of emotional labour because even though the employee is not regulating their emotion they still have to ensure that their emotional display is congruent with the display rules (i.e., organizational expectations).

Results from both studies were positive and in support of the three regulation strategies presented. Results of Diefendorff and colleagues’ (2005) confirmatory factor analysis support the three-factor structure of emotional labour (i.e., surface, deep and genuine). Glomb and Tews (2004) found results that support their conceptualization of their scale and its six subscales (suppressed, faked, and genuine for both positive and negative emotions) through confirmatory factor analysis and they found adequate criterion-related validity. The authors found convergent validity through significant relationships between the DEELS subscales (e.g., faking positive and negative, and suppressing positive and negative) and two separate dissonance subscales as well as a surface acting scale. Discriminant validity was ascertained through a non-significant relationship between the DEELS subscales and a duration dimension of another

emotional labour scale (by Morris & Feldman, 1997) suggesting that the frequencies of faking and suppressing were not related to the duration of interactions (Glomb & Tews, 2004). Both sets of researchers make suggestions for future research. Glomb and Tews proposed that future research should examine the causal links between the type of emotional labour and emotional exhaustion and the possibility of interactions across positive and negative emotions. Meanwhile, Diefendorff and colleagues recommended that future research include the need to examine multiple data sources (e.g., supervisors and the perspective of the customer; Diefendorff et al., 2005). The latter being a recommendation also made by Bono and Vey (2005).

Glomb and Tews (2004) concentrated on the dichotomy between the emotion felt and the display dictated; this dichotomy is one of the most important aspects of emotional labour (i.e., display rules and the consequential emotional dissonance). Diefendorff and colleagues (2005) also included a discussion of display rules; but they did not discuss the role of emotional dissonance. Emotional dissonance is the discrepancy between felt and required emotions and if this discrepancy does not exist, it could be argued that an employee would not need to engage in an emotion regulation strategy. For Diefendorff and colleagues genuine displays are what occurs when this discrepancy does not exist (i.e., when you express your naturally felt emotions); Glomb and Tews have argued that emotional dissonance is an antecedent to the emotion regulation strategy and without dissonance regulation does not occur (i.e., genuine displays would be synonymous with not engaging in a regulation strategy and as such would not be considered a dimension of emotional labour). While both sets of researchers include regulation strategies of deep, surface and genuine displays, Glomb and Tews focused their measurement on the

dimensions of suppressed, faked and genuine emotions. The strategies of deep and surface acting do not equate the direction of regulation expressed in their dimensions of suppressed and faked. Deep and surface acting are more often considered emotion regulation strategies (i.e., whether to modify feelings or display), such that an employee could fake through deep or surface acting. Other research has more directly investigated the direction of regulation (amplification, suppression, etc.; Holman et al., 2008).

A process model of emotional labour. Research examining emotional labour should include a focus on display rules, emotional dissonance and the complexity of emotion regulation strategies and Holman et al. (2008) provided such a framework within their model of emotional labour. This process model of emotional labour (see Figure 2) includes the antecedents, regulation process, task performance, resources, and consequences. Rules, events, and dissonance constitute antecedents within their process model and they distinguish between feeling rules (i.e., the type and degree of emotional feeling), and display rules (i.e., the type and extent of emotional expression; Holman et al., 2008).

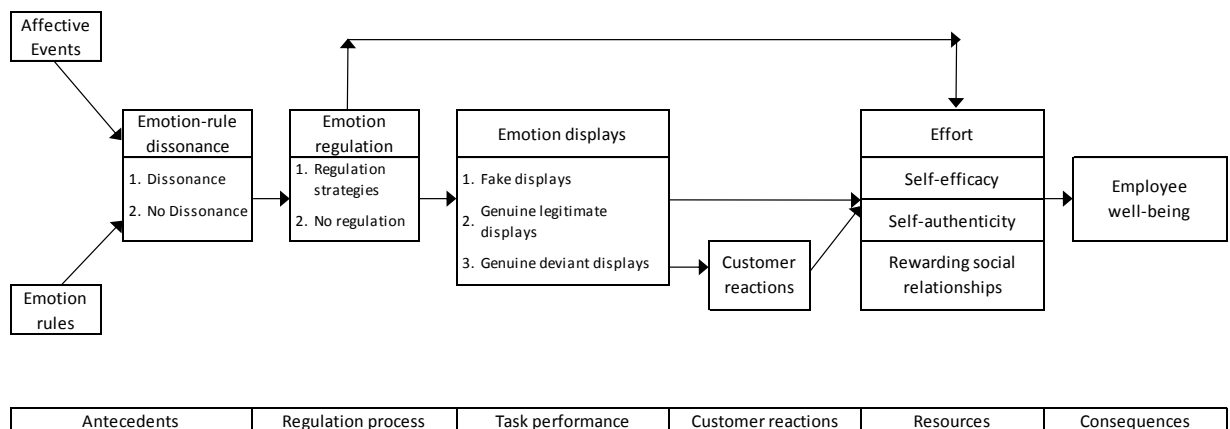


Figure 2. “A model of emotional labour and its outcomes” (Holman et al., 2008, p.302).

Holman and colleagues (2008) discussed the affective events that can create a variety of different emotions within individuals. When discussing dissonance these authors distinguish between emotion-rule dissonance (i.e., the discrepancy between felt emotions and the required display) and fake emotional displays (i.e., the discrepancy between felt emotions and expressed emotion). They conceptualize emotion regulation among two dimensions: focus of regulation (change feeling or expression; deep acting or surface acting) and direction of regulation (amplify or suppress). Holman and colleagues make the deep acting/antecedent-focused regulation and surface acting/response-focused regulation distinction also proposed by Diefendorff et al (2008) and Grandey (2000).

These authors discussed four pathways for emotional displays: 1) genuine legitimate displays (where no dissonance and therefore no need for regulation occurs); 2) genuine deviant displays (dissonance exists, but there is no attempt to regulate); 3) achieved genuine legitimate displays through deep acting (dissonance exists and deep action is used to achieve the legitimate display); 4) fake displays (dissonance exists and surface acting is employed; Holman, et al., 2008). These authors also discussed the resources and demands (i.e., effort, self-efficacy, self-authenticity, social relationships which are rewarding) within the emotional labour process, which can have consequences for well-being. Emotional displays that are fake may be perceived as inauthentic, and lead to a perceived decrease in trust and honesty and also create a less rewarding relationship.

Questions surrounding effectiveness might arise from these negative reactions from inauthentic displays (Holman, et al., 2008). These authors discussed how fake emotional display might decrease feelings of self-authenticity and increase effort

required, both which have been associated with emotional exhaustion. There are several potential consequences for emotional labour depending on the strategy employed; for example, faking emotional displays has been linked positively with emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, anxiety and depression, and negatively with job satisfaction and personal accomplishment (Holman, et al., 2008). Holman and colleagues also discussed some implications for their model, such as the variation that can occur in the emotional labour process including discrete emotions and the valence of the emotion involved.

Within this model, affective events and emotion rules (i.e., display rules) lead to a state of dissonance. Then, the presence or absence of dissonance will lead to a regulation strategy or no regulation strategy (respectively). Finally, the emotion regulation stage leads to emotion displays. Holman and colleagues (2008) focus on emotional dissonance and contend that dissonance needs to occur prior to the regulation of emotion. They include the important aspect of display rules within their model. This model also expands upon what emotional labour can look like in terms of regulation strategies and specifies a dichotomy of the focus of regulation (i.e., deep or surface acting) and the direction of regulation (i.e., amplification or suppression). The conceptualization of emotional labour has moved to focus on the role dissonance plays, but has only recently included display rules explicitly within their model. Holman's model is the most comprehensive concerning regulation strategies, but still only includes the focus and direction of regulation, while ignoring specific strategies (e.g., masking, qualifying, neutralizing). The role of customer target is not suggested by any of these models and it is problematic that the assumption is then made that these frameworks would be applicable across all contexts.

Limitations of the extant literature. The focus of the current study is display rules, and an overview of the emotional labour literature is a valuable exercise to begin with, as this discussion will center display rules within this overarching construct, and provides greater detail and support for the importance of display rules. The field of emotional labour has come a long way since Hochschild's 1983 examination of flight attendants; yet there are still many limitations to the way emotional labour has been conceptualized. The review of the literature has highlighted that most articles have focused on the service industries with a default to the external customer (e.g., customer, client). The examination of emotional labour within the workplace is reliant on research that considers the inherent hierarchy within organizations (and thus examines multiple targets beyond the external customers) and given these targets examines how display rules (as dictated by the organization) may currently exist within today's workplace. In addition, the inclusion of display rules and dissonance is often overlooked or removed from discussions and models of emotional labour.

Importance of internal customer. There is a large focus on external customers, that is, customers, clients, or patrons within the service sector. The possibility of a wide variety of targets is not suggested by the definition or the models within the literature. Measurement of emotional labour is even more convoluted as many scales do not explicitly state that they are examining an external customer context, even when that is their purpose. Researchers have stressed the importance of specifying the target of emotional labour (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Morris & Feldman, 1996) specifically when examining display rules (Diefendorff & Greguras, 2009; Grandey, Rafaeli, Ravid, Wirtz, & Steiner, 2010). Research has recently moved to examine emotional labour

within an internal customer context. For example, Glaso and Einarsen (2008) examined 135 leaders and 207 followers and found that emotional labour is more common between coworkers as compared to employees and customers. Leaders may have more interactions with followers (as they will have more followers than followers have leaders) resulting in a higher frequency of interaction (Glaso & Einarsen, 2008). This increased interaction between leader and followers justifies more research examining this unique relationship and the rules that may dictate the protocol for these interactions.

Research has stressed the importance of examining internal customers and contends that there is no distinct boundary between emotional labour and non-emotional labour jobs (Mann, 1997). Researchers have examined the extent to which emotional labour is occurring across external and internal customers and have found that 70% of emotional labour occurs within internal contexts (Mann, 1999). Researchers have not brought this internal-external distinction into research questions, or to their discussion of research findings. Researchers have also not adequately integrated this distinction into their measurement models. Several articles discussed how it is important to consider the target of emotional labour (Bono & Vey, 2005; Diefendorff et al., 2005; Morris & Feldman, 1996); nonetheless research has not fully caught up with this recommendation.

Just as research is beginning to examine how emotional labour may differ when comparing internal versus external customers, it is valuable to move beyond this dichotomy to examine all possible targets employees may face within the workplace. For example, we will follow different rules when we interact with our boss as compared to our coworkers. Hecht and LaFrance (1998) examined the effect of power on smiling and found that unlike people in a position of power, low power people do not have the

freedom *not* to smile. This research provides support for the differences that may exist in how we experience and display emotion when interacting with people across the power hierarchy. The target of emotional labour is important and research should specify the target within their studies. Emotional labour research should continue to move beyond a focus on external customers (i.e., clients, customers) and include the multiple internal customers that exist (i.e., supervisor, coworker, subordinate).

Display rules and dissonance. Most articles that investigated emotional labour did not discuss display rules and the consequential dissonance that can follow when the emotions felt do not match the emotions required. Models of emotional labour do not always include these rules and have just recently moved to include dissonance as a separate stage in the emotional labour process. The importance of display rules becomes even more apparent when research turns to focus on a greater variety of targets. It is possible that the lack of research regarding internal customers may be due to the lack of focus on the display rules that exist across customer context. For example, emotional labour research has not placed the focus on display rules, and therefore does not attend to the fact that display rules may differ depending on the target of the emotional labour. Research examining emotional labour needs to include a discussion on display rules. Display rules may impact other aspects of emotional labour (e.g., regulation strategies) and as such, they are an important first step to understanding this construct within the workplace. Some research explicitly examines display rules within the workplace, however before discussing this research it is valuable to examine display rule research outside of the workplace.

Display Rules

Overview of display norms. Emotional labour is not the first research area to investigate display rules. Emotion regulation has been an extensively researched topic and has become an important research area within psychology (Gross, 1998; Matsumoto & Yoo, 2006). Emotional display norms, that is, within a variety of other domains, has been an widely researched topic within psychology, especially within the context of cultural differences (e.g., Fok, Hui, Bond, Matsumoto, & Yoo, 2008; Koopmann-Holm, & Matsumoto, 2010; Matsumoto, 2007; Matsumoto & Hwang, 2010; Matsumoto & Kupperbusch, 2001; Matsumoto, Olide, & Willingham, 2009; Matsumoto, Takeuchi, Andayani, Kouznetsova, & Krupp, 1998; Matsumoto et al., 2005; Matsumoto, et al., 2008; Safdar et al., 2009; Schug, Matsumoto, Horita, Yamagishi, & Bonnet, 2010). In terms of terminology, display *norms* will be used when discussing emotional displays in general (and in our everyday life), while display *rules* will be used when discussing the emotional display that is required within the workplace.

Research on display norms has examined individual differences that occur within cultures including personality traits and behaviours. Fok et al. (2008) examined individual differences in the perceptions of display rules across the personality traits of extraversion and neuroticism. These authors found that personality influenced display rules, such that extraverts are more likely to express negative emotions in close relationship and suppress these negative emotions in distant relationships. Schug et al. (2010) examined the relationship between emotional expressions and cooperation and their results showed that people who cooperate are more likely to be emotionally expressive as compared to non-cooperators. They also concluded that expressivity may

be a better indicator of cooperativeness than positive emotional displays (Schug et al., 2010).

Cultural differences in display norms. These two articles are just a few examples of the research that has been conducted on display norms. Beyond examining individual differences, many authors have examined culture differences in display norms. Many researchers believe that display norms are informed by culture and dictate what emotion is allowed for each given situation (Koopmann-Holm & Matsumoto, 2010; Matsumoto & Kupperbusch, 2001; Matsumoto et al., 1998; Matsumoto, et al., 2008; Matsumoto et al., 2005; Safdar et al., 2009). As such, it is not surprising that a large majority of display norm research has examined cultural differences. Matsumoto and Yoo (2006) discussed the evolution of cross-cultural research and have outlined the three phases that have previously occurred within this research area and also recommend a fourth phase for future research.

The first phase includes cross-cultural comparisons and within this phase, research examines the differences between two cultural groups (as based on countries, ethnicities, or shared common language; Matsumoto & Yoo, 2006). An example of studies within this phase of cross-cultural research include Safdar et al. (2009) and their examination of emotional displays across Japan, US and Canada. These authors found that Japanese display norms more often included suppressing power emotions (e.g., anger, contempt, and disgust) compared to North American norms. Japanese display norms were less likely to include expressing positive emotions (e.g., happiness and surprise) as compared to Canada. Another example of a cross-cultural comparison study is Koopmann-Holm and Matsumoto (2010) and their investigation into values and

display norms across Americans and Germans. Their results indicated that Americans were more likely to value conservation and self-enhancement, while Germans were more likely to value openness to change and self-transcendence. Due to these value differences, Americans were more likely to express when feeling contempt and disgust, while Germans were more likely to express when feeling anger and sadness (Koopmann & Matsumoto, 2010).

The first phase of cross-cultural studies seeks to determine that the differences between the groups are due to their distinct cultures, yet they often “attribute the source of group differences to culture without being empirically justified in doing so” (Matsumoto & Yoo, 2006, p. 235). The differences found may be due to culture or due to other factors (Matsumoto & Yoo, 2006); researchers have conducted studies within the second phase of cross-cultural research: identifying meaningful dimensions of cultural variability. Within this phase, cultural dimensions are examined and countries are placed into these categories (i.e., research is still conducted at the country level of sampling). For example, Matsumoto et al. (2008) administered the Display Rule Assessment Inventory to over 5,000 respondents in 32 countries. These researchers used the cultural dimensions of individualisms, and used index score estimates for all countries within the study (e.g., an individualism score was assigned to each country). Results indicated that the more individualistic an individual was (based on their country of origin), the more they expressed emotions, especially for positive emotions (Matsumoto et al., 2008). The reliance on country based sampling (such that country names are substituted for dimension labels) has led to the third phase of cross-cultural research, that is, cultural studies, which are studies that focus on cultural dimensions at the individual level

(Matsumoto & Yoo, 2006). These authors also discussed the self-construal framework developed by Markus and Kitayama (1991) as research characterizing this phase of cross-cultural studies.

Self-construal: Culture at the individual level. Markus and Kitayama (1991) developed a model of culture that examines differences at the individual level. These authors contend that the way individuals view themselves, others, and the relationship between themselves and others contributes to these cultural differences. Within this model there are two different construal of self: independent and interdependent. These authors describe an individual with an independent construal as one who focuses on his or her own self, with feelings and thoughts as a reference for organizing and attaching meaning to behaviour; conversely an interdependent construal focuses on perceptions of the feelings and thoughts of others, as way to organize and develop meaning for behaviour. Individuals with an interdependent construal recognize that their behaviour is reliant on the people, with whom they are interacting with, in any given context. An independent construal of self has also been termed: individualistic, egocentric, and autonomous. Other terms for an interdependent construal include: collectivistic, allocentric, and connected (Markus & Kitayama, 1991).

These authors also discussed the relationship between construal of self and emotional expressions. Independent people are more likely to express their true inner feelings, while interdependent people are more likely to regulate their expression in accordance with the context of the situation. An individual with an interdependent construal of self will focus on *the other* and “restraint over the inner self is assigned a much higher value than is expression of the inner self” (Markus & Kitayama, 1991, p.

240). Individuals who are interdependent may first ascertain the social context (e.g., who am I interacting with?) and then determine an appropriate response (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Studies within the third phase examine how specific variables may function differently within diverse cultural contexts; although, the focus is still on variables that make up culture at the individual level and these studies are not necessarily empirically measuring the variables' unique contributions together, as they work to explain the observed differences across culture (Matsumoto & Yoo, 2006).

Finally, Matsumoto and Yoo (2006) recommend a fourth phase in cross-cultural research. They term this phase *linkage studies* which “empirically link the observed differences in means or correlations among variables with specific cultural sources that are hypothesized to account for these differences” (p. 236). An example of a linkage study could involve an *unpacking study*, in which culture, a variable that is unspecified, is replaced by context variables (i.e., specific variables that may include: individualism/collectivism, self-construal, and attitudes, values and beliefs) which together can begin to accurately explain differences due to culture (Matsumoto & Yoo, 2006). These authors continued to discuss the many stages that may take place in uncovering cultural phenomena including: identifying a difference, applying relevant cultural theories, testing model predictions, empirically demonstrating linkages, testing competing models and ruling out non-cultural factors. Cross-cultural studies can be complicated and nuanced, yet it is important to understand these separate phases when examining and conducting cross-cultural studies.

Measurement strategies for display norms. Beyond the types of studies that have been conducted on display rules, and the way in which they were conducted, it is

also important to consider the measurement strategies that have been employed. The most commonly cited measure of display rules, outside of the workplace is the “Display Rule Assessment Inventory” (DRAI) developed by Matsumoto and colleagues (2005). This inventory asks participants to indicate how they would regulate their emotions when faced with specific situations and several discrete emotions are included (e.g., anger, contempt, disgust, fear, happiness, sadness and surprise) and are asked regarding several different targets (e.g., family, friends, and at school). Their assessment inventory measures expression management strategies at the individual level and includes multiple behavioural responses.

The six expression management strategies (also referred to as expressive modes or display management strategies, DMS) include: 1) expressing the emotion you feel (i.e., no modification), 2) expression the emotion you feel while smiling (i.e., qualify), 3) amplifying or increasing the intensity of the emotion, 4) deamplify or decreasing the intensity of the emotion, 5) showing no emotion (i.e., neutralize), or 6) hiding the emotion while expressing unfeelt emotion (i.e., mask). These authors also sought to determine whether display rules are represented by a single dimension (i.e., suppression) or multiple expressive modes, and factor analysis was employed to examine the latent structure. The nominal data was converted to counts for each expressive mode, and was then doubly standardized (within participant, then within country), which resulted in five universally applicable (in terms of cultures) factors: express, amplify, deamplify, mask, and qualify (Matsumoto et al., 2005). Therefore, they concluded that these expressive modes are independent of each other and cannot be condensed into a single suppression dimension. These results contributed to a cross-culturally valid scoring method, which

involved computing scores for each expressive mode, where participants are given a “1” if they selected the strategy and a “0 if they did not.

Matsumoto and colleagues (2005) have also found internal and temporal reliability and presented evidence for convergent, predictive, and discriminant validity. Cronbach’s alphas were computed for each of the different seven emotions and four situations (and for the overall score) for each of the expressive modes. Across two studies, results indicated mean alpha scores of .81 and .80 (respectively), with alphas for the total scores including .94, .95, .95, .92, and .87 for express, amplify, deamplify, mask and qualify, respectively (Matsumoto et al., 2005). Test-retest reliability was computed and found to be statistically significant ($p < .01$) and positive for all expressive modes, providing evidence for temporal reliability. Evidence for convergent, predictive, and discriminant validity was provided through examinations of intercorrelation matrices and product-moment correlations (between the DRAI, other emotion regulation scales and personality measures; Matsumoto et al., 2005). Overall, they found results were in line with what would be expected for these expressive modes and other validated measures. For example, “express” was correlated negatively with “amplify,” “deamplify” and other measures of suppression; and “express” was found to be positively correlated with extraversion and agreeableness (Matsumoto et al., 2005). The authors found that the relationship between the DRAI and outcomes (e.g., personality) still existed once other potential confounds were partialled out.

One critique of the DRAI surrounds the display management strategies that are available, specifically for the emotion of happiness. In particular, the strategies of Qualify (show the emotion while smiling at the same time) and Mask (hide your feelings

by smiling). It is important to consider how each of the strategies would be applicable for every emotion, and concerning happiness, whether it is possible for someone to “qualify” or “mask” this emotion (which is often expressed with a smile). The smiles present in these strategies may represent a fake smile, as opposed to a genuine or Duchenne smile (authentic smile where muscles in the eyes in addition to the mouth are activated; Ekman, Davidson, & Friesen, 1990). In certain situations, people may want to hide happiness and not appear overly enthusiastic (in an attempt to remain professional; Diefendorff & Greguras, 2009).

To this end, the DRAI has recently revised these responses to deal with these issues. For “qualify,” the explanation was changed from “show the emotion while smiling at the same time,” to “show it but with another expression;” for “mask” it was changed from “hide your feelings by smiling” to “hide your feelings by showing something else;” and for “neutralize” it was changed from “show nothing” to “hide your feelings by showing nothing.” Finally, Matsumoto and colleagues (2005) suggest that future research use specific context information (including more contexts and social relationships). Display norms have been readily examined and measured outside of the workplace, but what role do these norms have when they become the rules dictated by the role requirement of emotional labour?

Workplace Display Rules

Display norms, when they occur within the workplace are referred to as display rules. These display rules, or norms, fit into a broader category of organizational norms, that is, organizational culture. Organizational culture has been defined in many ways; it is generally understood to reference the interpretations and meanings of events within the

organization that are shared by the members of that organization (Dickson & Michelson, 2007). Organizational culture serves to guide the behaviour of organizational members and works to create a predictable environment, such that it is always clear why members are engaging in certain behaviours.

Schein (2004) defines organizational culture as “a pattern of shared basic assumptions that was learned by a group as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems” (p.17). Members learn these assumptions over time and then essentially internalize these behaviours as the correct way things are done in that organization. Organizational culture defines the group and the group’s identity; this culture is very difficult to change, as it is the deepest part of a group, and as such, it is less visible and less tangible as compared to other parts (Schein, 2004). Finally, Schein discusses how culture in an organization is pervasive and has an effect on every aspect of the environment, including tasks, environments, and operations. Organizational artifacts (e.g., logos, office layout, and processes within the organization) and adopted values (e.g., goals and strategies of the organization) are either considered surface layers to organizational culture, or manifestations of the deeper layer itself (Dickson & Michelson, 2007). Organizational culture is learned through the socialization process and focuses on the perceptions, thoughts, and feelings shared by the members of the group (Schein, 2004).

Central to these shared thoughts and feelings, are the way in which things should be done, which leads to behavioural regularities. One such behavioural regularity is the

way in which members will display emotion within the workplace. Organizational culture dictates appropriate behaviours and under which contextual factors influence these appropriate behaviours (Dickson & Mitchelson, 2007). Therefore, emotional labour can be considered a part of organizational culture and display rules are by definition, rules set out by the organization. Display rules are norms put in place and reinforced by the organizational culture. They are shared beliefs about what emotion to display and when to display that emotion.

Overview of workplace display rules. Display rules are an important and often overlooked aspect of emotional labour and should be at the forefront of emotional labour research; however, only a limited number of recent studies have examined display rules within organizations (Diefendorff & Greguras, 2009; Grandey et al., 2010; Grosserand & Diefendorff, 2005; Gullekson & Vancouver, 2010; Mann, 2007). This small body of research has examined display rules and display management strategies that exist within the workplace. Diefendorff and Greguras (2009) examined emotional management strategies within the workplace across discrete emotions and work specific targets. They discussed the importance of including both discrete emotion and interaction targets. Research on display rules should move beyond the dualistic *positive–negative* approach to include multiple emotions (Diefendorff & Greguras, 2009). Further, they believe that different emotions may have different social meanings (e.g., although the emotions are both negative, fear might translate to escaping, where anger might mean a desire to attack) and therefore the display rule may depend on the specific emotion in each context. Diefendorff and Greguras examined happiness (positive), anger, sadness, fear, contempt, and disgust (all negative) emotions within their study.

Diefendorff and Greguras (2009) discussed the movement towards internal customers and the research that has examined power differentials within the workplace and included four work targets (i.e., supervisors, coworkers, subordinates, and customers). In order to assess display rules, they employed a measure taken from display rule research outside of the workplace (i.e., Display Rule Assessment Inventory (DRAI); Matsumoto et al., 2005) and adapted it to include different workplace targets. Again, this measure included six display management strategies (i.e., “express,” no modification; “amplify,” increase intensity; “deamplify,” decrease intensity; “neutralize,” no emotion is shown; “mask,” hiding felt emotion while expressing unfeared emotion; “qualify,” felt emotion with a smile). It was hypothesized that the organization would expect employees to express positive emotions, and suppress negative emotions (Diefendorff & Greguras, 2009). They also predicted that for anger and sadness, there might also be reasons why employees would want to show these emotions (e.g., show power or gain sympathy from others). Overall, the most common regulation strategy they found included “neutralize” and “deamplify.” Regulation strategies for discrete emotions included “express” and “deamplify” (selected most often for happiness); “neutralize” (selected most often for contempt, fear, and disgust); and “neutralize” and “deamplify” (selected most often for anger and sadness; Diefendorff & Greguras, 2009).

Regarding specific work targets, they predicted that when individuals interact with someone with more relative power they would be more likely to conceal negative and fake positive emotions, as compared to interacting with individuals with equal or less power. They predicted that when individuals interact with someone with less relative power they would be more likely to express or partially express negative emotions. Their

results indicated that “neutralize” was most often selected when interacting with a customer (most power); while “neutralize” and “deamplify” were most often selected for supervisors (higher power); and “deamplify” was most often selected when interacting with coworkers (equal power). Interestingly, strategies selected for subordinates (less power) included “neutralize” and “deamplify.” They concluded that when interacting with a target with more power, it is more likely that the employee would suppress negative emotions; conversely, when interacting with a target with equal or less power, only partial suppression would occur.

Diefendorff and Greguras (2009) took the first important step of adequately measuring display rules within the workplace, and incorporating differing work targets, a feat that at the time, no research had accomplished. They conducted this research within a work sample and included several discrete emotions. This article provides an excellent measurement model of display rules within the workplace and provides evidence that display rules differ across distinct emotions and targets. Research has not replicated these findings in other samples, and so the generalizability of their findings is limited. Research should employ this measurement technique within other samples to determine if display rules across specific targets are common across organizations. Beyond simply examining the display management strategies that exist in the workplace, several researchers have investigated the related constructs of culture and commitment to display rules.

Influence of culture on workplace display rules. Cultural contexts must be considered in order to fully understand emotional labour (Mesquita & Delvaux, 2012). These authors discuss how research has shown that emotional labour may be cultured in

various ways, and the larger cultural context will influence the workplace display rules; as the workforces becomes increasingly diverse individuals from other countries may import display rules from their previous cultural context. The implications and consequences of these issues are central to the examination of emotional labour.

Mann (2007) examined how display rules may vary across societal and occupational norms and investigated display rule expectations in the US and UK. Mann measured display rules by including varying occupations and work roles (e.g., supervisor, subordinate and peer) within their Expectations of Others Questionnaire (EOQ). In terms of specific emotions, the EOQ included expressing positive (i.e., “warm and friendly”), genuine positive (i.e., “warm and friendly only when genuine”) and negative (i.e., “hiding anger”) general categories. Their results indicated that both countries have high expectations (e.g., warm emotional displays) for employees within the service industry and within the workplace. Differences existed across cultures, such that British participants expected more positive displays from service personnel (as a customer), while Americans expected more positive displays from colleagues (Mann, 2007). Differences across the emotional displays for target (i.e., internal versus external customers) were also found; when employees are dealing with work peers (i.e., supervisors, coworkers, subordinates) they are allowed to show anger; however, when dealing with customers, employees must suppress or control anger displays (Mann, 2007). Finally, she investigated differences across several occupations, and found that doctors were expected, across both cultures, to show genuine warmth. British participants were more likely to expect a doctor to hide anger as compared to Americans.

Mann (2007) contributed to the workplace emotional display research by including the influence of both society and occupation. She provided evidence that display rule expectations differ across cultures, occupations and targets. However there are several limitations to this study. Although measurement included the various targets of emotional labour, their measurement strategy did not include distinct emotions and kept within the positive–negative dichotomy (they did allow for faking positive or negative and displaying a genuine positive emotion). In comparison, Grandey and colleagues (2010) employed the DRAI and examined display rules for anger and happiness across four cultures (i.e., Singapore, France, USA, and Israel). Their results showed that differences across workplace targets, such that the greatest expression is towards coworkers, followed by supervisors, with very limited expression towards customers.

Their study focused on display rules towards customers, of which they found few cultural differences and suggested that these rules are consistent due to the “service culture” that is globally endorsed (Grandey et al., 2010). Differences across cultures included greater acceptance of anger in France and Israel, with greater acceptance for happiness in the US. Specific to coworkers, they found that most collectivistic nation (i.e., Singapore) was less likely to endorse expressing anger as compared to all other countries. Overall, they emphasized the importance of specifying the target of display rules and suggest that internal customer display rules may be based on personal or social norms, while external customer display rules are based on work practices and compensation (Grandey et al., 2010).

Grandey et al. (2010), and Mann (2007) used country as a proxy for culture and researchers have discussed the variability of cultural dimensions within countries (Clugston, Howell, & Dorfman, 2000; Cross & Madson, 1997; Triandis, 1995). For example, a country that may be considered individualistic may include many people who, as part of a minority group, take a much more interdependent or collectivistic perspective (Cross & Madson, 1997). Using country as a proxy for culture is not always the best measurement strategy to employ when the aim of the research is to examine cultural differences. It has been suggested that there is value in examining cumulative individual data from different parts of the world; but researchers have stressed that care must be taken to also incorporate individual level data as well as data at the country level (e.g., Peterson & Smith, 1997). Culture is comprised of shared attitudes, norms, beliefs, and behaviours (Triandis, 1995) which may or may not be consistent across a geographic region (which is assumed when data is taken at the country level). Grandey and colleagues and Mann both employed university students as a sample and queried about what they would expect, as opposed to surveying actual working employees about how they actually would act. It is important to move research on the workplace *into* the workplace in order to gain accurate information about how employees, in the field, respond to interactions within that environment. Only focusing on expectations across culture based on country of origin does not adequately tap into the display rules that may exist and differ across different social culture backgrounds.

Gullekson and Vancouver (2010) also examined the influence of social culture norms for students who work and study in foreign countries. This study examined whether differences existed in display norms between their home and host countries and

they sought to determine if culture would influence the display of emotions, even when the emotions experienced are the same. They surveyed graduate students (international and American) and used the DRAI which incorporates discrete emotions (anger, contempt, disgust, fear, happiness, sadness, and surprise) and multiple targets (supervisor, coworker, or subordinate). This questionnaire has participants envision they are in an environment with a specific person, feeling a certain emotion and asks them to indicate how they should respond. An effect of target was found, such that participants felt they should display the regulated emotion most often for supervisors, then for subordinates, with the least regulation found for coworkers (Gullekson & Vancouver, 2010). These authors also found cross-cultural differences, such that host national participants (American students) reported a higher degree of emotional display as compared to what was reported by international students. More specifically, they found that international students felt that they should display less emotion when in their host culture, even though their host culture had display rules that included increased acceptance for very expressive emotional displays. Gullekson and Vancouver termed this the “guest effect” and discussed how their position as sojourners may constitute a lower status, whereby less emotion should be expressed as compared to high status individuals.

Gullekson and Vancouver (2010) used an advanced measurement strategy (i.e., DRAI) to assess display norms for international sojourners and they incorporated discrete emotions and found differences across the target of the emotional labour. These authors did not use working employees and their examination of culture was focused on the unique experiences of sojourners (i.e., graduate students who have come from another country to live and study in a host country). Further, because they did not use an actual

workplace sample, they had students imagine interacting with a target from a work environment. This provided useful information, but it would be more valuable to gain the perspective of working employees, who encounter these work experiences daily. These employees can discuss their perception of display rules within their workplace, how these rules are understood, and the consequences of following these rules. Overall, this study suggested that display rules differ along cultural dimensions; still the authors did not ascertain which cultural dimensions resulted in the perceived expectation to display fewer emotional displays within the host country. Gullekson and Vancouver discussed the possibility of sojourners applying their own display rules from their country of origin; yet it is not clear if that is the case. What is clear is that display norms are influenced by a variety of factors, one of which being the country in which one is raised. More research needs to determine the specific influence of cultural factors beyond a sojourner's experience. It is important to isolate explicit cultural dimensions beyond the simple categorization of country of origin.

Influence of commitment on workplace display rules. Finally, Gosserand and Diefendorff (2005) examined the moderating role of commitment within the relationship between display rules and emotional displays. They were interested in determining the motivation for employees to follow display rules. They queried participants (adults doing *people work* such as service and sales) about what they felt the organization dictated, in terms of positive and negative emotional displays towards customers (e.g., "This organization would say that part of the product to customers is friendly, cheerful service;" p. 1259) which determined the standards for emotional displays (i.e., show positive and hide negative; Gosserand & Diefendorff, 2005). They found that the mere presence of

display rules (or the organization's dictated rule to engage in emotional labour) was not enough for employees to engage in emotion regulation, but that the employee had to be committed to the display rules. These authors found evidence of an interaction effect, such that when display rules (as dictated by the organization) were strong, and commitment was high, employees were more likely to engage in emotion regulation strategies (especially deep acting) and also have higher positive affective delivery (as rated by a supervisor). Gosserand and Diefendorff concluded that employees must be committed to the rule in order to follow through with the appropriate emotion regulation strategy. They found that this commitment was more important in leading to positive affective delivery than the specific regulation strategy chosen (e.g., surface acting or deep acting).

Gosserand and Diefendorff (2005) highlighted the importance of commitment in examining display rules within the workplace. An organization may dictate that emotion regulation is required (i.e., emotional labour), but that is not enough. An employee must also be committed to these rules to actually engage in the appropriate regulation strategy to attain the positive affective delivery required. It is important to note that the display rules examined within this study were not the employees' perceptions of display rules, but the employees' perceptions of the how the organization dictated engaging in emotional labour. What the authors did not examine was display rules from the perception of the employee, that is, how they felt they would modify their emotional display in certain work situations. Their measurement strategy did not include discrete emotions or influence of target (e.g., supervisor, coworker, subordinate, and customer).

Their sample also may not have allowed for an investigation across target as they chose to examine employees who worked in primarily service sector jobs (dealt primarily with external customers). It is important to examine the emotional labour dictated by the organization, commitment to display rule, and any potential interaction in determining regulation strategies and positive affective delivery; however it would also be valuable to investigate the antecedents of commitment. For example, what predicts commitment to the display rules? Is it the norms put in place by the organization, or the individuals' social norms that would influence them to engage, or not engage, in emotional labour? If the discussion of display rules is inherent to the examination of emotional labour (as dictated by the organization) then it would also be important to determine the role organizational culture plays in commitment to display rules.

Limitations of extant literature. Adequate measurement tools have not been consistently used throughout display rules research. Research studies should always use validated measures and it is beneficial to leverage these measures from related research domains (i.e., DRAI from display norms research). Measures examining display rules should also incorporate discrete emotions and work specific targets (Diefendorff & Greguras, 2009). Only two studies have examined discrete emotions and specific workplace targets as a unique measurement strategy and only one examined the display management strategies overall, by emotion and by target within a sample of full-time employees (Diefendorff & Greguras, 2009). As yet, these findings have not been replicated to further understand if they are study specific or a general trend in the display norms that exist within organizations. It is important to gather information from employed workers who deal with these scenarios on a daily basis. Research on a part-

time student sample is a valuable first step to understand how younger, soon to be employed full-time, individuals understand and interpret display rules within the workplace (give the limited experience they have had as part-time or seasonal employees).

The next important step in the research process would then be to investigate these research questions on a sample that is employed full-time. Research examining both of these cohorts (students working part-time and employees working full-time) can begin to uncover some of the changes that may occur over time as individuals proceed through their career as an employee. Research has demonstrated the need to include culture within the framework of display rules within the workplace, yet to date research has only used country as a proxy for social culture. Commitment to display rules has been demonstrated as an important determining factor in an individual's willingness to follow through with the rule; nevertheless, display rules research has not included an examination of commitment to display rules with other important antecedents, such as social and organizational culture.

Appropriate measurement tools are available and have been used to examine display rules within the workplace; this is simply the first step to understanding the complexities that may influence display rules within the workplace (from the perspective of both part-time students and full-time employees). It is important to determine how differences in emotions and targets determine display management strategies (through a replication of previous findings), but the inclusion of social and organizational culture along with commitment will provide a broader more complete picture of the role of display rules within organizations.

Present Study

Emotional labour is not only prominent within organizations and related to several relevant organizational outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction, stress; Pugliesi, 1999), but the way emotions are displayed within the workplace (i.e., non-verbal communication) is pivotal to workplace relationships. Overall, emotional labour is a broad term that encompasses several constructs, including display rules, dissonance, and regulation strategies. Although there are several different ways to conceptualize emotional labour within the literature, Holman's model is the most comprehensive, and as such was the guiding theory for the current study (Holman et al., 2008). Holman considers emotional labour a process, which involves emotion rules, the dissonance that may accompany these rules, and the emotion regulation strategies that produce emotional displays. Holman's model continues to examine the reactions, resources, and consequences of these emotional displays. As emotional labour is defined here, as a process, there are many ways aspects of the process to examine and study. Display rules are vital to the emotional labour process, and these rules have not been a focus of emotional labour research within the workplace

Measurement of workplace display rules. There are important aspects to consider when measuring display rules (Diefendorff & Greguras, 2009). First, research should examine discrete emotions as opposed to a general positive-negative dichotomy (Diefendorff & Greguras, 2009). Second, emotional labour research has moved from examining external customers (e.g., customers) to internal customers (coworkers) and research has provided support for the influence that power has on the emotion regulation strategies individuals engage in (Hecht & LaFrance, 1998). Therefore display rules

should be investigated towards different work specific targets (including both internal and external customers). Only one such study has been completed (i.e., Diefendorff & Greguras, 2009) and it is important to replicate their findings in order to confirm their results and determine the generalizability of display management strategies (DMS) beyond their sample of working students. Measurement of display rules within the workplace should include (and move beyond) a part-time student sample to include a sample of full-time employees.

Research question 1: Replication of DMS in the workplace. The current study used an adapted DRAI which included discrete emotions and work specific targets in order to replicate findings from Diefendorff and Greguras (2009) to determine what display rules exist within organizations across discrete emotions and work specific targets. This study investigated the generalizability of common display management strategies used within the workplace, first in a general way, then as indicated by emotion and target. Two samples were used to answer these research questions (a part-time and full-time sample) and predictions did not differ across each sample. Data was collected on a part-time student sample to provide an initial basis for results, with additional validation conducted on the full-time sample.

Diefendorff and Greguras (2009) found that, overall, the most common regulation strategy selected as display rules were “neutralize” and “deamplify.” Based on these results from Diefendorff and Greguras the following hypotheses were proposed:

Hypotheses 1a-b: (a) “Neutralize” and (b) “deamplify” will be selected more often as compared to the other display management strategies (when examining strategies overall).

Research has shown that overall, positive discrete emotions should be expressed, and negative discrete emotions should not be expressed (Diefendorff & Greguras, 2009). Diefendorff and Greguras found that participants selected “express” and “deamplify” for happiness. These authors discussed how positive emotions may also need to be controlled within the workplace, in an attempt to remain professional, avoid appearing arrogant, or acting overly enthusiastic. Therefore, one would expect that the display management strategies of “express” and “deamplify” (show less than you feel) would be most often selected for happiness.

Diefendorff and Greguras found that “neutralize” and “deamplify” were most often selected for anger and sadness and “neutralize” was selected for contempt, fear and disgust. Negative emotions might be assumed to not have any social value within the workplace, and it is understandable that individuals might not want to show any of these emotions within the workplace (i.e., neutralize). Research has shown that some negative emotions (e.g., anger and sadness) do have a positive value, socially, within the workplace (Tiedens, 2001). Anger can demonstrate dominance or power and people who show sadness are often more liked and more likely to receive help and sympathy from others (Tiedens, 2001). Employees would “neutralize” all negative emotions (i.e., anger, sadness, contempt, fear, disgust), but also be inclined to “deamplify” negative emotions with positive social value (i.e., anger, sadness). It was predicted that, compared to all other display management strategies:

Hypotheses 2a-b: (a) “Express” and (b) “deamplify” will be selected most often for happiness as compared to other DMSs.

Hypotheses 2c-f: “Neutralize” will be selected most often for (c) anger, and (d) sadness, along with “deamplify” for (e) anger, and (f) sadness as compared to other DMSs.

Hypotheses 2g-i: “Neutralize” will be selected most often for (g) contempt, (h) fear, and (i) disgust as compared to other DMSs.

Research has shown that “neutralize” and “deamplify” are the most common display management strategies selected (Diefendorff & Greguras, 2008). These authors discussed how relative power levels among the vertical levels of the organization can influence display management strategies, in addition to the horizontal dimension (e.g., solidarity among coworkers). Complete suppression (i.e., neutralization) is often selected when dealing with customers, targets which have higher power; and the display management strategies of “neutralize” and “deamplify” have been most often selected when interacting with both supervisors and subordinates (Diefendorff & Greguras, 2008). “Neutralize” and “deamplify” were predicted to occur most often for both supervisors and subordinates (it is not predicted which DMS, of these two, would occur more often for each target). When interacting with coworkers, employees may feel close to these targets (as they are not above them in the workplace hierarchy) and as such only partially suppress emotions (i.e., deamplify). It was predicted that, compared to all other display management strategies:

Hypotheses 3a-c: “Neutralize” will be selected most often for (a) customers, (b) supervisors, and (c) subordinates as compared to other DMSs.

Hypothesis 3d-f: “Deamplify” will be selected most often for (d) supervisors, (e) coworkers, and (f) subordinates as compared to other DMSs.

While it would be expected that strategies for these targets (on different power levels) should be different, it may be the interaction with the emotion which contributes to these results. For example, supervisors may “deamplify” anger in order to demonstrate dominance (when interacting with subordinates); while subordinates may “deamplify” sadness in order to gain sympathy (when interacting with supervisors). As such, it was predicted that a target by emotion interaction would exist, such that:

Hypotheses 3g-h: Display rules for anger, when interacting with (g) subordinates and (h) coworkers will be more likely to include “deamplify,” as compared to supervisors.

Hypotheses 3i: Display rules for sadness, when interacting with supervisors, will be more likely to include “deamplify,” as compared to when interacting with subordinates.

Influence of social culture. Research has demonstrated the importance of examining display rules across different cultures (Gullekson & Vancouver, 2010; Koopmann-Holm & Matsumoto, 2010; Mann, 2007; Matsumoto & Kupperbusch, 2001; Safdar et al., 2009). Within the workplace, these findings have highlighted the differences in display rule expectations (Mann, 2007) and the influence an origin culture may have on the emotional displays expected of international students within a host culture (Gullekson & Vancouver, 2010). Culture, as an individual level variable, has not been examined within the workplace display rule literature. Research has shown that there is considerable variance within countries along cultural dimensions (Triandis, 1995). Matsumoto and Yoo (2006) stressed the importance of examining the *cultural ingredients* that may contribute to cultural differences.

It is important to move beyond earlier phases of cross-cultural research which use country as a proxy for culture. Research should move to examine culture variables at the individual level and then through several studies create the linkages between these variables, overall cultures and observed differences (Matsumoto & Yoo, 2006). Our values, beliefs, attitudes, and behavioural norms influence the way in which we interact with other people. This is even more present within the workplace, as our social culture dictates how we respond to interpersonal interactions, and especially to emotionally laden interactions. The workplace is fraught with the viewpoints of other people, people who may or may not be in a position of power. These power differentials within the workplace, and the possible multiple targets of emotional labour, encourage the inclusion of social culture within the discussion of workplace display rules.

Research question 2: What is the influence of social culture on display rules?

Research has demonstrated the need to include culture within the framework of workplace display rules, yet to date research has only used country as a proxy for culture. The current study used a self-construal framework at the individual level (independent/individualistic versus interdependent/collectivistic self-construal; Markus & Kitayama, 1991) to determine the role social culture plays regarding display rules within the workplace. Research has shown that individuals with an independent construal are more likely to show their true inner emotion, while those with an interdependent construal are more likely to regulate their emotion based on the situation (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Someone with an interdependent construal may feel the need to “amplify” a correct emotion they are already feeling, or when they are not feeling the emotion dictated by the display rule, they may “deamplify” their emotion or completely

“neutralize” it. Conversely, an independent employee may not put the effort into modifying their expressions and simply display their felt emotions, or put minimal effort in, and show a smile while expressing their true emotions (i.e., qualify).

Research examining display rules, across cultures but outside of the workplace, have found that Japanese respondents (i.e., interdependent) are more likely to suppress (i.e., deamplify) *power emotions* (e.g., anger, contempt, disgust) as compared to Americans (i.e., independent) who are more likely to “express” anger or disgust (Koopmann & Matsumoto, 2010; Safdar et al., 2009). Two samples were used to answer these research questions (a part-time and full-time sample) and predictions did not differ across each sample. Data was collected on a part-time student sample to provide an initial basis for results, with further validation conducted on the full-time sample. Based on previous workplace display rule research (Gullekson & Vancouver, 2010; Mann, 2007), research on display norms (Koopmann & Matsumoto, 2010; Safdar et al., 2009) and research on self-construals (Markus & Kitayama, 1991) it is predicted that:

Hypotheses 4a-c: Interdependent self-construal will be a significant predictor of (a) “amplify,” (b) “deamplify,” and (c) “neutralize” display management strategies as compared to independent self-construal.

Hypotheses 4d-e: Independent self-construal will be a significant predictor of (d) “express,” and (e) “qualify” display management strategies as compared to interdependent self-construal.

The present study investigated the influence of social culture on display management strategies used for discrete emotions and work specific targets. Anger is one emotion that has been examined across different cultures. It is important for

interdependent self-construal to not show negative emotions like anger, while for independent selves, there is an importance placed on expressing anger (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Consistent with research by Koopmann and Matsumoto (2010) and Safdar et al. (2009) the follow hypotheses were proposed regarding the role of discrete emotions:

Hypothesis 5a: Individuals with an interdependent self-construal will be more likely to “deamplify” anger as compared to an independent self-construal.

Hypothesis 5b: Individuals with an independent self-construal will be more likely to “express” anger as compared to an interdependent self-construal.

This study determined whether different self-construals were more likely to change their display management strategy based on the target (e.g., supervisor, customer, coworker, subordinate). Research has suggested that an interdependent construal is more likely to first examine the context of the situation and then determine the appropriate response, or in this case emotional expression (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). It was expected, for work specific targets, that individuals with an interdependent self-construal would indicate different display management strategies depending on the work specific target (target by self-construal interaction will exist); conversely, an individual with an independent self-construal would be less likely to change their display management strategies according to work specific target (target by self-construal interaction will not exist). This interaction was expected to occur for the DMSs most commonly endorsed, that is, “express,” “deamplify,” and “neutralize.”

Hypotheses 5c-e: A target by self-construal interaction will exist for the DMSs of (c) “express,” (d) “deamplify,” and (e) “neutralize.”

Tables 1, and 2, summarize the hypotheses for the current study for Research Question 1 and 2, respectively.

Importance of commitment to display rules. Research has also demonstrated the importance of commitment to display rules, such that the mere presence of display rules is not enough, but that employees must be committed to the display rule to follow it (Gosserand & Diefendorff, 2005). Commitment to display rules may be strongly influenced by organizational culture; it would be valuable to examine the influence of culture (as demonstrated by the organization placing value on emotional labour) on commitment to display rules. If the individual variable of social culture plays a role in the specific display rules that are present, what role does culture play in determining an employee's commitment to these display rules?

Research Question 3: What influence does culture have on commitment to display rules? Commitment to display rules has been demonstrated as a factor in an individual's willingness to follow through with the rule. Research surrounding display rules has not determined if organizational or social culture predicts commitment to display rules. Organizational culture was assessed through an examination of employees' perceptions of the emotional labour norms created by the organization. The more an employee perceives that norms are in place for emotional labour (e.g., it is expected that they engage in emotional labour), the more likely they would be committed to engaging in display rules. Further, individual differences may influence this relationship, to that end, social culture was examined as a moderating factor. The relationship between organizational culture and commitment to display rules might be stronger for employees with an interdependent self-construal (focusing on others, or the organization, as their

Table 1

Hypotheses for Research Question 1: Replication of DMS in the workplace.

<i>Hypothesis</i>		<i>Display Management Strategies Predicted</i>
Overall	1a 1b	Neutralize Deamplify
Discrete Emotion		
Happiness	2a 2b	Express Deamplify
Anger	2c-d	Neutralize
Sadness	2e-f	Deamplify
Contempt		
Fear	2g-i	Neutralize
Disgust		
Specific Target		
Customer	3a	Neutralize
Supervisor	3b 3d	Neutralize Deamplify
Coworker	3e	Deamplify
Subordinate	3c 3f	Neutralize Deamplify
Emotion x Target		
Subordinates	3g	
Coworkers	3h	Deamplify Anger
Supervisors	3i	Deamplify Sadness

Table 2

Hypotheses for Research Question 2: What is the Influence of Social Culture on Display

Rules?

<i>Hypothesis</i>		<i>Display Management Strategy Predicted</i>
Self-Construal		
Interdependent	4a	Amplify
	4b	Deamplify
	4c	Neutralize
Independent	4d	Express
	4e	Qualify
Self-Construal x Emotions (Anger)		
Interdependent	5a	Deamplify
Independent	5b	Express
Self-Construal x Target		
Changes across target for interdependent, but not independent	5c	Express
	5d	Deamplify
	5e	Neutralize

reference for appropriate behaviour) as compared to an independent self-construal.

Therefore, it was predicted that:

Hypotheses 6a-b: Organizational culture (i.e., higher perceived emotional labour norms) will be significantly positively related to commitment to display rules for both (a) coworker and (b) customer targets (as specified by the measure).

Self-construal would moderate the relationship between organizational culture (as defined through emotional labour) and commitment to display rules, such that:

Hypotheses 6c-f: The positive relationship between organizational culture and commitment to display rules will only exist for employees with a high interdependent (for (c) coworker and (d) customer target measures) and a low independent self-construal (for (e) coworker and (f) customer target measures).

Table 3, summarizes the above hypotheses for Research Question 3.

Summary

The aim of the current study was to further validate measures of display rules within the workplace and provide a greater understanding of the role social and organizational culture play in these workplace interactions. Diefendorff and Greguras (2009) took the pivotal first step to examining discrete emotions and work specific targets with a well validated measure of display rules. The current study extended this research to include social and organizational culture along with commitment. This inclusion will provide a more complete picture of the role of display rules within the workplace. The results from the current study add to our knowledge about social interactions within the workplace and hopefully this research help managers to better understand employees and improve communication and interpersonal relationships within the workplace.

Table 3

Hypotheses for Research Question 3: What Influence does Culture have on Commitment to Display Rules?

<i>Hypothesis</i>	<i>Target</i>	
Positive Correlation		
OCEL and CDR	6a	Coworkers
	6b	Customers
Moderation (positive relationship exists for):		
High Interdependent	6c	Coworkers
	6d	Customers
Low Independent	6e	Coworkers
	6f	Customers

NOTE: CDR: Commitment to Display Rules;
OCEL: Organizational Culture of Emotional Labour

CHAPTER III

DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Participants

The current study employed a cohort sampling design. The analyses pertaining to the DRAI and culture (Research Questions 1 and 2) were examined using both a part-time employed student sample and a full-time employed sample. Research Question 3 was examined on the full-time employee sample only.

Part-time sample. Two hundred and seventeen students were surveyed using a paper and pencil questionnaire. Data from eight participants were removed (three due to improperly filling out the DRAI, and five due to insufficient data). Data were collected at a University located in a Southwestern Ontario. The geographical area in which this survey was conducted has a large population (i.e., 210, 891; Statistics Canada Census Data, 2011) and a diverse population base, with 20% of the population being a visible minority (Statistics Canada, 2006). The economy is primarily based on: education, manufacturing, tourism, and government services.

Sample characteristics. The part-time student sample included 49.8% female, 50.2% male with a range of ages (17 to 61 with a mean of 22.60). Approximately two-thirds of respondents identified as Caucasian followed by Middle Eastern, Asian, and African (68%, 8%, 7%, and 6%, respectively). Overall the average number of hours worked, for income, per week was 12.32. The most common occupations indicated were food service worker (18%), sales or cashier (16%) and general office and research assistant (both 7%).

Full-time sample. Forty-two full-time employees were surveyed using a web-based questionnaire. Data from three participants were removed due to insufficient data. Data were collected in collaboration with a Chamber of Commerce located in a Southeastern Saskatchewan (i.e., the primary investigator approached the chamber through a personal contact). The geographical area in which this survey was conducted has a small population (i.e., 10,484; Statistics Canada Census Data, 2011) and a homogenous population base, with 2% of the population being a visible minority (Statistics Canada, 2006). This area has a diverse economic base including: agriculture service, oilfield exploration, manufacturing and process, and business and industrial services.

Sample characteristics. The full-time employee sample included 63% female, 37% male with a range of ages (21 to 68 with a mean of 38.10). The large majority of respondents identified as Caucasian (95%). Other reported ethnicities include Asian and Native American (both 2.5%). Overall the average number of hours worked, for income, per week was 38.74. The most popular occupations indicated were management (26%), general labourer (21%), legal assistant (14%), and accountant and general business (both 10%). The majority of employees worked full-time (79%) and 30% identified themselves as being in a management role. When asked what type of target they primarily deal with, the following was indicated: 38% with coworkers, 33% customers or clients, 17% with subordinates, and 12% with supervisors. Overall, employees were somewhat satisfied with their job in general ($M = 3.98$) and had a low level of turnover intentions ($M = 1.80$; both on a five point scale).

Procedure

Part-time sample. Participants included students studying in a mid-sized university in Southwestern Ontario who received bonus points for participation redeemable within their psychology courses for that term. The study was posted on the University's online participate pool website, from which participants could read about the study and decide to sign up to participate. Students were eligible to participate in the study if they were currently, or had ever been, employed. Participants completed the study in a university laboratory. After reading a letter of information (see Appendix H) and consenting to participate, they were given a paper copy of the questionnaire (i.e., demographics, DRAI-W, and SCS). Following completion of the survey, participants were debriefed and thanked for their time. Students received bonus points for any eligible psychology courses they were currently enrolled as incentive for participation.

Full-time sample. Employees residing in a city in Southeastern Saskatchewan were invited to participate in the survey through a variety of promotional methods (announcements at various Chamber of Commerce meetings and events – which were disseminated through organizational leaders, ads in the local paper and on the Chamber website; see Appendix I for recruitment materials). The Chamber promoted the survey to their member organizations through announcements at organized business meetings/events, email correspondence, and advertising on their website and the local newspaper. The Chamber encouraged their member organizations to promote the survey to their employees; this included distributing and posting flyers in their workplace. Participants who received the survey promotional materials and chose to participate in the survey accessed the survey online and first reviewed a letter of information (see

Appendix J) and gave their consent to participate, after which they were taken to the questionnaire (i.e., demographics, workplace measures, DRAI-W, SCS, OCEL, and CDR). Following completion of the survey, participants were taken to a summary letter (see Appendix K) and thanked for their time. Employees also had the opportunity to enter a draw for one of three \$50 amazon.ca gift cards, as incentive for participating.

Demographic and Workplace Measures

Several general demographic questions were asked. The full-time sample also completed several workplace measures (i.e., job satisfaction and turnover intentions) to provide additional contextual variables and to determine aspects of generalizability. See Appendix A and B for demographics and workplace measures, respectively.

Job satisfaction. An overall measure of job satisfaction was included in order to provide some context within the sample. This single-item measure, based on Scarpello and Campbell (1983) uses a 5-point Likert-type scale (i.e., “very dissatisfied” to “very satisfied”) and asks: “How satisfied are you with your job in general?” Research has supported the use of single-item measures of job satisfaction, crediting this measure with more face validity (Nagy, 2002; Wanous, Reichers, & Hudy, 1997). Wanous and colleagues, within their meta-analysis, computed the minimum level of reliability, based on the correction for attenuation formula, for this single item measure; they found estimates of minimal reliabilities of .63 and .69 (these authors also note that this is the minimum reliability, such that the actual reliability could be higher, but it cannot be lower). Further, these authors found evidence to support convergent validity, such that the single item scale was significantly correlated with other multi-item scales of job satisfaction (Wanous et al., 1997). Further, within the current study, predictive validity

was found, such that the single item job satisfaction was significantly negatively related to turnover intentions (described next).

Turnover intentions. Turnover intentions were assessed with the Turnover Cognition scale (Bozeman, & Perrewé, 2001). This five-item measure uses a 5-point Likert-type scale (i.e., “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”). This measure has demonstrated sufficient internal reliability in previous research (Cronbach’s alpha = .90 - .94; Bozeman, & Perrewé, 2001) and within the current study (Cronbach’s alpha = .93).

Measures

Display rules assessment inventory – workplace (DRAI-W). Display rules were assessed using a version of Matsumoto and colleagues’ Display Rules Inventory (DRAI) as modified by Diefendorff & Greguras (2009). The measure asked individuals to select the display management strategy they should use for each discrete emotion (i.e., anger, contempt, disgust, fear, happiness, and sadness) across numerous work situations (i.e., across work targets including: supervisor, coworker, subordinate and customer). Employees were also asked how they should respond when they are alone (in both a private and public setting). The display management strategies (DMS) available for each scenario included: express, amplify, deamplify, neutralize, mask, qualify, and other (if none of the above strategies were deemed appropriate). Preliminary analyses of the “other” option revealed that this response was very rarely used (0.15% in the part-time sample and 0.79% in the working adult sample). Due to the low frequency and the limited theoretical interest, the “other” option was removed from their analysis.

In accordance with directions created by Diefendorff and Greguras (2009, p. 886) employees were provided with the following definitions (p. 886):

“By “supervisor,” we mean that person to whom you directly report. That is, your supervisor is the person who watches over, directs, and oversees your work.

By “coworkers,” we mean those people with whom you work who are at about the same rank or organizational level as yourself. That is, coworkers are people with whom you work frequently yet exist at the same level of power and authority as yourself. Do not consider close friends with whom you happen to work. Also do not consider coworkers with whom you never interact.

By “subordinates,” we mean those people who report directly to you. These individuals are at a lower rank than you and are subject to your authority or supervision. Do not consider close friends whom you happen to supervise.

By “customers,” we mean those people with whom you interact that are external to the organization and seek to purchase goods or services provided by your company.”

If employees did not have a particular target within their workplace, they were advised to either indicate what they think they would do in this situation, or leave that particular question blank. Overall, employees were asked what they believe they would do in 24 work situations (six emotions across four targets) and were given seven display management strategies to choose from for each situation (i.e., express, amplify, deamplify, neutralize, mask, qualify, and other).

The DRAI has demonstrated sufficient internal reliability in previous research (Cronbach’s alpha ranging from .87 to .95 for the six DRAI display management strategies; Matsumoto et al., 2005) and within the current study (Cronbach’s alpha, expressed for part-time and full-time sample respectively in parenthesis, for “amplify” (.78 and .40), “express” (.87 and .85), “deamplify” (.87 and .88), “qualify” (.87 and .82),

“neutralize” (.92 and .89) and “mask”(.91 and .74)). The only concern is “amplify” for the full-time sample (.40), however several variables in this scale had a zero variance (i.e., no one indicated they would “amplify” for specific emotions) and as such, this estimate was only based on 6 items (instead of 24). Cronbach’s alpha depends on the number of items in the scale (Cortina, 1993) and “amplify” is one DMS that is either employed or not employed depending on the emotion. For example, for the negative emotions, this DMS is rarely selected, but it is often selected for the positive emotions (e.g., when a reliability analysis is conducted on only the positive emotion of happiness a Cronbach’s alpha of .74 is achieved). The low reliability for the DMS of “amplify” presents a potential issue with the DRAI. The extent to which “amplify” is endorsed varies considerably based on the emotion that is in question. This low reliability (and its implications for validity) should be considered when interpreting results from this scale, specifically concerning the DMS of “amplify.” This concern (of limited variability) is also discussed in the data analysis section concerning the normality of the data for specific DMS. See Appendix C for the DRAI-W.

The two samples within the current study (i.e., part-time and full-time employees) received two slightly different versions of the DRAI (due to a revised and updated version of the DRAI becoming available in time for the full-time sample). This includes a small wording change in the display management strategies for “neutralize,” “qualify,” and “mask.” For example, for “neutralize” students employed part-time read: “show nothing” versus “hide your feelings by showing nothing;” for “qualify” students employed part-time read “Show the emotion while smiling at the same time,” versus

“Show it but with another expression;” and for “mask” students employed part-time read “hide your feelings by smiling” versus “hide your feelings by showing something else.”

Emotional Stress. An Emotional Stress scale, which was developed to assess perceptions of emotional labour, determined how stressful employees feel it is to interact with each of the four targets (supervisor, coworker, subordinate, and customer). This scale asks respondents to think of the same people as in the DRAI and indicate: “How often do you find it stressful to interact with this person” using a seven-point Likert-type scale (based on the General Health Questionnaire rating scale from “not at all” to “very often;” Goldberg, 1972). Data from this measure was used only in the full-time sample and demonstrated sufficient internal reliability within the current study (Cronbach’s alpha = .80). See Appendix D for the Emotional Stress scale.

Self-construal scale (SCS). The SCS (Singelis, 1994) assesses both interdependent and independent construal of self (12 items each) using a five-point Likert-type scale (i.e., “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”). Several items were adapted in order to fit within the workplace context (e.g., “class” was changed to “meeting;” “school” was changed to “work”). The SCS measure has demonstrated sufficient internal reliability in previous research (Cronbach’s alpha = .74 and .70 for interdependent and independent respectively; Singelis, 1994). Internal reliability was minimally acceptable to respectable within the current study (based on guidelines by DeVellis, 2003: unacceptable (<.60), undesirable (.60-.65), minimally acceptable (.65-.70), respectable (.70-.80), and very good (.80-.90); Cronbach’s alpha = .66 and .79 within the part-time student sample and Cronbach’s alpha = .69 and .68 within the full-time sample). The cutoff of .70 (most often attributed to Nunnally, 1978) for Cronbach’s

alpha was not achieved within these scales, however, other researchers indicate that is often the case that published studies have alphas lower than .70 (DeVellis, 2003). Kline (1999) extends this notion to the subject area of psychology, in which construct diversity realistically can result in values below .70. This scale has demonstrated construct validity as it has been tested across different cultures and results of the SCS are consistent with previous research (i.e., characterizations of interdependent and independent cultures by Markus & Kitayama, 1991) and these results have been replicated in several studies (Singelis, 1994). Singelis also found evidence for predictive validity based on the relationship between the SCS and predicting attributions to the situation. Although these scales have been shown to be reliable and valid within previous research, it is important to consider the lower reliabilities within the current study when evaluating results. See Appendix E for the SCS.

Organizational culture measure of emotional labour (OCEL). Organizational culture was measured through an examination of employees' perceptions of the emotional labour norms created by the organization through a measure of emotional display rule perceptions developed by Diefendorff et al., (2005). This seven-item measure focuses on employees perceptions (four positive and three negative) of the standards for proper emotional displays and uses a five-point Likert-type scale (i.e., "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree"). For the current study, this measure assessed norms towards clients and coworkers separately. This measure has demonstrated sufficient internal reliability in previous research (Cronbach's alpha = .73 and .75 for positive and negative ratings respectively; Diefendorff et al., 2005; and Cronbach's alpha = .77; Gosserand and Diefendorff, 2005) and evidence for convergent and discriminant

validity was present in previous studies (see results from Diefendorff et al., 2005). This measure was used only in the full-time employee sample and demonstrated sufficient internal reliability for both the client (Cronbach's alpha overall = .82; with .88 and .84 for the positive and negative scales respectively) and coworkers targets (Cronbach's alpha overall = .84; with .76 and .95 for the positive and negative scales respectively). See Appendix F for the OCEL measure.

Commitment to display rules (CDR). Commitment to display rules was assessed using a measure adapted by Gosserand and Diefendorff (2005). This five-item measure used a five-point Likert scale (i.e., “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”) and asks participants how much they agree with statements regarding organizational display rules perceptions. For the current study, this measure assessed commitment to display rules for clients and coworkers separately. Data from this measure demonstrated sufficient internal consistency in previous research (Cronbach's alpha = .69; Gosserand & Diefendorff, 2005) and was adapted from the goal commitment scale which has been previously validated (Klein, Wesson, Hollenbeck, Wright & DeShon, 2001). This measure asks respondents about organizationally desired emotions, which are defined as “the emotions that your organization expects you to display on the job” (e.g., smile to show that you are happy, or to not show negative emotions like anger or sadness) and were asked regarding both clients and coworkers. Not all employees may be aware of these types of norms within the workplace, and therefore they may not be able to comment on their commitment to these rules. In order to gain additional information regarding display rules, employees were first asked “Are you aware of any organizationally desired emotions (that is, emotions you are expected to display on the

job) in your organization? (yes or no). If yes, please explain how you became aware of these expectations.” This measure was used only in the full-time employee sample and the commitment to display rules measure demonstrated sufficient internal reliability (Cronbach’s alpha = .77 and .82 for the client and coworker scales respectively). See Appendix G for the CDR measures.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Data Preparation

Coding. For each of the 24 work situations (6 emotions x 4 targets) participants indicated their display management strategy (DMS; e.g., express, amplify, deamplify, neutralize, mask, or qualify). For the current data analysis, consistent with previous research (i.e., Diefendorff & Greguras, 2009), the nominal data were recoded into six dichotomous variables (one for each display management strategy). Within each of the 24 work situations, the display management strategies were recoded, such that they were given a code of “1” when the person reported using it and a code of “0” if the person did not report using it, thus resulting in a new dichotomous variable for each DMS, within each work situation. For example, participants had a score for the DMS “express” for each of the 24 work situations (e.g., experiencing happiness towards their supervisor, experience happiness towards their coworkers, experiencing anger towards their supervisor, etc.). This coding resulted in the production of 144 scores (6 emotions x 4 targets x 6 DMSs).

The DRAI included an “other” option, such that if none of the display management strategies were appropriate, respondents could specify their own response. Previous research has shown that this option was selected very infrequently (e.g., 0.2% of responses; Diefendorff & Greguras, 2009). Within the current study the “other” option was selected very infrequently (0.15% and 0.79% of responses in the part-time and full-time sample respectively); therefore these responses, which were also not of theoretical interest, were dropped from data analysis.

Finally, the self-construal scale has two separate subscales for interdependent and independent, and research has shown that these constructs are bi-dimensional and both aspects of selves can co-exist (Kim et. al., 1996; Singelis, 1994). As such, this dual selves concept resulted in the four types self-construal model (Kim et. al., 1996). The continuous measures had to be dichotomized in order to evaluate the research questions in a manner that still maintained the complexity of the model. A median split separated each scale into high and low and the four levels included: 1) Interdependent (high on interdependent; low on independent), 2) Independent (high on independent; low on interdependent), 3) Bicultural (high on both interdependent and independent), and 4) Marginal (low on both interdependent and independent).

It was decided to split these scales at the median as opposed to the midpoint due to the variability within the scale: participants were more likely to agree with scale items, resulting in a distribution that was skewed towards the high end of the scale, such that, the resulting groups were high and low relative to the sample from which they are drawn. The purpose of this coding was to create the four possible scenarios that could occur, as based on the self-construal model from the literature. Finally, the data analysis techniques (as discussed next) involved additional repeated measures independent variables; the median split allowed the levels of self-construal to be examined along with the repeated measures variables within a groups by trials ANOVA. When self-construal was examined in isolation of other independent variables, the measures were left as continuous variables to avoid a loss of information (see *Analysis 4* below).

Data Analysis

Research question 1: Replication of DMS in the workplace. In order to address Research Questions 1 (Replication of DMS in the workplace) and 2 (Influence of Social Culture) ANOVAs were conducted. Consistent with Diefendorff and Greguras (2009), the analysis was broken down first to examine the differential effects of each DMS, and then to examine interactional effects within each DMS (such that several analyses determined differences across DMS, while additional analyses determined differences for each DMS). These analyses determined how DMS differ: 1) overall across all emotions and targets; 2) for each discrete emotion across all targets; 3) for each target across all emotions; and 4) for each DMS. Self-construal was included as an additional independent variable to answer Research Question 2 (What is the influence of social culture on display rules).

Hypotheses 1a-b, was tested with a one way (DMS; six levels: amplify, express, deamplify, qualify, neutralize, and mask) repeated measures ANOVA was conducted in order to determine any differences across DMS (ignoring the roles of specific target and discrete emotion). For *Hypotheses 2a-i* six one way (DMS; six levels) repeated measures ANOVAs were conducted for each of the discrete emotions (happiness, anger, sadness, contempt, disgust, and fear). For *Hypotheses 3a-f* four one way (DMS; six levels) repeated measures ANOVAs were conducted for each of the specific targets (customer, supervisor, coworker, subordinate). Due to the number of analyses, and issues with normality discussed below, alpha was adjusted to $p < .01$ to control for Type I error. Due to the number of planned comparisons, these analyses were conducted with a Bonferroni correction, and then evaluated against the adjusted alpha ($p < .01$). These analyses are

hereafter discussed as *Analyses 1, 2, and 3*, respectively. Finally, *Hypotheses 3g-i* was tested with a groups by trials ANOVA along with *Hypotheses 5a-e* (as described below).

Research question 2: What is the influence of social culture on display rules.

In order to test Research Question 2, two separate analyses were performed. To address *Hypotheses 4a-e* six multiple regression analyses were performed. The continuous measures of self-construal (interdependent and independent) were entered as independent variables predicting each DMS (amplify, express, deamplify, qualify, neutralize, and mask) as the dependent variable. For *Hypotheses 5a-e* (and *3g-i*) three groups by trials ANOVAs were conducted with target (four levels: supervisor, coworker, subordinate, customer) and emotion (two levels: anger, sadness) as within subjects variables and self-construal (four levels: interdependent, independent, bicultural, marginal) as a between subjects factor for three specific DMS (i.e., express, deamplify, and neutralize). The second set of analyses required an examination of the four possible self-construal groups, such that, a median split was performed on the continuous measures of self-construal (i.e., interdependent and independent) in order to code participants into one of four categories: 1) Interdependent (high on interdependent, low on independent), 2) Independent (high on independent, low on interdependent), 3) Bicultural (high on both interdependent and independent), and 4) Marginal (low on both interdependent and independent) in accordance with previous research (Kim et. al., 1996). Again, due to the number of analyses, and issues with normality discussed below, alpha was adjusted to $p < .01$ to control for Type I error. All planned comparisons were conducted with a Bonferroni correction, and then evaluated against the adjusted alpha ($p < .01$). These two analyses are hereafter discussed as *Analyses 4 and 5*, respectively.

Research question 3: What influence does culture have on commitment to display rules. In order to address Research Question 3, mean scale totals were computed for the following measures: organizational culture of emotional labour (coworker and customer versions were seven items each, measured on a five-point Likert scales), self-construal (independent and interdependent subscales were 12 items each, measured on a five-point Likert scale), and commitment to display rules (coworker and customer versions were five items each, measured on a five-point Likert scales). The analysis included initial correlations, followed by several moderated multiple regressions. To address *Hypothesis 6a-b* bivariate correlations were examined between organizational culture (OCEL for both coworker and customer) and commitment to display rules (CDR for both coworker and customer). For *Hypothesis 6c-f* the moderator of self-construal (interdependent or independent) was included and tested across four moderated multiple regressions (i.e., interdependent self-construal as a moderator for coworkers and customers separately and independent self-construal as a moderator for coworkers and customers separately). These analyses are hereafter discussed as *Analysis 6*.

Diagnostics and Assumptions

Decision Protocol. Prior to analysis, variables of interest were examined through various procedures for accuracy of data entry (for the part-time sample) and missing values (neither sample had more than 5% missing). A description of the pertinent assumptions is described next, followed by the evaluation guidelines specific to each analysis (as the evaluation of assumptions varied by analysis). Table 4 and 5 outline the assumptions, evaluation guidelines, and decision protocol that guided the data cleaning process for both the ANOVA and regression analyses (respectively).

Table 4

Guidelines and Decision Protocol for ANOVA Analyses

Assumption	Evaluation Guidelines	Decision Protocol
<i>Repeated Measures ANOVA & Groups by Trials ANOVA</i>		
Independence of Observations	Embedded within the study design.	NOT ROBUST: If violated, analysis will not be performed with confidence in the results.
Normality	Skewness < 2 and kurtosis < 3 (Garson, 2012) Outliers greater than $z = 3 $ will be removed (Osborne, & Overbay, 2004).	ROBUST: If minor violations exist, analysis will be performed as planned (on the condition that sample sizes are equal). For outliers: Analysis will be performed with outliers removed after an examination of the influence on the results (determine if loss in sample size or variability is warranted to remove outlier). If severe or multiple violations exist: 1) Non-parametric data analysis strategies will also be employed. 2) Significance level will be adjusted to a more conservative level.
Homogeneity of Variance	Levene's Test is not significant	ROBUST: If minor violations exist, analysis will be performed as planned (on the condition that sample sizes are equal). If violated, variance ratio will be examined, if sample sizes are equal then a ratio, of largest to smallest variance, as high as 10 is acceptable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).
Sphericity	Mauchley's Test is not significant	NOT ROBUST: If violated, appropriate correction will be used to produce a valid F . The Greenhouse-Geisser adjustment will be used unless the epsilon is greater than .75 (in which case the Huynh-Feldt adjustment will be used; as recommended by Girden, 1992).
<i>Groups by Trials ANOVA</i>		
Homogeneity of Variance-Covariance Matrices	Box's Test is not significant	ROBUST: If minor violations exist, analysis will be performed as planned (on the condition that sample sizes are equal).

Table 5

Guidelines and Decision Protocol for Regression Analyses

Assumption	Evaluation Guidelines	Decision Protocol
<i>Multiple Regression</i>		
Independence of Observations	Embedded within the study design.	NOT ROBUST: If violated, analysis will not be performed with confidence in the results.
Adequate Sample Size	10-15 cases per predictor (Field, 2005; Stevens, 2009).	NOT ROBUST: If violated, analysis will not be performed with confidence in the results.
Absence of Multicollinearity	Correlations < .90 Tolerance > 0.1 VIF < 10	NOT ROBUST: If violated, problematic IVs will be discarded or combined with other predictors.
75 Independence of Errors	Durbin Watson is between 1.5 and 2.5	NOT ROBUST: If violated, analysis will not be performed with confidence in the results.
Normality	Examine residual scatterplots	ROBUST: If minor violations exist, analysis will be performed as planned.
Absence of Outliers and Influential Observations	Standardized residuals < 2.5 Studentized residuals < 2.02 Mahalanobis distance < 13.82 Cooks Distance < 1.00	NOT ROBUST for influential observations: Analysis will be performed with outliers removed. ROBUST for outliers: Analysis will be performed with outliers removed after an examination of the influence on the results (determine if loss in sample size is warranted to remove outlier).
Linearity	Examine P-Plots of residuals	ROBUST: If minor violations exist, analysis will be performed as planned.
Homoscedasticity of Errors	Examine residual scatterplots	ROBUST: If minor violations exist, analysis will be performed as planned.

Several of these assumptions were robust for the current analyses; nonetheless, the data was inspected for all assumptions. The assumptions normality, homogeneity of variance and variance-covariance are conditionally robust for ANOVA. Skewness and kurtosis both have little effects on alpha, when sample sizes are equal (Box, 1953, Glass, Peckham, & Sander, 1972) and research has demonstrated that heterogeneous variances have a slight effect on alpha, when group sizes are equal (Glass et al., 1972). The groups by trials assumptions of homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices, an addition for the groups by trials ANOVA, is also conditionally robust within balanced designs (even when the data are not normally distributed; Keselman & Lix, 1997). ANOVA assumptions that are not robust include independence of observations and sphericity. A violation of independence of observations can have a considerable effect on both alpha levels and statistical power (Stevens, 2007); however measures to protect against this violation were imbedded within the repeated measures design. When sphericity is violated the F value will be positively biased resulting in an increased Type I error (Kieffer & Haley, 2002) and an adjustment can be made to correct for violations to sphericity (Keselman, Lix, & Keselman, 1996).

Regression is based on the assumption of linearity, and if the relationship between the independent and dependent variable is nonlinear, the analysis will underestimate the actual relationship (Osborne & Waters, 2002). In addition, slight deviations from homoscedasticity have little effect on significance tests, although more serious violations can increase the possibility of a Type I error (Osborne & Waters, 2002). It is important that outliers are identified and dealt with appropriately (especially influential observations), even though regression is robust to deviations from normality (Osborne &

Waters, 2002). Several assumptions are extremely problematic for the regression analysis. Once again, independence of observations is an important assumption within regression analysis and analyses should also have 10-15 cases per predictor (Field, 2005; Stevens, 2009). Additional assumptions that are not robust include multicollinearity, and independence of errors, violation of these assumptions will force the researchers to remove or combine variables, or switch to an alternative analysis (respectively; Tabachnik & Fidell, 2007).

ANOVA Assumptions. The assumptions of all ANOVA designs will first be discussed. These assumptions include: independence of observations, normality, sphericity (for within factor designs), homogeneity of variance (for between factor designs), and homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices (for groups by trials designs).

Independence of observations. The assumption of independence of observations was embedded within the research design. Participants completed the survey based on their own perspective and on their own time. Although it is possible that employees were from the same organization, their responses were about their own perspectives and opinions, and not based on other employees within their workplace (in terms of the DMS they would employ).

Normality. Normality was assessed for all analyses. For the ANOVA analyses, several variables were found to be non-normal based on skewness and kurtosis statistics. These variables were then examined for outliers, based on criteria established in Table 3, including consideration for the nature of the data. Specifically, some DMS were not highly endorsed and resulted in skewed variables; however the amount of endorsement was of interest for the current study (i.e., removing outliers would result in a variable that

was not representative of the true nature of the variable). The number of outliers removed for each analysis is detailed below, as the overall sample size is given within the results of each analysis. Once identified outliers were removed, tests of normality were once again run. Normality was then in the desired range for *Analysis 1* (for both samples). Several variables were still problematic for *Analysis 2*; specifically “amplify” and “qualify” (to a lesser degree) were non-normal for specific emotions. “Amplify” was an issue for the discrete emotions of anger, contempt, disgust sadness, and fear (for the part-time sample only); “qualify” was an issue within the part-time sample for the discrete emotions of contempt, disgust, fear, sadness, and happiness (for both samples). Finally, “neutralize” and “mask” were found to be non-normal for the discrete emotion of happiness (for both samples).

Several variables were problematic for *Analysis 3*. For the part-time sample, “amplify” (for supervisor and coworker) and “qualify” (for customer); for the full-time sample, “amplify” (for all targets) and “qualify” (supervisor and coworker). Removal of outliers did not improve normality for *Analysis 5*. Within the part-time sample there were four problematic variables and within the full-time sample there were 21 problematic variables. For this analysis, the majority of these variables were somewhat small deviations from normality (e.g., 15 of these variables had a kurtosis less than 10). It should be noted that several variables (within specific SCS groups) had a variance of zero, such that no one indicated they would employ that DMS. These issues are discussed below.

Given the large number of variables that deviated from normality two measures were taken to ensure confidence in the results for the analyses conducted on these

samples. First, an adjustment was made to a more conservative significance level; this shift in significance level was also warranted due to the number of analyses and the increased probability of making a Type I error. The current study is a replication of research conducted by Diefendorff & Greguras (2009), who also experienced non-normal data and conducted a number of analyses, resulting in a shift in alpha from .05 to .01 for all of their analyses and planned comparisons. Based on the study by Diefendorff and Greguras, and recommendations by Keppel (1991) the significance level for the current study was adjusted to a more conservative level of $\alpha = .01$. Secondly, given the deviations from normality, these analyses were also conducted with a non-parametric data analysis technique; a Friedman's ANOVA was used to evaluate and validate results for *Analyses 1-3*.

Sphericity. For *Analyses 1-3 and 5*, Mauchley's test of sphericity was significant. For *Analyses 1-3*, a more conservative adjustment (i.e., Greenhouse-Geisser) was used and for *Analysis 5*, a less conservative adjustment (i.e., Huynh-Feldt) was used. These results were consistent across both samples.

Homogeneity of variance & variance-covariance matrices. Levene's test of homogeneity of variance was non-significant for most analyses within the part-time and full-time sample. Within the part-time sample, for *Analysis 5*, five (out of a possible 24 variables) were significant. Within the full-time sample, seven (out of a possible 24 variables) were non-significant. Given these violations, cell sample size and group variances were examined. For all analyses, group sizes were approximately equal (part-time sample groups sizes were: 57, 51, 47, and 62 for a total $N = 217$; full-time sample groups sizes were: 11, 9, 8, and 10 for a total $N = 38$). Examination of group variances

proved that the smallest variance was within four times the largest for the part-time sample (for all instances in which violations of this assumption occurred for *Analysis 5*).

For *Analysis 5*, within the full-time sample, several groups (14 out of a possible 32; most of which were within the “express” analysis) had a mean and variance of zero, which caused several violations of this assumption. For instances where variables did not have a variance of zero, group variances were within (or very close to) the 4:1 ratio of largest to smallest. Therefore all sample sizes were relatively equal and variances were within a 10:1 ratio (largest to smallest) within the current study, which satisfy the conditions for the analysis to be robust to violations of this assumption. The number of variables that had a variance of zero will be further discussed.

The assumption of homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices was met in one out of the three analyses in the part-time sample (met in *Analysis 5* for “deamplify”). Box’s test could not be computed for the full-time sample, due to several variables having a zero variance. The sample size requirement was satisfied for both samples within the current study (part-time sample groups sizes were: 57, 51, 47, and 62 for a total $N = 217$ and full-time sample groups sizes were 11, 9, 8, and 10 for a total $N = 38$). Box’s test is especially sensitive to deviations from normality; the violation due to Box’s test may be due to lack of normality as opposed to an unequal covariance matrices (Stevens, 2009).

Due to the violation of both homogeneity of variance and homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices (and the numerous variables with zero variances), an additional approach was taken within the full-time sample. Participants were divided into two groups (interdependent or independent). This variable was computed by taking each

participants interdependent score and subtracting it from their independent score to create a difference score. Participants, who had a higher interdependent score (i.e., a positive difference score) were coded as interdependent, and those who had a higher independent score (i.e., a negative difference score) were coded as independent. An independent t-test confirmed that these two groups significantly differed across both subscales of the SCS (i.e., there was a significant difference between those coded as interdependent and independent on the interdependent subscale, $t(40) = 2.76, p < .01$, Cohen's $d = .86$, and the independent subscale, $t(40) = 5.94, p < .01$, Cohen's $d = 1.52$). Assessment of assumptions for this new variable found normality to be in the desired range for all variables but five, and although the assumption of sphericity was again violated, the less conservative Huynh-Feldt correction was appropriate. The assumption of homogeneity of variance was met, as Levene's test, was non-significant for most variables (i.e., significance was found for five out of 24 variables, of which all groups had approximately equal sample sizes and variances). Finally, Box's test of variance-covariance matrices was non-significant for two of the three analyses (this statistic could not be computed for the third analysis due to two variables having variances of zero), however, samples sizes were approximately equal and $n = 16$ and $n = 22$ for the interdependent, and independent groups respectively. Therefore, given fewer violations within the two group analyses, the groups by trials ANOVAs was also examined with only two levels of SCS (i.e., interdependent and independent) for the full-time sample.

Regression assumptions. The assumptions of regression include: independence of observations, adequate sample size, absence of outliers and influential observations, absence of multicollinearity and singularity, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity of

errors, and independence of error. As for the ANOVA designs, the assumption of independence of observations was embedded within the research design. It is suggested that regression analyses should have 10-15 cases per predictor (Field, 2005; Stevens, 2009). *Analysis 4* has two predictors, while *Analysis 6* has three predictors. The part-time sample had an $N = 217$ while the full-time sample (has an $N = 38$, which is within the desired sample size range for these analyses. The data were screened for outliers based on the protocol described in Table 5, and outliers were removed for all analyses. The assumption of multicollinearity was met through the examination of bivariate correlations and Tolerance and VIF statistics. Examinations of residual plots confirmed the requirements for the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity of errors for both *Analyses 4* and *6*. Finally, the Durbin-Watson statistic was in the desired range (1.5 to 2.5; Stevens, 2009) for all analyses, meeting the assumption of independence of errors.

Summary of Diagnostics and Assumptions. Assumptions for all analyses were evaluated and although several analyses were violated, the analyses were either robust to the violation and/or appropriate corrections were made (e.g., corrections for sphericity were made, and alternative non-parametric analysis were run given the accumulation of violations within the ANOVA analyses). An overall adjustment to alpha was made to correct for Type I error (adjustment from .05 to .01) and effect size and power was evaluated for all analyses to ensure reliability of the results.

Sample Descriptives

Table 6 includes the range, means and standard deviations for variables in the current study. Graphs are used to describe all DRAI variables. Appendix L shows a bar

Table 6

Mean and Standard Deviations

	Possible Range	Part-Time Sample			Full-Time Sample		
		<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Express	0 – 1	217	.21	.143	42	.22	.165
Amplify	0 – 1	217	.03	.054	42	.01	.024
Deamplify	0 – 1	217	.24	.161	42	.35	.229
Neutralize	0 – 1	217	.37	.225	42	.28	.227
Mask	0 – 1	217	.11	.147	42	.06	.086
Qualify	0 – 1	217	.04	.077	42	.06	.136
Interdependent SC (Part-time)	1 – 5	217	3.86	.544	42	3.33	.458
Independent SC (Part-time)	1 – 5	217	3.69	.700	42	3.43	.547
CDR: Coworker	1 – 5	-	-	-	41	3.81	.701
CDR: Customer	1 – 5	-	-	-	41	3.85	.628
OCEL: Coworker	1 – 5	-	-	-	42	3.44	.748
OCEL: Customer	1 – 5	-	-	-	42	3.79	.746
Emotional Stress	1 – 5	-	-	-	42	2.64	1.11
Job Satisfaction	1 – 5	-	-	-	41	4.00	.910
Turnover Intentions	1 – 5	-	-	-	42	1.80	.980

NOTE: SC: Self-construal; CDR: Commitment to Display Rules; OCEL: Organizational Culture of Emotional Labour; Emotional Stress: assess how stressful it is for respondents to interact with different workplace targets.

graph representing the DMS frequency (i.e., percentages of respondents who selected this strategy) for the part-time and full-time sample across DMS overall. Appendix M shows graphs representing the DMS frequency across all discrete emotions (i.e., happiness, anger, sadness, contempt, disgust, & fear), for the part-time and full-time sample. Appendix N shows graphs representing the DMS frequency across all specific targets (customer, supervisor, coworker, and subordinate), for the part-time and full-time sample.

Overall, “deamplify” and “neutralize” were selected most often (with the exception of “express” for happiness). Although the frequencies of DMS across the two samples were similar, there are several small differences. Across the majority of the discrete emotions, part time employees were more likely to “neutralize,” while full-time employees were more likely to “deamplify.” This trend was also evident for all workplace targets, with the exception of customers (in which full-time employees were more likely to “neutralize” and levels of “deamplify” were similar).

Bivariate correlations were also performed to understand the relationships between the measures within the study and to gain contextual information regarding the samples. Table 7 and 8 include bivariate correlations for variables in the part-time and full-time sample, respectively; Table 9 includes bivariate correlations for all variables and key demographics (i.e., age and gender). Within the part-time sample significant negative relationships existed between “deamplify” and interdependent self-construal and “mask” and independent self-construal. Within the full-time sample, significant positive relationships were found between “express” and interdependent self-construal and between “amplify” and independent self-construal,

Table 7

Bivariate Correlations among Variables within Part-Time Sample

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Express Overall	.87	.00	.03	-.46**	-.26**	-.09	-.01	.07
2. Amplify Overall		.78	-.16*	-.16*	.01	.09	.12	.12
3. Deamplify Overall			.87	-.47**	-.25**	-.18**	-.16**	.04
4. Neutralize Overall				.92	-.36**	-.27**	.07	.03
5. Mask Overall					.91	.14*	-.00	-.20*
6. Qualify Overall						.87	.08	.02
7. Interdependent SC							.66	.13*
8. Independent SC								.79

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

NOTE: Cronbach's alphas are indicated along the diagonal; SC: Self-construal.

Table 8

Bivariate Correlations among Variables within Full-Time Sample

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	
1. Express Overall	.85	.17	-.29*	-.41**	.12	-.11	-.01	.05	.16	.06	-.09	.45**	-.10	.38**	-.36*	
2. Amplify Overall		.40	.00	-.18	.02	-.12	.28*	.23	.20	.06	-.34*	-.11	.37**	.35*	-.29*	
3. Deamplify Overall			.88	-.47**	-.24	-.40**	-.18	-.19	-.10	.02	-.07	.01	.22	.07	.12	
4. Neutralize Overall				.89	-.31*	-.14	.11	.18	-.05	.02	.10	-.51**	-.14	-.44**	.24	
5. Mask Overall					.74	.10	-.16	-.03	-.08	-.12	.29*	.26	-.20	-.04	-.04	
6. Qualify Overall						.82	.20	-.06	.05	-.10	-.08	.18	.02	.14	-.14	
7. CDR: Coworker							.82	.77**	.30*	.12	-.35*	-.07	.12	.22	-.21	
8. CDR: Customer								.77	.34**	.22	-.17	-.14	.18	.07	-.06	
9. OCEL: Coworker									.84	.73**	-.24	.05	-.02	.02	-.03	
10. OCEL: Customer										.82	-.17	.10	-.01	-.01	.02	
11. Emotional Stress											.80	-.10	-.29*	-.36**	.58**	
12. Interdependent SC												.69	-.13	.42**	-.46**	
13. Independent SC													.68	.18	-.03	
14. Job Satisfaction															-.54**	
15. Turnover Intentions																.93

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

NOTE: Cronbach's alphas are indicated along the diagonal; CDR: Commitment to Display Rules; OCEL: Organizational Culture of Emotional Labour; SC: Self-construal.

Table 9

Bivariate Correlations among Variables with Key Demographics

	Part-Time Sample		Full-Time Sample	
	Age	Gender	Age	Gender
1. Express Overall	-.13	-.19**	-.31*	-.34
2. Amplify Overall	-.14*	.07	.41**	.16
3. Deamplify Overall	.04	.06	.00	.06
4. Neutralize Overall	.18**	.15*	.08	-.18
5. Mask Overall	-.11	-.09	-.17	.06
6. Qualify Overall	-.06	-.10	.26	.15
7. CDR: Coworker	-	-	.48**	.20
8. CDR: Customer	-	-	.36*	.03
9. OCEL: Coworker	-	-	.44**	.09
10. OCEL: Customer	-	-	.23	-.14
11. Emotional Stress	-	-	-.39*	-.23
12. Interdependent SC	-.23**	.02	-.12	.05
13. Independent SC	.02	.20*	.11	.03
14. Job Satisfaction	-	-	.00	.25
15. Turnover Intentions	-	-	-.15	.11

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

NOTE: Cronbach's alphas are indicated along the diagonal; CDR: Commitment to Display Rules; OCEL: Organizational Culture of Emotional Labour; SC: Self-construal.

while a significant negative relationship existed between “neutralize” and interdependent self-construal.

Within the full-time sample, emotional stress (a measure addressing the stress associated with engaging in display rules) was significantly negatively related to independent self-construal and job satisfaction, and significantly positively related to turnover intention. Also, as would be expected, a negative relationship existed between job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Several relationships were also found to be significant between these outcome measures and the DMSs overall, within the full-time sample. “Express” and “amplify” were positively related to job satisfaction and negatively related to turnover intentions (it should be noted that “amplify” was selected most often for the emotion of happiness). Finally, “neutralize” was negatively related to job satisfaction (and although not significant, positively related to turnover).

Research Question 1: Replication of DMS in the Workplace

Table 10 and 11 includes the one-way ANOVAs for display management strategies overall, by emotion, and by target, for the student and full-time sample respectively (i.e., results for *Analyses 1, 2, and 3*).

Analysis 1: Within subjects ANOVA: DMS overall. A one-way repeated measures ANOVA was performed with DMS (6 levels: express, amplify, deamplify, neutralize, mask, qualify) as a within-subjects factor and frequency of DMS as the dependent variable. This analysis collapsed across target and discrete emotions. Additional planned comparisons (with a Bonferroni correction) were conducted to examine whether “neutralize” and “deamplify” occur more often as compared to all other DMS (*Hypothesis 1a-b*). The analysis produced a significant effect for both the part-time

and full-time samples and effect sizes indicate that almost half of the variability in display rules was due to the different display management strategies (see Tables 9 and 10). Upon examination of the means for the part-time sample (see Table 9), planned comparisons revealed that 37.8% of participants selected “neutralize,” which was significantly more than all other DMS. “Deamplify” was the second most often used display rule, used 23.8% of the time, which was significantly different from all other strategies with the exception of “express” (21% of participants selected “express”). Upon examination of the means for the full-time sample (see Table 10), planned comparisons revealed that the top display rules selected were “deamplify” (35.9%), “neutralize” (29.4%), and “express” (22.5%). These three DMS were significantly different from all other DMS (they were not significantly different from each other). This provides partial support for *Hypothesis 1a-b*. See Figure 3 for DMSs overall across samples.

DMS Overall

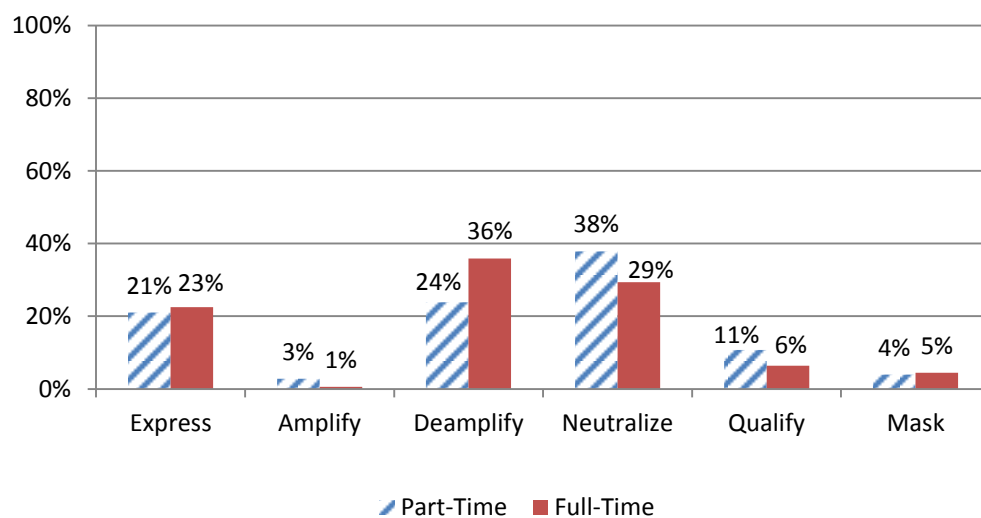


Figure 3. DMS Frequency overall for the part-time and full-time sample.

Table 10

Part-time sample: One-way Analysis of Variance for Display Management Strategies Overall, by Emotion, and by Target

	Display Management Strategy Frequency								
	<i>N</i>	<i>F</i>	ω^2	Express (A)	Amplify (B)	Deamplify (C)	Neutralize (D)	Mask (E)	Qualify (F)
Overall	209	158.00 ^{***}	.426	.210 ^{b,d,e,f}	.028 ^{a,c,d,e}	.238 ^{b,d,e,f}	.378 ^{a,b,c,e,f}	.107 ^{a,b,c,d,f}	.039 ^{a,c,d,e}
Happiness	204	292.53 ^{***}	.585	.646 ^{b,c,d,e,f}	.133 ^{a,d,e,f}	.152 ^{a,d,e,f}	.030 ^{a,b,c}	.007 ^{a,b,c,f}	.033 ^{a,b,c,e}
Anger	212	96.61 ^{***}	.312	.129 ^{b,c,d,f}	.007 ^{a,c,d,e,f}	.334 ^{a,b,e,f}	.363 ^{a,b,e,f}	.128 ^{b,c,d,f}	.040 ^{a,b,c,d,e}
Sadness	210	68.42 ^{***}	.240	.157 ^{b,c,d,f}	.009 ^{a,c,d,e,f}	.305 ^{a,b,e,f}	.358 ^{a,b,e,f}	.141 ^{b,c,d,f}	.031 ^{a,b,c,d,e}
Contempt	205	94.00 ^{***}	.308	.179 ^{b,d,f}	.009 ^{a,c,d,e,f}	.234 ^{b,d,e,f}	.452 ^{a,b,c,e,f}	.097 ^{b,c,d,f}	.030 ^{a,b,c,d,e}
Disgust	202	155.05 ^{***}	.428	.080 ^{b,c,d,f}	.003 ^{a,c,d,e,f}	.258 ^{a,b,d,e,f}	.508 ^{a,b,c,e,f}	.121 ^{b,c,d,f}	.030 ^{a,b,c,d,e}
Fear	205	187.05 ^{***}	.472	.075 ^{b,c,d,e,f}	.004 ^{a,c,d,e,f}	.163 ^{a,b,d,f}	.577 ^{a,b,c,e,f}	.157 ^{a,b,d,f}	.023 ^{a,b,c,d,e}
Customer	211	63.70 ^{***}	.224	.146 ^{b,d,e,f}	.055 ^{a,c,d,e}	.156 ^{b,d,f}	.372 ^{a,b,c,f}	.239 ^{a,b,f}	.033 ^{a,c,d,e}
Supervisor	207	144.95 ^{***}	.407	.209 ^{a,b,d,e}	.022 ^{a,c,d,e}	.257 ^{b,d,e,f}	.394 ^{a,b,c,e,f}	.077 ^{a,b,c,d,f}	.042 ^{a,c,d,e}
Coworker	210	127.65 ^{***}	.373	.252 ^{b,d,e,f}	.022 ^{a,c,d,f}	.269 ^{b,e,f}	.360 ^{a,b,e,f}	.060 ^{a,b,c,d}	.038 ^{a,c,d}
Subordinate	209	138.35 ^{***}	.393	.218 ^{b,d,e,f}	.023 ^{a,c,d,e}	.272 ^{b,d,e,f}	.390 ^{a,b,c,e,f}	.059 ^{a,c,d}	.037 ^{a,c,d}

Superscript letters indicate means that are significant difference from each other at $p < .01$.

^{***} $p < .001$

Table 11

Full-time sample: One-way Analysis of Variance for Display Management Strategies Overall, by Emotion, and by Target

	Display Management Strategy Frequency								
	<i>N</i>	<i>F</i>	ω^2	Express (A)	Amplify (B)	Deamplify (C)	Neutralize (D)	Mask (E)	Qualify (F)
Overall	40	28.88 ^{***}	.393	.225 ^{b,e,f}	.006 ^{a,c,d,e}	.359 ^{b,e,f}	.294 ^{b,e,f}	.064 ^{a,b,c,d}	.045 ^{a,c,d}
Happiness	39	123.95 ^{***}	.747	.789 ^{b,c,d,e,f}	.019 ^a	.109 ^a	.058 ^a	.019 ^a	.006 ^a
Anger	39	37.50 ^{***}	.461	.086 ^c	.006 ^{c,d}	.506 ^{a,b,e,f}	.286 ^{b,e,f}	.045 ^{c,d}	.051 ^{c,d}
Sadness	40	15.40 ^{***}	.154	.175	.006 ^{c,d}	.400 ^{b,e,f}	.329 ^{b,e,f}	.025 ^{c,d}	.058 ^{c,d}
Contempt	38	22.16 ^{***}	.334	.081 ^{c,d}	.006 ^{c,d}	.415 ^{a,b,e,f}	.364 ^{b,e,f}	.094 ^{c,d}	.033 ^{c,d}
Disgust	40	20.48 ^{***}	.302	.115 ^c	.000 ^{c,d,e}	.406 ^{a,b,e,f}	.360 ^{b,e,f}	.069 ^{b,c,d}	.038 ^{c,d}
Fear	41	17.57 ^{***}	.143	.138	.000 ^{c,d}	.388 ^{b,e,f}	.370 ^{b,e,f}	.055 ^{c,d}	.048 ^{c,d}
Customer	40	21.98 ^{***}	.320	.142 ^{b,d,f}	.008 ^{a,c,d}	.171 ^{b,d,f}	.500 ^{a,b,c,e,f}	.158 ^d	.017 ^{a,c,d}
Supervisor	37	31.63 ^{***}	.415	.198 ^{b,c,e,f}	.009 ^{a,c,d}	.455 ^{a,b,e,f}	.297 ^{b,e,f}	.014 ^{a,c,d}	.009 ^{a,c,d}
Coworker	35	29.94 ^{***}	.424	.233 ^{b,c,e,f}	.005 ^{a,c,d}	.481 ^{a,b,e,f}	.210 ^{b,e,f}	.014 ^{a,c,d}	.052 ^{a,c,d}
Subordinate	36	19.81 ^{***}	.318	.273 ^{b,e,f}	.014 ^{a,c}	.449 ^{b,e,f}	.194	.032 ^{a,c}	.037 ^{a,c}

Superscript letters indicate means that are significant difference from each other at $p < .01$.

*** $p < .001$

These hypotheses were also tested using a non-parametric data analysis technique, Friedman's ANOVA. Results for DMSs overall confirmed the above results, such that there was a statistically significant difference in frequency of DMS depending on the specific strategy selected; this effect was found for both the part-time sample ($\chi^2 = 476.01, p < .001$), and the full-time sample ($\chi^2 = 106.72, p < .001$).

Analysis 2: Within subjects ANOVAs: DMS for each emotion. Six one-way repeated measures ANOVAs were performed with DMS (6 levels: express, deamplify, amplify, neutralize, mask, qualify) as a within-subjects factor and frequency of DMS as the dependent variable. This analysis collapsed across target for each discrete emotion (total of six ANOVAs were performed; one for each emotion: happiness, anger, sadness, contempt, disgust, and fear). Additional planned comparisons (with a Bonferroni correction) were conducted to test Hypotheses 2a through i (differences across discrete emotion).

Hypothesis 2a-b. It was predicted that “express” and “deamplify” would be most often selected as display rules for happiness. As shown in Table 9 and 10, there was a main effect for DMS for happiness for both the part-time and full-time sample. Planned comparisons revealed that when participants felt happy, they were most likely to select “express” (64.6% and 78.9% in the part-time and full-time sample respectively). The display rule of “express” for happiness was selected significantly more often than all other DMSs. “Deamplify” was the second most selected DMS (15.2% and 10.9% in the part-time and full-time sample respectively). In the part-time sample, “deamplify” was selected significantly more often than all other DMSs, with the exception of “amplify” (13.3%). In the full-time sample “deamplify” was only significantly different from

“express” (78.9%). This provides partial support for *Hypothesis 2a* and *b*. See Figure 4 for DMS frequencies for happiness across samples.

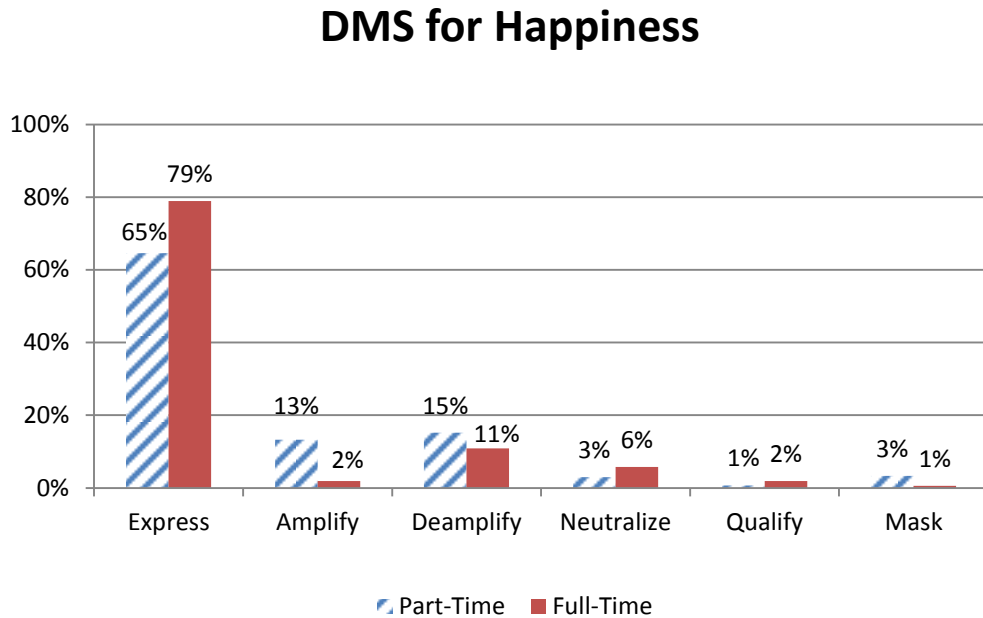


Figure 4. DMS Frequency for happiness across the part-time and full-time sample.

Hypothesis 2c-f. It was predicted that “neutralize” and “deamplify” would be most often selected as display rules for anger and sadness. As shown in Table 9 and 10, there was a main effect for DMS for anger for both the part-time and full-time sample. Planned comparisons revealed that when participants felt angry, they were most likely to select either “deamplify” (33.4% and 50.6% in the part-time and full-time sample respectively) or “neutralize” (36.3% and 28.6% in the part-time and full-time sample respectively). Within the part-time sample, both of these DMSs were selected significantly more often than all other strategies (they were not significantly different from each other). Within the full-time sample, participants selected “deamplify”

significantly more often than all other strategies except “neutralize;” participants selected “neutralize” significantly more often than all other strategies except “deamplify” and “express” (8.6%). See Figure 5 for DMS frequencies for anger across samples.

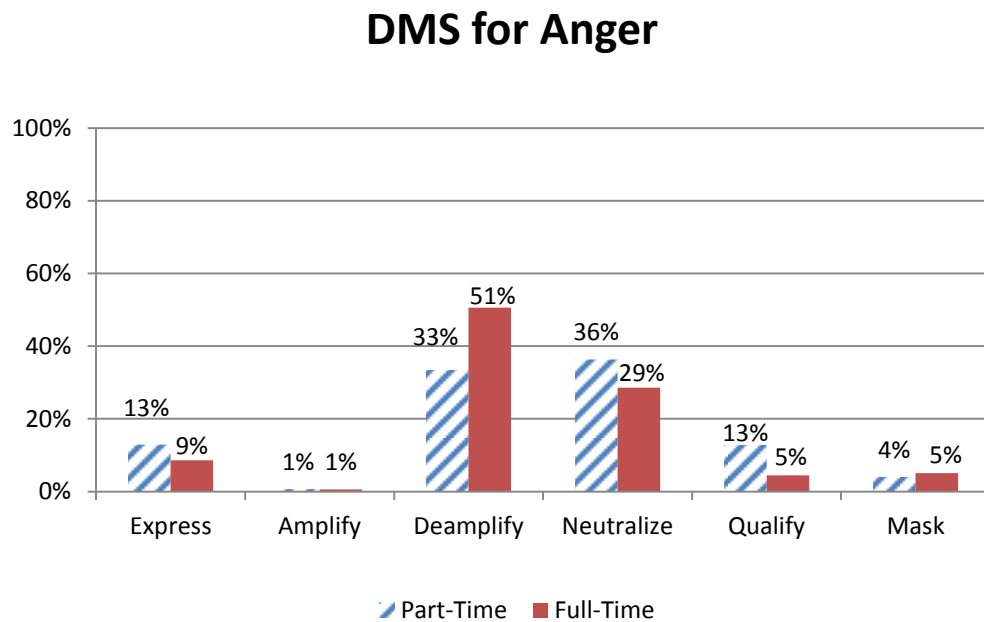


Figure 5. DMS Frequency for anger across the part-time and full-time sample.

As shown in Table 10 and 11, there was a main effect for DMS for sadness for both the full-time and full-time sample. Planned comparisons revealed that when participants felt sad, they were most likely to select either “deamplify” (30.5% and 40% in the part- time and full-time sample respectively) or “neutralize” (35.8% and 32.9% in the part-time and full-time sample respectively). Within the part-time sample, both of these DMSs were selected significantly more often than all other strategies (they were not significantly different from each other). Within the full-time sample, both of these DMSs (which were not significantly different from each other) were selected significantly more

often than all other strategies except “express” (17.5%). “Express” was selected at a much lower rate within both samples. This provides partial support for *Hypothesis 2c* through *2f*. See Figure 6 for DMS frequencies for sadness across samples.

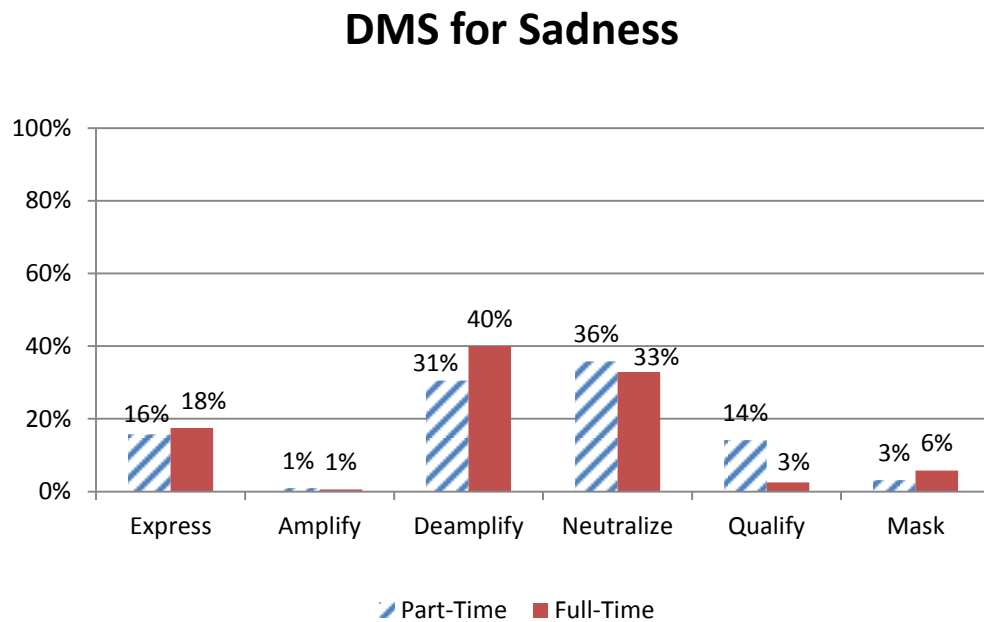


Figure 6. DMS Frequency for sadness across the part-time and full-time sample.

Hypothesis 2g-i. It was predicted that “neutralize” would be most often selected as display rules for contempt, fear, and disgust. As shown in Table 9 and 10, there was a main effect for DMS for contempt, fear, and disgust, for both the part-time and the full-time sample. See Figures 7, 8, and 9 for DMS frequencies for contempt, fear, and disgust (respectively) across samples. Planned comparisons revealed that when participants within the part-time sample felt contempt, fear, and disgust they were significantly more likely to select “neutralize” as a display rule (45.2%, 50.8%, and 57.7%, respectively) as compared to all other DMSs. Regarding the full-time sample, planned comparisons

showed that the DSM of “deamplify” (41.5%, 40.6%, and 38.8% for contempt, disgust, and fear respectively) and “neutralize” (36.4%, 36%, and 37% for contempt, disgust, and fear respectively) were selected most often. For all three emotions, “deamplify” and “neutralize” were selected significantly more often than most all other DMSs (they were not significantly different from each other). For fear, “Deamplify” and “neutralize” were both not significantly different from “express” (13.8%) and for disgust “neutralize” was not significantly different from “express” (11.5%). This provides partial support for *Hypothesis 2g-i*.

DMS for Contempt

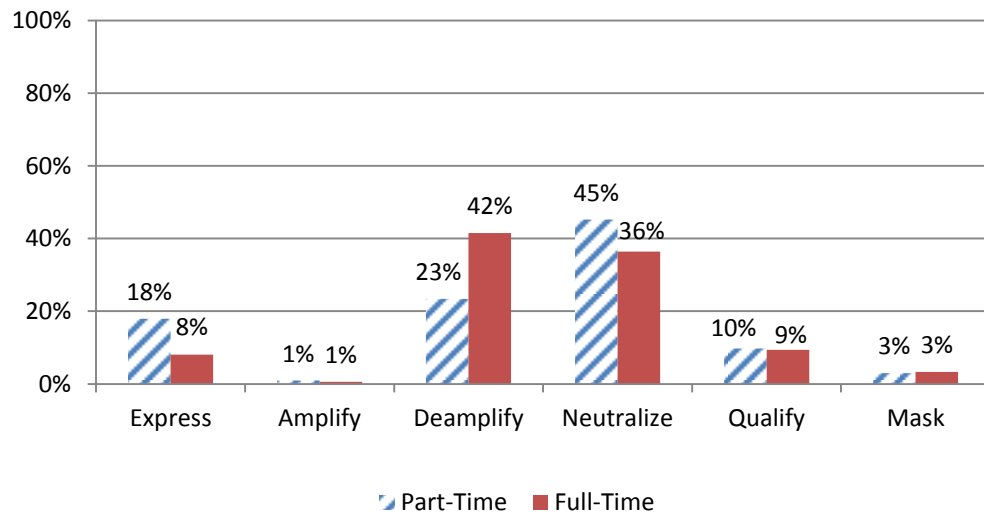


Figure 7. DMS Frequency for contempt across the part-time and full-time sample.

DMS for Fear

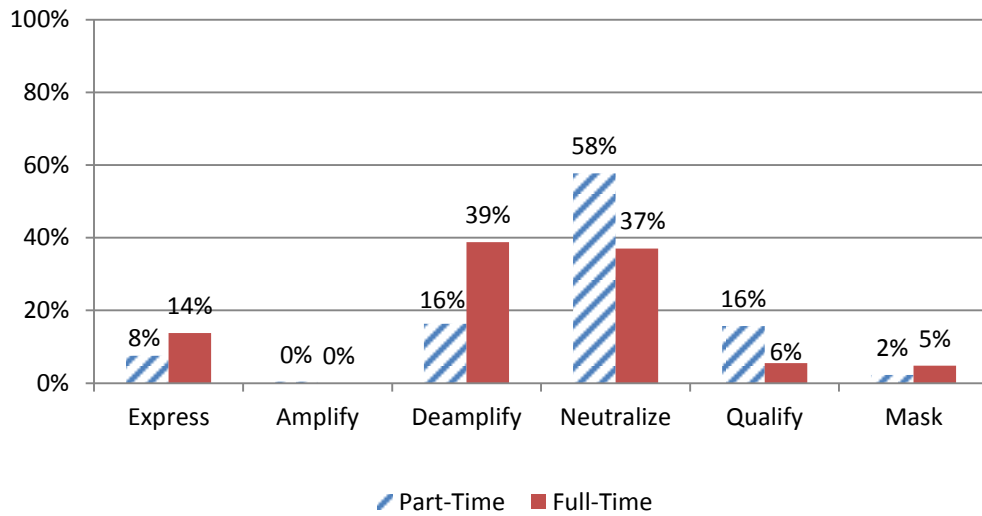


Figure 8. DMS Frequency for fear across the part-time and full-time sample.

DMS for Disgust

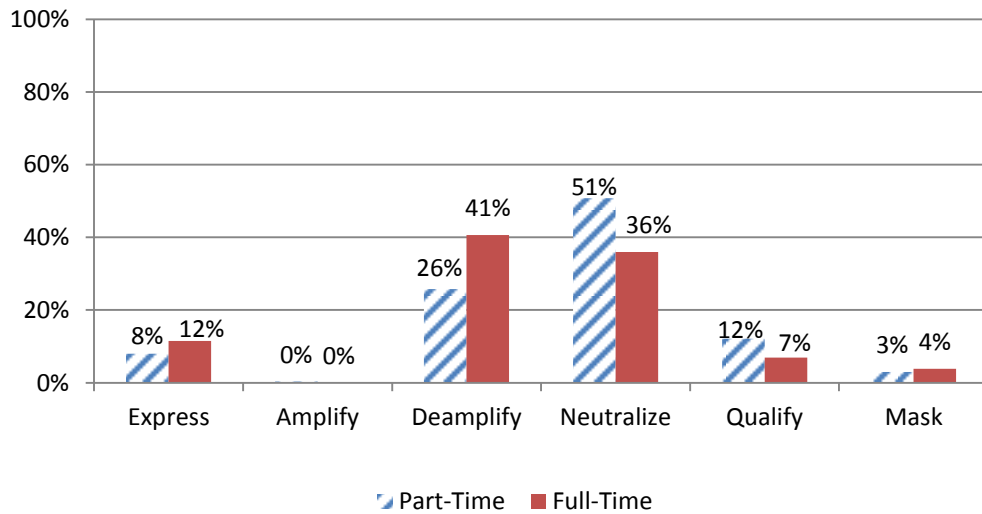


Figure 9. DMS Frequency for disgust across the part-time and full-time sample.

Analysis 3: Within subjects ANOVAs: DMS for each target. Four one-way repeated measures ANOVAs were performed with DMS (6 levels: express, deamplify, amplify, neutralize, qualify, mask) as a within-subjects factor and frequency of DMS as the dependent variable. This analysis collapsed across emotion for each target (total of four ANOVAs were performed; one for each target: supervisor, coworker, subordinate, and customer). Additional planned comparisons (with a Bonferroni correction) were conducted to examine whether “neutralize” and “deamplify” occur more often for supervisors and subordinates, whether “deamplify” occurs more often for coworkers, and whether “neutralize” occurs more often for customers (*Hypothesis 3a through 3f*).

As shown in Table 9 and 10, there was a main effect for DMS for supervisors, subordinates, customers, and coworkers, for both the part-time and full-time sample. Within the part-time sample, for supervisors and subordinates, “neutralize” was selected significantly more often than all other DMSs (39.4% and 36.0% for supervisor and subordinate, respectively); “deamplify” was the next more often selected DMS (25.7% and 27.2% for supervisor and subordinate, respectively), which was significantly more than all other DMSs except for “express” (20.9% and 21.8% for supervisor and subordinate, respectively). For supervisors and subordinates in the full-time sample, “deamplify” was selected significantly more often than all other DMSs (45.5% and 44.9% for supervisor and subordinate, respectively), with two exceptions; “deamplify” was not significantly different from “neutralize” (29.7%) for supervisors and “express” (27.3%) and “neutralize” (19.4%) for subordinates. See Figure 10 and 11 for DMS frequencies for supervisors and subordinates, respectively across samples.

DMS for Supervisors

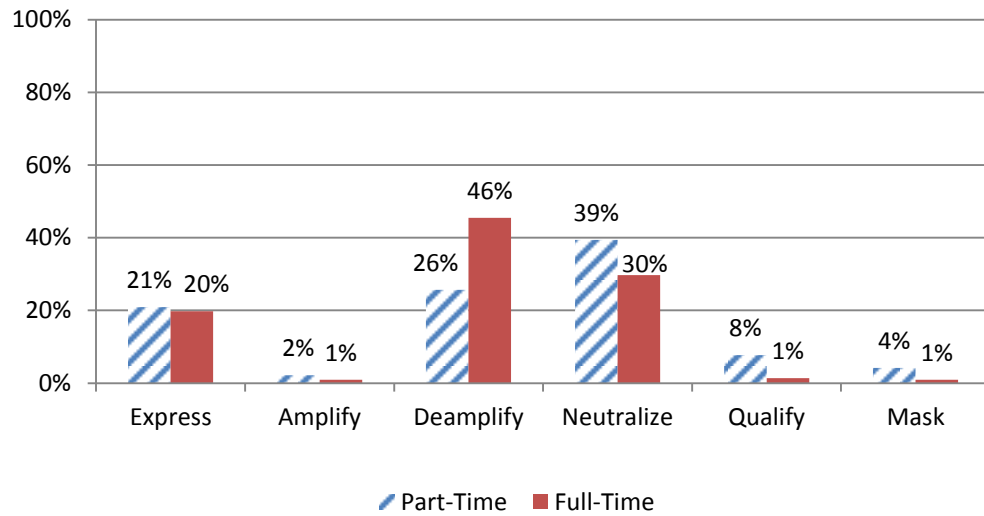


Figure 10. DMS Frequency for supervisors across the part-time and full-time sample.

DMS for Subordinates

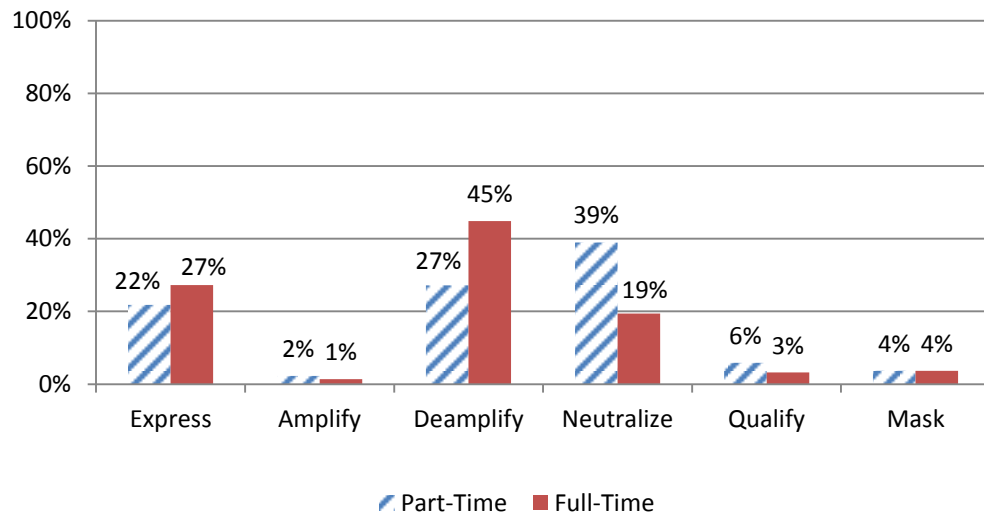


Figure 11. DMS Frequency for subordinates across the part-time and full-time sample.

For the customer target, within both samples, the most often selected DMS was “neutralize” (37.2% and 50% in the part-time and full-time sample respectively), which was selected significantly more often than all other DMSs, with the exception of “mask” in the part-time sample (23.9%). For coworkers, within the part-time sample, “neutralize” (36%) was selected significantly more often than all other DMSs with the exception of “deamplify” (26.9%). Within the full-time sample, “deamplify” (48.1%) was selected significantly more often than all other DMSs, with the exception of “Neutralize” (21%). This provides partial support for *Hypothesis 3a-f*. See Figure 12 and 13 for DMS frequencies for customers and coworkers, respectively across samples.

DMS for Customers

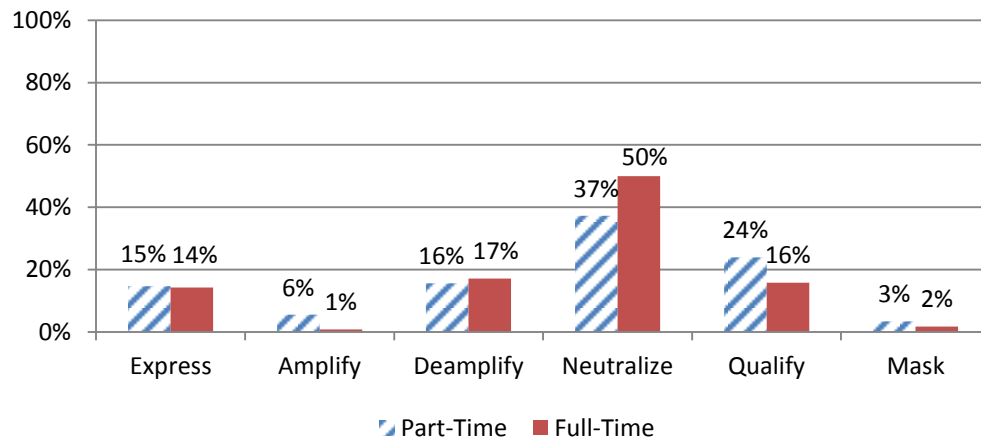


Figure 12. DMS Frequency for customers across the part-time and full-time sample.

DMS for Coworkers

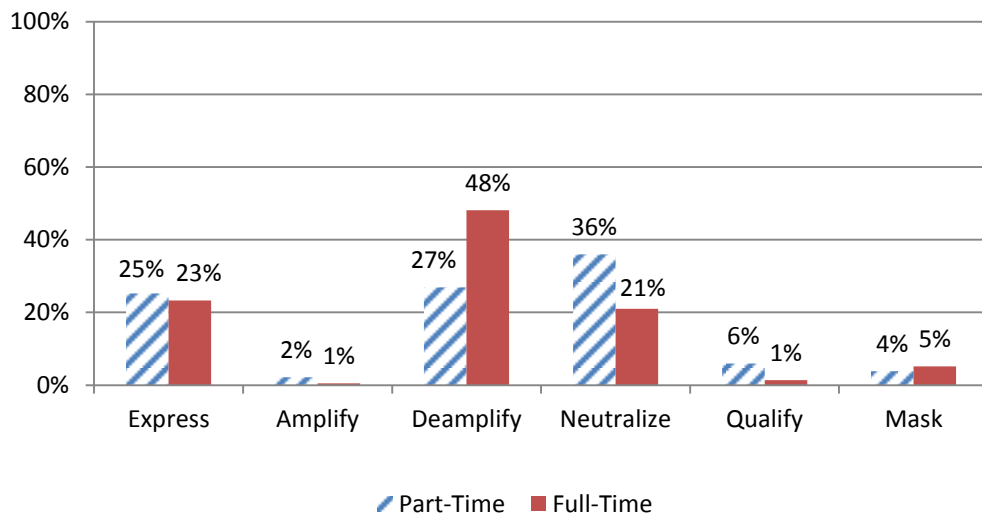


Figure 13. DMS Frequency for coworkers across the part-time and full-time sample.

The hypotheses for Research Questions 1 (*Analyses 1, 2, and 3*) were also testing using a non-parametric data analysis technique, Friedman’s ANOVA. Results for DMSs overall confirmed the above results, such that there was a statistically significant difference in frequency of DMS depending on the specific strategy selected; this effect was found across both samples, for all emotions. The results of these tests can be found in Table 12.

Table 12

Results from Friedman's ANOVA

Analysis	Part-Time		Full-Time	
	<i>N</i>	Chi-Square	<i>N</i>	Chi-Square
DMS Overall	217	476.01 ^{***}	42	106.72 ^{***}
DMS collapsed across Emotion				
Happiness	217	485.83 ^{***}	42	120.83 ^{***}
Anger	217	384.70 ^{***}	42	88.49 ^{***}
Sadness	217	327.26 ^{***}	42	55.04 ^{***}
Contempt	217	314.27 ^{***}	42	64.86 ^{***}
Disgust	217	415.22 ^{***}	42	70.72 ^{***}
Fear	217	430.91 ^{***}	42	66.18 ^{***}
DMS collapsed across Target				
Customer	217	202.23 ^{***}	41	71.51 ^{***}
Supervisor	217	489.55 ^{***}	42	105.92 ^{***}
Coworker	217	501.88 ^{***}	42	92.53 ^{***}
Subordinate	217	492.08 ^{***}	39	74.08 ^{***}

NOTE: $df = 5$;
^{***} $p < .001$

Research Question 2: What is the Influence of Social Culture on Display Rules?

Analysis 4: Multiple regression: Culture predicting DMS. Six multiple regression analyses were performed with interdependent and independent self-construal as predictors and each DMS as the outcome. This analysis collapsed across target and discrete emotions (total of six regressions were performed; one for each DMS: express, amplify, deamplify, neutralize, mask, qualify). This analysis was performed on both the part-time and full-time sample (see Table 13 for results of the regression analyses). Within the part-time sample, the analyses predicting “amplify” and “mask” were significant, and both of these models had independent self-construal as the only significant coefficient. Within the full-time sample, the analysis predicting “neutralize” was the only significant model with interdependent self-construal as the only significant coefficient. All of the other regression models were non-significant. Interdependent self-construal significantly predicted the DMS of “neutralize,” however this relationship was in the opposite of the predicted direction, thus providing no support for *Hypotheses 4a-e*.

Analysis 5: Groups by trials ANOVAs: target/emotion/culture for each DMS.

In order to determine what interactional differences exist across emotion, target and measures of culture, three, three-way ANOVAs were performed with SCS (4 levels; interdependent, independent, bicultural, and marginal) as a between-subjects factor and target (4 levels; supervisor, coworker, subordinate, and customer) and emotion (2 levels; anger, sadness) as a within-subject factor separately for the DMSs of “express,” “deamplify,” and “neutralize.” These DMSs were selected due to the high selection of these display rules, and due to specific hypotheses. Further, due to some violations of

Table 13

Multiple Regression Analysis for Interdependent and Independent Self-construal Predicting DMSs

Analysis and Variables	Part-Time Sample				Full-Time Sample			
	<i>B</i>	SE B	β	R^2	<i>B</i>	SE B	β	R^2
Express				.002				.133
Interdependent	-.004	.014	-.021		.110	.051	.329	
Independent	.007	.011	.044		.042	.044	.145	
Amplify				.047**				.02
Interdependent	.005	.005	.069		.003	.005	.087	
Independent	.011**	.004	.193		.002	.005	.067	
Deamplify				.036*				.048
Interdependent	-.045**	.016	-.189		.017	.079	.034	
Independent	.013	.013	.066		.093	.066	.221	
Neutralize				.007				.299**
Interdependent	.029	.023	.085		-.265**	.067	-.534	
Independent	-.003	.019	-.012		-.085	.056	-.205	
Mask				.046**				.095
Interdependent	.001	.014	.005		.045	.029	.240	
Independent	-.035*	.011	-.215		-.026	.024	-.164	
Qualify				.006				.020
Interdependent	.009	.008	.078		.027	.032	.139	
Independent	.001	.006	.010		-.003	.029	-.017	

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

assumptions, these analyses were also run as a three-way ANOVA, performed with only two levels of SCS (interdependent, independent) for the full-time sample.

The Target x Emotion interaction was examined to determine whether differences in DMS occur across target supervisors as compared to subordinates for anger and sadness (providing support for *Hypothesis 3g-h*). The SCS x Emotion interaction was examined to determine whether differences in DMS occur across emotions for anger as compared to sadness (providing support for *Hypothesis 5a-b*). The SCS x Target interaction was examined to determine whether differences in DMS occur across target for interdependent self-construal as compared to independent self-construal (providing support for *Hypothesis 5c-e*). Refer to Table 14, 15, and 16 for F values, effect sizes, and observed power for all effects across all samples for the DMSs of “express,” “deamplify,” and “neutralize,” respectively. Partial eta (η^2) was computed instead of ω^2 due to the complexity in the design; the formula for ω^2 is increasingly complex with multiple independent variables especially within a groups by trials design. Further, this statistic must be computed by hand as the majority of statistical software applications do not compute this statistic.

Many of these hypotheses were not supported as although most analyses had a significant main effect of target, there were only two interactions that were significant; there was a Target x Emotion interaction for the DMS of “deamplify” in the part-time sample, and a Target x SCS interaction for the DMS of “express” for the full-time sample (two groups; although this effect was significant at the $p < .05$ level it will still be graphed and interpreted). A Target x Emotion interaction was found for the DMS of “deamplify” within the part-time sample. Upon inspection of the graph (see Figure 14), it

Table 14

F values, Effect sizes, and Observed Power for all effects across all samples for Express DMS.

	Part-time sample			Full-time sample (4 SCS Groups)			Full-time sample (2 SCS Groups)		
	<i>F</i>	η^2	Observed Power	<i>F</i>	η^2	Observed Power	<i>F</i>	η^2	Observed Power
Within Subjects Effects									
Target	18.97***	.082	1.00	2.64	.072	.631	3.70*	.093	.792
Emotion	2.61	.012	.362	1.74	.049	.249	2.03*	.053	.283
Target x Emotion	0.74	.003	.205	1.21	.034	.300	1.16	.031	.290
Target x SCS	0.99	.014	.468	1.56	.121	.702	2.84	.073	.667
Emotion x SCS	.545	.008	.161	0.40	.034	.121	1.41	.038	.211
Target x Emotion x SCS	0.36	.005	.180	1.16	.093	.513	0.583	.016	.161
Between Subjects Effects									
SCS	1.14	.016	.305	1.62	.125	.387	4.29*	.107	.523

Note: $N = 217$ for the Part-time sample and $N = 38$ for the Full-time sample.

* $p < .05$, *** $p < .001$

Table 15

F values, Effect sizes, and Observed Power for all effects across all samples for Deamplify DMS.

	Part-time sample			Full-time sample (4 SCS Groups)			Full-time sample (2 SCS Groups)		
	<i>F</i>	η^2	Observed Power	<i>F</i>	η^2	Observed Power	<i>F</i>	η^2	Observed Power
Within Subjects Effects									
Target	22.70***	.096	1.00	10.90***	.243	.999	8.66***	.194	.992
Emotion	2.27	.011	.322	2.67	.073	.355	2.02	.053	.283
Target x Emotion	15.29***	.067	1.00	1.29	.036	.335	1.31	.035	.200
Target x SCS	1.22	.017	.552	1.46	.114	.668	0.81	.022	.215
Emotion x SCS	0.37	.005	.123	2.48	.180	.565	0.75	.020	.135
Target x Emotion x SCS	0.95	.013	.463	0.63	.053	.296	0.36	.010	.119
Between Subjects Effects									
SCS	0.52	.007	.155	0.87	.071	.219	2.48	.064	.335

Note: N = 217 for the Part-time sample and N = 38 for the Full-time sample.

* $p < .05$, *** $p < .001$

Table 16

F values, Effect sizes, and Observed Power for all effects across all samples for Neutralize DMS.

	Part-time sample			Full-time sample (4 SCS Groups)			Full-time sample (2 SCS Groups)		
	<i>F</i>	η^2	Observed Power	<i>F</i>	η^2	Observed Power	<i>F</i>	η^2	Observed Power
Within Subjects Effects									
Target	4.46*	.021	.762	15.11***	.308	1.00	12.06***	.251	.999
Emotion	0.02	.000	.052	0.28	.008	.081	0.08	.002	.058
Target x Emotion	11.69	.008	.399	1.55	.043	.386	1.62	.043	.398
Target x SCS	0.91	.013	.359	1.75	.134	.727	0.49	.013	.137
Emotion x SCS	1.59	.022	.415	0.28	.024	.097	1.17	.031	.183
Target x Emotion x SCS	0.87	.012	.394	1.21	.097	.552	0.31	.009	.106
Between Subjects Effects									
SCS	0.42	.006	.133	4.03*	.262	.795	0.11	.003	.062

Note: N = 217 for the Part-time sample and N = 38 for the Full-time sample.

* $p < .05$, *** $p < .001$



Figure 14. *Effect of Workplace Target and Emotion on Selection of Deamplify DMS.*

appears that the selection of “deamplify” as a display rule for sadness does not differ much across target, conversely participants are more likely to “deamplify” for coworkers and subordinates when expressing anger, and less likely to “deamplify” anger when dealing with customers. This provides partial support for *Hypothesis 3g* and *3h* (“deamplify” was more likely to be selected for subordinates and coworkers as compared to supervisors), but not for *Hypothesis 3i* (“deamplify” of sadness did not change across target).

A Target x SCS interaction was approaching significance for the DMS of “express” within the full-time sample. Upon inspection of the graph (see Figure 15), it appears that the selection of “express” as a display rule for those with an independent self-construal does not differ much across target, however employees with an interdependent self-construal are more likely to “express” for coworkers and

subordinates, and less likely to “express” when dealing with supervisors and customers. This provides support for *Hypothesis 5c* (i.e., change in DMS of “express” across target), but not for *5d* or *5e* (“deamplify” and “neutralize” respectively). Again, it is important to remember that alpha was adjusted to .01 to control for Type I errors, and this interaction was only significant at the $p < .05$ level.

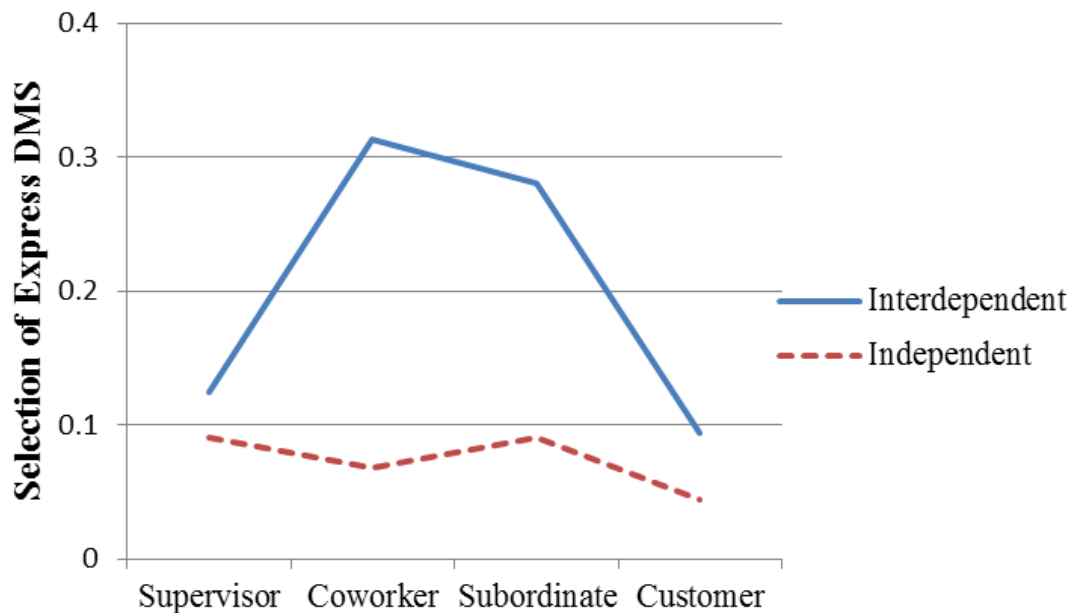


Figure 15. *Effect of Workplace Target and Self-construal on Selection of Express DMS.*

Summary of Results for Research Question 1 and 2

Research Question 1. Overall, Research Question 1 aimed to replicate the results found by Diefendorff and Greguras (2009). The majority of the hypotheses were confirmed for Research Question 1, with a few exceptions. Table 17 includes the predictions and results from the current study for Research Question 1.

Table 17

Results for Research Question 1: Replication of DMS in the workplace.

<i>Hypothesis</i>		<i>Predicted</i>	<i>Results</i>	
			<i>Part-Time</i>	<i>Full-Time</i>
Overall	1a 1b	Neutralize Deamplify	Neutralize	Deamplify Neutralize/Express
Discrete Emotion				
Happiness	2a 2b	Express Deamplify	Express	Express
Anger	2c-d	Neutralize	Neutralize	Deamplify
Sadness	2e-f	Deamplify	Deamplify	Neutralize
Contempt				
Fear	2g-i	Neutralize	Neutralize	Deamplify
Disgust				Neutralize
Specific Target				
Customer	3a	Neutralize	Neutralize Mask	Neutralize
Supervisor	3b 3d	Neutralize Deamplify	Neutralize	Deamplify Neutralize
Coworker	3e	Deamplify	Neutralize Deamplify	Deamplify Neutralize
Subordinate	3c 3f	Neutralize Deamplify	Neutralize	Deamplify Express/Neutralize
Emotion x Target				
Subordinates	3g	Deamplify	Deamplify	
Coworkers	3h	Anger	Anger	<i>ns</i>
Supervisors	3i	Deamplify Sadness	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>

NOTE: *ns* = Non-significant findings.

DMSs overall. It was predicted that, within a work setting, DMSs overall would include “neutralize” and “deamplify” in a work setting. Overall students employed part-time were more likely to indicate that they would “neutralize” their emotion at work, while full-time employees may either “neutralize,” “deamplify,” or “express” their emotion at work.

DMSs across discrete emotions. The examination of display rules within a work setting lead to several predictions across the discrete emotions of happiness, anger, sadness, contempt, disgust, and fear. It was predicted that, within a work setting, DMSs for happiness would include “express” and “deamplify.” Overall, “express” was selected significantly more often than all other DMSs within both work settings. Although “deamplify,” was the next highest DMS in both the part-time and full-time samples, it was not significantly different from “amplify” within the part-time sample and all other DMSs within the full-time sample. Within the part-time sample, participants also indicated that they would show more happiness (i.e., “amplify” was endorsed at a much higher rate in the part-time sample).

It was predicted that, within a work setting, the DMSs for anger and sadness would include “neutralize” and “deamplify.” Participants within both samples selected “neutralize” along with “deamplify” as display rules when they experienced anger. The frequency in which these DMSs were endorsed varied from sample to sample. For example, the extent to which part-time employees indicated “neutralize” and “deamplify” as display rules was very similar. Conversely, within the full-time sample, participants were more likely (although not significantly) to select “deamplify” over “neutralize.” Participants within both samples selected “neutralize” along with “deamplify” as a DMS

when they experienced sadness. Finally, it was predicted that, within a work setting, “neutralize” would be most often selected as a display rule for contempt, fear, and disgust. Within the part-time sample, “neutralize” was selected significantly more often than all other DMSs for contempt, fear, and disgust. Within the full-time sample, “neutralize” and “deamplify” were both selected for contempt, fear, and disgust.

DMSs across specific targets. The examination of display rules within a work setting lead to several predictions across the specific workplace targets of supervisors, coworkers, subordinates, and customers. It was predicted that, within a work setting, “neutralize” and “deamplify” would be selected when interacting with supervisors and subordinates. Within the part-time sample, “neutralize” was selected significantly more often than all other DMSs for both supervisors and subordinates. A different trend was found within the full-time sample, such that “deamplify” was selected most often, followed by “neutralize” and “express” for supervisors and subordinates.

It was predicted that, within a work setting, “neutralize” would be selected as the DMS for customers, which was apparent within both the part-time and full-time samples. “Neutralize” was selected significantly more often than all other DMS, with the exception of “mask” within the part-time sample. “Mask” is similar to “neutralize” where the participant would hide their emotion, but instead then also show a different emotion (i.e., smiling to show happiness). It was predicted that, within a work setting, “deamplify” would be selected most often for coworkers; the results revealed both “deamplify” and “neutralize” were selected across both samples. Interestingly “neutralize” was selected at the highest rate within the part-time sample, while “deamplify” was selected at the highest rate within the full-time sample.

Target by emotion interaction. A target by emotion interaction was found for the DMS of “deamplify” in the part-time sample. This interaction suggested that when students (i.e., part-time sample) felt anger, they were more likely to “deamplify” anger when interacting with a coworker and subordinate as compared to supervisors and customers (“deamplify” was selected least often for customers, when experiencing anger).

Summary of Results for Research Question 2. Overall, Research Question 2 aimed to examine the influence of self-construal on DMSs. The majority of the hypotheses were not confirmed for Research Question 2. Table 18 includes the predictions and results from the current study for Research Question 2.

DMS across social culture. It was predicted that, interdependent and dependent self-construal would predict variability in different sets of DMSs. Although several relationships existed, they were not in accordance with hypotheses. It would appear that the relationship between self-construal and DMS is more complicated than originally proposed. Interdependent self-construal was found to be negatively related to “deamplify,” within the part-time sample and “neutralize” within the full-time sample. A significant positive relationship was found between interdependent self-construal and “express” within the full-time sample. Independent self-construal was found to be positively related to “amplify” within the full-time sample and negatively related to “mask” within the part-time sample.

Target by self-construal interaction. A target by self-construal interaction was predicted and found for the DMS of “express,” within the full-time sample (when examining two Self Construal Scale groups, this interaction was significant at the $p < .05$

Table 18

Results for Research Question 2: What is the Influence of Social Culture on Display Rules?

<i>Hypothesis</i>		<i>DMS Predicted</i>	<i>Results</i>	
			<i>Part-Time</i>	<i>Full-Time</i>
Self-Construal				
Interdependent	4a	Amplify	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>
	4b	Deamplify	Deamplify(-)	<i>ns</i>
	4c	Neutralize	<i>ns</i>	Neutralize(-)
Independent	4d	Express	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>
	4e	Qualify	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>
Self-Construal x Emotions (Anger)				
Interdependent	5a	Deamplify	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>
Independent	5b	Express	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>
Self-Construal x Target				
Interaction	5c	Express	<i>ns</i>	Express
	5d	Deamplify	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>
	5e	Neutralize	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>

NOTE: *ns*: Non-significant findings.

level). These results suggest that employees who have an interdependent self-construal will “express” emotion at different levels, depending on whom they are interacting with. Conversely, those employees with an independent self-construal would “express” emotion at the same levels across different workplace targets. These results were consistent with the predictions, such that individuals with an interdependent self-construal would indicate different display management strategies depending on the work specific target while those with an independent self-construal were less likely to change their display management strategies according to work specific target. This interaction trend was only present in the full-time sample, and for the DMS of “express.”

Research Question 3: What Influence does Culture have on Commitment to Display Rules

Research Question 3 was only analyzed using the full-time sample.

Analysis 6: Moderated multiple regressions. In order to determine the influence of culture on commitment and understand how the different culture measures may predict commitment to display rules (CDR), a moderated multiple regression was performed. Organizational culture (OCEL) and self-construal (separate analyses for interdependent (INT) and independent (IND)) were entered along with the interaction term (OCEL x INT or OCEL x IND), which was entered in the second step in order to determine how the interaction of these terms adds to the predictive value of the equation. Predictor variables were first mean centered prior to the computation of the interaction variable. Evidence of a moderator would include a significant unstandardized beta weight for the interaction term and incremental validity would be demonstrated by a significant change in R^2 . Tables 19 and 20 include results from the moderated multiple

regression analysis for both coworker and customer for interdependent and independent self-construal (Tables 19 and 20 respectively) predicting commitment to display rules.

Interdependent: Coworker. Upon examining regression analysis correlations, it was found that only OCEL and CDR were significantly correlated with each other ($r = .40, p < .01$). This provides support for *Hypothesis 6a*. Moderated multiple regression involved entering Coworker OCEL, and INT in the first model and the interaction term (OCELxINT) in the second model, with Coworker CDR as the dependent variable.

The results (see Table 19) indicated that the first model was significant and all variables in this model explained 16.3% (11.5% adjusted) of the variance in commitment to display rules. Regression coefficients indicated that OCEL was a significant predictor; this indicates that for every one standard deviation increase in organizational culture of display norms, commitment to display rules increases .41 standard deviations.

The second model (with interaction term added) was not significant, although it explained 16.3% (8.9% adjusted) of the variance in commitment to display rules. OCEL remained significant in the second model, and no other variables were significant. The addition of interaction term did not add a significant amount of variance explained to the model (change in R^2 was not significant; see Table 19). There was no evidence of a moderation effect, providing no support for *Hypothesis 6c*.

Interdependent: Customer. Upon examining regression analysis correlations, it was found that only OCEL and CDR are significantly correlated with each other ($r = .32, p < .05$). This provides support for *Hypothesis 3b*. Moderated multiple regression involved entering Customer OCEL, and INT in the first model and the interaction term (OCELxINT) in the second model, with Customer CDR as the dependent variable.

Table 19

Moderated Multiple Regression Analysis for Interdependent Self-construal Predicting Commitment to Display Rules for Coworker and Customer Target

Variable	Coworker					Customer				
	B	SE B	β	R ²	ΔR^2	B	SE B	β	R ²	ΔR^2
Step 1				.163*					.123	
OCEL	.422*	.163	.410			.257	.125	.326		
INT	.066	.242	.043			-.189	.225	-.133		
Step 2				.163	.000				.189	.066
OCEL	.415*	.172	.404			.176	.131	.223		
INT	.067	.246	.044			-.141	.222	-.099		
OCEL x INT	-.051	.367	-.023			-.475	.286	-.278*		

* p < .05.

Table 20

Moderated Multiple Regression Analysis for Independent Self-construal Predicting Commitment to Display Rules for Coworker and Customer Target

Variable	Coworker					Customer				
	B	SE B	β	R ²	ΔR^2	B	SE B	β	R ²	ΔR^2
Step 1				.161*					.158*	
OCEL	.398*	.150	.402			.224	.132	.266		
IND	.049	.234	.032			.315	.195	.255		
Step 2				.214*	.053				.164	.006
OCEL	.473*	.158	.488			.254	.147	.302		
IND	.046	.230	.030			.344	.206	.278		
OCEL x IND	-.662	.438	-.246			-.155	.324	-.088		

*p < .05.

The results (see Table 19) indicated that the regression models were both non-significant; all variables in the first model explained 12.3% (7.3% adjusted) of the variance in commitment to display rules. As for the second model, all variables explained 18.9% (11.7%) of the variance in commitment to display rules. Examination of regression coefficients indicated that OCEL was a significant predictor; this indicates that for every one standard deviation increase in organizational culture of display norms, commitment to display rules increases .33 standard deviations. Organizational culture of emotional labour did not remain significant as a predictor in the second model, and no other predictors were significant. There was no evidence of a moderation effect, disconfirming *Hypothesis 6d*.

Independent: Coworker. Upon examining regression analysis correlations, it was found that only OCEL and CDR were significantly correlated with each other ($r = .40, p < .01$). This once again provides support for *Hypothesis 3a*. Moderated multiple regression involved entering Coworker OCEL, and IND in the first model and the interaction term (OCELxIND) in the second model, with Coworker CDR as the dependent variable.

The results (see Table 20) indicate that the first model was significant and all variables in this model explain 16.1% (11.3% adjusted) of the variance in commitment to display rules. Examination of regression coefficients indicate that OCEL was a significant predictor; this indicates that for every one standard deviation increase in organizational culture of emotional labour, commitment to display rules increases .40 standard deviations. The second model (with interaction term added) was significant and explained 21.4% of the variance (14.4% adjusted) in commitment to display rules.

OCEL remained significant as a predictor in the second model, and no other predictors were significant. The addition of the interaction term did not add a significant amount of variance explained to the model (change in R^2 was not significant; see Table 20). There was no evidence of a moderation effect, disconfirming *Hypothesis 6e*.

Independent: Customer. Upon examining regression analysis correlations, it was found that OCEL and CDR were significantly correlated with each other ($r = .31, p < .05$) and IND and CDR are significantly correlated with each other ($r = .30, p < .05$). This once again provides support for *Hypothesis 3b*. Moderated multiple regression involved entering Customer OCEL, and IND in the first model and the interaction term (OCELxIND) in the second model, with Customer CDR as the dependent variable.

The results (see Table 20) indicated that the first model was significant and all variables in this model explain 15.8% (11% adjusted) of the variance in commitment to display rules. Examination of regression coefficients indicated that no predictors were significant. The second model (with interaction term added) explained 16.4% (9% adjusted) of the variance in commitment to display rules, but was not significant. The addition of the interaction term did not add a significant amount of variance explained to the model (change in R^2 was not significant; see Table 20). There was no evidence of a moderation effect, disconfirming *Hypothesis 6f*.

Summary of Results for Research Question 3

Research Question 3 predicted a positive relationship between organizational culture of emotional labour and commitment to display rules and a moderating relationship, such that self-construal would moderate the relationship between organizational culture of emotional labour and commitment to display rules. The results

of the current study support the relationship between organizational culture of emotional labour and commitment to display rules, but did not confirm the predicted moderation hypotheses. Table 21 includes the predictions and results from the current study for Research Question 3.

Table 21

Results for Research Question 3: What Influence does Culture have on Commitment to Display Rules?

<i>Hypothesis</i>		<i>Predicted for which target</i>	<i>Results</i>
Positive Correlation			
OCEL and CDR	6a	Coworkers	<i>Confirmed</i>
	6b	Customers	<i>Confirmed</i>
Moderation (positive relationship exists for):			
High Interdependent	6c	Coworkers	<i>Not Confirmed</i>
	6d	Customers	<i>Not Confirmed</i>
Low Independent	6e	Coworkers	<i>Not Confirmed</i>
	6f	Customers	<i>Not Confirmed</i>

NOTE: CDR: Commitment to Display Rules; OCEL: Organizational Culture of Emotional Labour; *ns*: Non-significant findings

DISCUSSION

The current study aimed to understand emotional display rules in the workplace by examining these rules across multiple targets and including the role of social culture. This study contributes to research on display rules by replicating previous findings which show that these rules vary by discrete emotions and work specific targets and most often involve “neutralize” and “deamplify.” Display rules also varied by sample underlining the important influence of work status, industry and individual cultural backgrounds. Hypotheses surrounding social culture were not supported, indicating that social culture, as defined by self-construal neither impacts display rules, nor commitment to these rules within these samples.

Research Question 1: Replication of DMS in the Workplace

The current study replicated previous findings, which indicated that display rules vary across discrete emotions and work specific targets. “Neutralize” and “deamplify” were most often selected, especially when experiencing negative emotions (e.g., anger, sadness). Employees were more likely to show no emotion towards external customers (e.g., clients, customers) and were willing to show some their true emotions to their internal customers (e.g., coworkers, supervisors, subordinates). These findings highlight the value of examining how display rules differ across different emotions and workplace targets. Employees will feel a variety of emotions within the workplace, and will experience these emotions towards a variety of different workplace targets. A greater understanding of how these rules will vary can be useful in understanding these specific interactions (e.g., the dialogue between a supervisor and subordinate is directly influenced by the way they share their emotions with each other). Understanding how

these rules change depending on the emotion and target can help us understand the implications of these behaviours within each potential interaction.

“Neutralize” was selected at the highest rate in the part-time sample, while “neutralize,” “deamplify,” and “express” were all selected at high rates within the full-time sample. Diefendorff and Greguras (2009) also found “neutralize” and “deamplify” as the most common display rules selected within their sample, however “express” was selected only 10% of the time (compared to 21% and 23% for the part-time and full-time sample in the current research). “Express” was selected significantly more often than all other DMSs within both work settings for the emotion of happiness. Although “deamplify,” was the next highest DMS in both the part-time and full-time samples, it was not significantly different from “amplify” within the part-time sample and all other DMSs within the full-time sample. These results are somewhat consistent with those found by Diefendorff and Greguras (2009), as their results indicated that “express” and “deamplify” were most often selected. When individuals felt happy, they were most likely to indicate that they should show happiness, followed by (to a much lesser extent) showing less happiness than they actually felt. Diefendorff and Greguras (2009) discussed that even though positive emotions should be expressed, they may also need to be controlled within the workplace, in an attempt to remain professional, avoid appearing arrogant, or acting overly enthusiastic. The use of “deamplify” which may become more apparent when the context of specific emotion, workplace target, and sample differences are examined.

Overall, it is not uncommon that respondents indicated that they would either partially or completely reduce their anger and sadness in the workplace, and these results

are consistent with those found by Diefendorff and Greguras (2009). The results for both anger and sadness are consistent across the part-time and full-time sample. Given the display rule to partially suppress, research has found that there is value attached to partially displaying anger in the workplace in order to demonstrate power or authority (Tiedens, 2001). Partial suppression of sadness in the workplace may also be beneficial, as this can potentially generate sympathy from coworkers (Tiedens, 2001). Anger and sadness can be very strong emotions with much more negative consequences tied to how these emotions are displayed (as compared to happiness).

Within the part-time sample, “neutralize” was selected significantly more often than all other DMSs for contempt, fear, and disgust. Within the full-time sample, “neutralize” and “deamplify” were both selected for contempt, fear, and disgust. In comparison, Diefendorff and Greguras (2009) found “neutralize” to be the most common DMS used for contempt, fear, and disgust, followed by that of “deamplify.” These negative emotions indicate withdrawal and a lack of affiliation within social contexts (Diefendorff & Greguras, 2009). It was not surprising or uncommon that respondents would indicate that the display rule for contempt, anger, and disgust would be to show no emotion, and this finding was apparent across both samples.

Taking results across both samples, findings were aligned with Diefendorff and Greguras (2009) for work specific targets. “Neutralize” was selected for customers, “deamplify” for coworkers, and both DMSs were selected for supervisors and subordinates. This supports the idea that the power hierarchies allow for greater latitude in emotional expression, especially for those within a position of higher power (i.e., dealing with a subordinate; Tiedens, 2001). Anger is an emotion closely associated with

power; these findings suggest that there may be some value in showing some (but not all) of the anger one is experiencing when interacting with people in the workplace who are either of equal or lesser power. In these circumstances showing some anger may help demonstrate their authority in that situation; while demonstrating anger towards someone with more power can place the individual in a dangerous position (e.g., showing anger towards your supervisor might lead your supervisor to get angry and punish you in some way). These results were generalized across both samples and a more nuanced picture appears when examining each sample separately. The part-time sample was more likely to select “neutralize” as opposed to “deamplify” when interacting with supervisors and subordinates, whereas the full-time sample employed both of these DMSs. Although these differences are not consistent with Diefendorff and Greguras, the discrepancies between the samples might explain these findings and these are next discussed in greater detail.

Research Question 1: Differences across Samples

Many of the results replicated findings from Diefendorff and Greguras (2009), however several differences were found across the part-time and full-time samples as full-time employees were more expressive and showed more emotions compared to part-time employees. These findings emphasize the significance of context; the part-time and full-time samples differed across not only work status, but predominant industry and individual culture as well. Display rules may not apply the same way across these contexts and it is beneficial to understand the distinct influences within each unique workplace. Differences in the way display rules are understood and communicated across these contexts have consequences for employers – especially the way they

interpret whether an employee is following their rules and especially how they communicate these rules to their employees to begin with.

The full-time sample was more likely to select a greater variety of DMSs within a work setting (e.g., “neutralize,” “deamplify” and “express”), while the part-time sample most often selected “neutralize.” The part-time sample showed more happiness (i.e., higher rates of “amplify”), while the full-time sample showed more negative emotions (i.e., higher rates of “deamplify” for anger, contempt, fear, and disgust). The trend of the full-time sample “showing more” also followed for the work specific targets, such that the full-time sample was more likely to “deamplify” towards supervisors, subordinates, and coworkers, while the part-time sample would “neutralize.” Both samples “neutralized” when interacting with customers, but the part-time sample also endorsed “mask” as a DMS (i.e., hiding the emotion by showing a difference emotion, such as happiness, as opposed to completely suppressing the emotion).

These differences in results may be due to a number of differences between the two samples. These results suggest that different work environments provide employees with a different set of display rules. Differences may be due to their work status (part-time versus full-time work), the context of the industry (primarily customer service versus white collar office work), or the cultural backgrounds of employees (more diverse cultural backgrounds as compared to a primarily Caucasian full-time sample).

Work status. The discrepancies in display rules may speak to differences that may exist between part-time and full-time employees and the complex environment that develops over time and tenure within the workplace. When part-time workers are employed in jobs that are in line with their experience and education, they are more

satisfied and motivated within that work environment (Feldman & Doerpinhaus, 1992). The part-time employees within the current sample were students, and research has found that part-time students were less likely to have jobs that were in line with their experience and education (Feldman & Doerpinhaus, 1992). These part-time students use work as a means to make money (and consequently do not view their job as part of their career path). Therefore, these employees might not be as satisfied or motivated in their workplace, and potentially will not be motivated to engage in display rules to the same extent as would their full-time counterparts. Research has also demonstrated that employees will be less clear about promises and obligations within the workplace when they spend less time in the workplace (as would part-time employees; Conway & Briner, 2002). These employees may initially believe (due to limited time within the workplace due to limited work hours or limited socialization when they first enter the workplace) that it is always best to “neutralize” their emotion and that the workplace should be void of emotions (consistent with research on how emotions have been historically viewed within the workplace; Mann, 1997). Conversely, full-time employees are presumably working in their career occupation, and as a result will be more satisfied and motivated within the work environment (Feldman & Doerpinhaus, 1992). These employees may also be more motivated to pay attention to the nuances that exist within the work environment. Full-time employees spend more time within the workplace and they will have a greater understanding of the obligations that exist within this environment. Therefore, these employees are more likely to engage in a wider variety of DMSs including “deamplify” and “express” depending on the context of the situation. These

obligations will only be known for employees who are motivated to attend to them and have the time in the workplace to clearly understand what is expected.

Finally, work status is greatly tied to organizational tenure, as employees working within a job that is consistent with their experience or education, are more likely to remain within their organization (Feldman & Doerpinhaus, 1992). Given the older age of the full-time sample, it can be assumed that they have been working for a greater amount of their life, as compared to the part-time sample. This increase in tenure, both career and within an organization, leads to the importance of workplace relationships and the communication that exists to create and maintain positive relationships. Diefendorff and Greguras (2009) discussed how display rules that include partial suppression allow employees to communicate their felt emotions, while still remaining in control of the emotion. “Neutralize” was selected significantly more often than all other DMSs for negative emotions within the part-time sample, while within the full-time sample, “deamplify” was also highly endorsed as a DMS for anger, contempt, fear, and especially disgust (as “deamplify” was selected significantly more often than “neutralize”).

This increased expression of emotion through showing some, but not all of the emotion, did occur within the part-time sample, but only when expressing anger towards targets with equal or less power (i.e., coworkers and subordinates). This interaction did not occur within the full-time sample, still this sample already endorsed higher rates of deamplify across all targets. Given there is value attached to partially displaying anger in the workplace in order to demonstrate power or authority (Tiedens, 2001) this may be viewed, within the part-time sample, as the only time when it is appropriate to show some negative emotions. Within the full-time sample, where the DMS of “deamplify” is much

more common across a variety of situations, it may be an important obligation within the workplace to let your colleagues know when you are upset, so that they have the information necessary to process the situation (e.g., if a coworker is aware that you are feeling fear, it may change their perception of the situation). This deamplification across all targets could also be used to maintain a degree of honesty and candour within these, potentially, longer term relationships. These partial suppression display rules that exist suggest that it is beneficial for participants within the full-time sample to still display some remnants of the emotion that they are feeling, even if the emotion is negative. This is consistent with research by Sias and Cahill (1998), such that full-time employees may transition to become friends with their coworkers and as a result their emotional displays may be less controlled.

Sias and Cahill (1998) examined the development of peer friendships in the workplace. They found that when employees are in the coworker to friend transition, communication is broad, yet fairly superficial. When employees move into the friend to close friend transition, communication becomes less cautious and more intimate. As full-time employees work with their coworkers for longer durations (both in terms of shift length and overall organizational tenure) it is more common that they will proceed along the transition from coworkers to friends, and as a result engage in display management strategies that are less controlled (i.e., less cautious DMSs such as expressing the emotion as it is felt). As relationships develop, full-time employees may soon understand the complexities of the workplace, and abandon their once *neutralize all* rule and begin to endorse other DMSs (such as “deamplify” or even “express,” depending on what information they need to communicate to their coworkers).

Industry. Differences in DMSs across part-time and full-time employees might also be due to the industry that is predominant within each sample. The most common occupations within the part-time sample were in the service industry, including food service workers and sales or cashier. The most common occupations within the full-time sample were white collar office positions including management, legal assistant, and accountant. The industry directly affects the type of work and the type and level of customer interaction. Humphrey (2000) suggests that job characteristics may have such a large effect on display rules, to even outweigh the influence of social norms. For example, given that the part-time sample worked mostly in customer service settings, their performance, sales, and possibly commission is determined by how friendly (i.e., happy) they are perceived to be. To this end, the endorsement of “amplify” as a DMS for happiness within the part-time sample (13%) was much higher than that within the full-time sample (2%). Showing an increased level of happiness has shown to have positive benefits for interpersonal interactions, such that the interaction partner will be more likely to affiliate them, or even become happy themselves (Côté, 2005; Gibson & Schroeder, 2002). In contrast, the full-time sample was comprised of mostly management or office setting occupations, in which dealings with external customers might be less frequent and building trusting, authentic, genuine relationships with coworkers may be more common. Research has found that customers can sense inauthenticity within emotional interactions (Grandey, 2000). The desire and need to facilitate collaborative and productive relationships within the workplace may lead to employees not “faking nice” through amplifying happiness, but instead, showing genuine emotions and display their happiness as they feel it.

Part-time employees may not deal with subordinates to the same extent as the full-time sample (who are engaged in a higher level of management occupations) and as such may not have gained an understanding of the display rules that are appropriate within these workplace situations. Within the current study, the part-time sample indicated they would “neutralize” with subordinates, while the full-time sample indicated “neutralize,” they also indicated “deamplify” and “express” (and at higher levels). The type of work that is performed contains unique characteristics, which may translate to a distinctive context in which specific display rules might be more or less appropriate.

Cultural background. Differences in DMSs across part-time and full-time employees might also be due to the cultural background that made up these two samples. The part-time sample was comprised of two-thirds Caucasian, drawn from a very culturally diverse population; the full-time sample was 95% Caucasian drawn from a largely homogenous population base. The part-time sample, being more diverse, might have different display rules due to their cultural background, or the fact that they may not living within their country of origin. Gullekson and Vancouver (2010) found that international students often indicated that they should display less emotion when in their host culture (i.e., United States of America), even in cases in which the host culture had display rules that allowed for increased emotional displays. Part-time students (potentially due to their cultural background or sojourner status) do not feel that partial suppression is a DMS that they would use within their workplace, while it is a display rule commonly found within the full-time sample. Research on display norms outside of the workplace have also found differences across culture. Safdar et al. (2009) examined

emotional displays across Japan, US and Canada and found that North American norms are less likely to include suppressing power emotions (e.g., anger, contempt, and disgust). Results has also indicated that individualism was related to expressing emotions (Matsumoto et al., 2008). Given the discussion of cultural research, it is important to not use country of origin as a proxy for social culture and instead examine the unique individual level cultural dimensions, which was the goal of Research Question 2.

Research Question 2: No Effect of Self-Construal on Display Rules

Overall, very few differences were found across self-construal; the extent to which employees values themselves and their own goals, versus the goals of the group did not influence the DMSs they selected across a variety of contexts (including discrete emotions and specific workplace targets). Social culture is an important part of individuals and guides many of their behaviours (e.g., ‘Even when I strongly disagree with group members, I avoid an argument’ and ‘speaking up during a meeting is not a problem for me’ are two sample items from the Self-Construal scale); these findings highlight the importance of context in the translation from attitudes and values to behaviours. Although values may be divergent, the resulting behaviour was not – calling into question the other factors that might also influence behaviour. Once the multiple antecedents of behaviour, especially in the workplace, can be further understood, employers can better predict that behaviour (or even guide associates towards the organizationally desired behaviours).

Interdependent and independent self-construal were not significant predictors of the majority of DMSs and the extent to which DMSs were endorsed across target, for the most part, did not vary across self-construal. Within the full-time sample, interdependent

employees are more likely to “express” and less likely to “neutralize,” while independent employees are more likely to “amplify.” Within the part-time sample, interdependent employees are more likely to “deamplify” and independent employees are less likely to “mask.” A clear trend was not evident across different self-construals, especially when examined across different samples and workplace contexts. It may be possible that other factors are important in predicting emotional displays within the workplace.

Self-construal, as measured in the current study, was an assessment of values reflecting how an individual feels about themselves (i.e., values and attitudes) in relations to others. Display management strategies, as measured in the current study, was an assessment of display rules or what employees felt they *should* do in specific situations. This study essentially examined the effect of values (i.e., self-construal) on behavioural intentions (i.e., DMSs). Research within the workplace has often examined the influence of values and attitudes on behaviour, especially given the unique contexts that may exist within the workplace (influences of a team environment, or power differentials on workplace behaviour). It is not clear how values, as measured by self-construal contribute to predicting behaviour above and beyond other important factors. An examination of the transition of values and attitudes to behaviour (applying the theory of planned behaviour) can provide some insight to the influence of self-construal within the present study.

Theory of planned behaviour. The theory of planned behaviour posits that behaviour of an individual is most directly determined by the person’s behavioural intention and these intentions are based on three primary factors: attitude concerning the behaviour (e.g., potential positive or negative outcomes of behaviour), normative support

(e.g., the amount of social pressure regarding performing, or not performing the behaviour), and perceived behavioural control (e.g., the conditions in place that either help or hinder the behaviour; Dawkins & Frass, 2005). Basically, individuals will engage in a behaviour when they evaluate it positively, believe others want them to do it, and they feel that it is not difficult to perform (Sutton, 1998). Dawkins and Frass (2005) used the theory of planned behaviour to examine the decision of union workers to participate in employee involvement and they found that attitudes, normative support, and perceived behavioural control all significantly predicted intentions to support employee involvement programs. Similarly, Ho, Tsai, and Day (2011) successfully applied the theory of planned behaviour to predict participation in training efforts.

The current study addresses the display rules that employees feel exist, that is, what they think they *should* do in a variety of different situations. The theory of planned behaviour can be used to understand the determination of these behavioural intentions, and the lack of influence of social culture. Given the three factors contributing to behavioural intentions, self-construal contributes to their attitude towards the behaviour. Self-construal is the way in which the individual views themselves, relative to other people, and is a combination of their thoughts, feelings, and actions. These thoughts and feeling about their self will influence how they perceive behaviour with varying degrees of positive or negative attributions. Therefore, one aspect of their behavioural intention stems from their view of self; this is evident in the individual items that exist within the self-construal scale. For example, someone who strongly agrees with “I am the same person at home that I am at work,” endorses an independent self-construal and someone who strongly agrees with “Even when I strongly disagree with group members, I avoid an

argument,” endorses an interdependent self-construal. This scale is assessing the individual’s concept of self, in relation to others and behavioural intentions are inherent within these statements. These statements reflect the positive or negative evaluation of the behaviour, but the theory of planned behaviour incorporates two additional factors into behavioural intention.

The second factor involves the normative support for the behaviour. This factor is predicated on the extent of social pressure from other people, that is, their determination of whether the behaviour should or should not be performed (Dawkins & Frass, 2005). Normative support would be very important within the workplace context, as behaviour and performance is evaluated by peers and supervisors. Within the workplace, there is often a correct behaviour and there can be very specific norms for what behaviours should and should not be performed. These norms stem from the organizational culture of the workplace, that is, the shared beliefs on the correct way things are done within the workplace (Schein, 2004). An employee is aware of these norms through socialization and these norms will help guide behaviour within the workplace. For example, employees within a particular workplace may feel that it is important to be open and honest and share your feelings; individuals will then incorporate these norms into their behavioural intentions.

Finally, behavioural intentions are also guided by perceived behavioural control, which is the extent to which the individual feels that they are able to engage in the behaviour with ease (Sutton, 1998). Perceived behavioural control has been shown to be comprised of two different constructs: perceived controllability (i.e., volitional control over performing the behaviour) and self-efficacy (i.e., degree of difficulty in performing

the behaviour; Ajzen, 2001). Employees may or may not have the ability to engage in certain display management strategies, nor may they feel they have a choice or decision in terms of what DMS should be performed. Individuals would need to assess the how often specific factors (e.g., interacting with a supervisor) will help or hinder behaviour (e.g., I can neutralize anger when interacting with my supervisor, *likely–unlikely*) weighted by how the perceived power of that factor to help or hinder behaviour (e.g., Supervisors make neutralizing anger... *easier–more difficult*; Conner & Armitage, 1998).

Overall, there are a multitude of factors that will influence behavioural intentions within the workplace. The employees' self-concept, along with other attitudes, the employees' perception of the norms of the organization, influenced from the organizational culture, and the extent to which they feel they have control over the situation. Given the importance of normative support and perceived behavioural control, it is not surprising that an employee may engage in a behaviour that is contrary to their own self-construal. For example, employees may always opt for behaviour that is seemingly collectivistic (e.g., putting the group before the self), in an attempt to behave in accordance with how they feel those around them would want them to behave (i.e., normative support). Further, if their career ambitions rely on the way in which they behave at work, they may not feel that they have the ability to act in the way they would like (i.e., perceived behavioural control).

Normative support and perceived behavioural control are context dependent, and the importance of context in self-concept has been discussed within self-construal literature. Evidence has also shown that self-construal is bi-dimensional, such that individuals can endorse both the independent and dependent aspects of selves (Kim et al.,

1996; Singelis 1994). Individuals may rely on different aspects of their selves depending on the context in which they are in (e.g., in what situation would an individual rely more on their interdependent self as compared to their independent self). Triandis (1989) conceptualized three aspects of the self: the private self is an assessment of the self by the self (e.g., I am introverted); the public self is an assessment of the self by a generalized other (e.g., people think I am introverted); and the collective self is an assessment of the self by a specific reference group (e.g., my family thinks I am introverted).

An individual within an independent culture would be more likely to have a developed private self, while an individual within an interdependent culture would be more likely to have a developed collective self and these specifics will influence how the individual handles different situations and contexts (Singelis, 1994). Both selves could be developed and the individual may be able to switch between two well-developed self-concepts based on context (e.g., alternating between collectivistic and individualist behaviours depending on the norms of other cultures; Bhawuk & Brislin, 1992). It is clear that context matters, and employees will operate differently under different contexts. Within the workplace, employees may call more on their collective self (with their work colleagues being the reference group) or alternate between selves based on the norms of the workplace.

Given the theory of planned behaviour, and the importance of context in determining behavioural intent, individuals with an independent self-construal, may engage in similar strategies to those with interdependent self-construal. This switching between selves may be due to the norms of the culture in which they are operating, based on their overall goals and the best means to accomplish these goals. This *instrumental*

collectivistic behaviour, that is, acting against one's values depending on the context of the situation to attain specific goals, has been examined more directly within the union context.

Instrumental collectivistic behaviour. Industrial relations literature has focused on the concepts of individualism and collectivism as they are related to the union environment (Healy, Bradley, & Mukherjee, 2004). Individualism is termed more specifically as *atomistic individualism*, such that the individual pursues their own goals without concern for others, and the goals of others (Fox, 1985). Collectivism is defined as *instrumental collectivism*, such that individuals are still concerned with self-interest, but believe it is best to act with others in order to achieve these goals (i.e., collective action will deliver better results; Fox, 1985). Other researchers have extended this dichotomy to include *solidaristic collectivist*, an individual that truly believes in the goals of the union, beyond any benefits they will receive personally (Healy, et al., 2004). Again, these terms are specific to the union context, such that the focus is on attitudes towards the union and the extent to which they participate in the union to achieve goals (both individual and collective goals).

These terms can be extended to the greater workplace, especially considering the collective environment and dual obligations that exist between employee and employer. Independent people value themselves and their own personal gains (Markus & Kitayama, 1991); these gains, specific to the workplace, may include wealth power, and recognition. An employee may evaluate several ways to accomplish these individualistic goals. They may determine that in order to achieve these goals, they need to engage in seemingly collectivistic behaviours (e.g., adapt their reactions to those around them, follow rules

within the organization, and be a team play in order to develop relationships) as these behaviours will deliver greater results in contributing to their achievement of these goals. For the independent employee, the behaviours that appears collectivistic may have some utility towards reaching their personal goals. It is unclear whether employees engage in instrumental collectivistic behaviours as a means to accomplish their goals, or if they elect to rely on a different self, given the collective work context. What is clear is that the work context introduces several factors into the way in which employees engage in behaviour within that context.

Research Question 3: Effect of Organizational Culture on Commitment to Display Rules

The results from the current study suggest that if an employee is aware of the organizational norms for emotion displays within the workplace, he/she will be more committed to displaying these rules. Display rules are rules put forth by the organization and the organizational culture is often the mechanism in which these rules are delivered to employees. It is important the organization is delivering not only the information around the rules themselves, but also the organizational norm to engage in and follow these rules. Given the importance of the specific workplace targets, measures assessing these rules were adapted for the current study to examine expectations towards customers and coworkers separately. Although all correlations were medium in size, the relationships between the coworker measures were slightly stronger than those of the customer measures. Another important finding is the consideration of the ways in which employees understand what is meant by “organizationally desired emotional displays.” For example, within the full-time sample, approximately 41% of participants indicated

that they were aware of emotions that they are expected to display on the job within their organization. Over one half of respondents are *not* aware of the expectation to display organizationally desired emotions within the workplace. When participants were asked about display rule perceptions (within the organizational culture of emotional labour scale) they responded in agreement (mean score of 3.4 and 3.8 on a five point scale for coworkers and customers respectively). Participants who indicated that they were not aware of these emotional display expectations, still responded to the commitment to display rules scale (which included questions like “I am committed to displaying the organizationally desired emotions on the job,” and “Quite frankly, I don’t care if I display the organizationally desired emotions on the job or not”).

Given these responses, it might not be clear exactly how employees gain the knowledge about display rules (i.e., organizationally desired emotions), and the extent to which employees feel that these rules are dictated by the organization. Employees may engage in these display rules, inherently based on the same emotion regulation strategies they use outside of the workplace, and not attribute these rules to the organizational culture within their workplace. Workplace behaviours will be reinforced or rewarded, and the commitment to follow display rules may be based on the pattern of rewards that have been observed within the workplace. The commitment to display rules may be due to the presumed consequences of these actions and employees may still be follow these rules, even if they not sure where the rules originated from.

This lack of understanding about display rules in the workplace is also evidenced by the open-ended questions asking how the employee became aware of these rules. Of those employees who indicated they were aware of the norm to display organizationally

desired emotions within the workplace, several discussed an overall attitude that is expected (friendly, polite, be positive, etc.), while others talked about specific instances where these norms were discussed (regular staff meetings, training, mission statement, etc.). It is clear that organizational norms can be present in formal and informal instances, but what is not clear is how the employee understands what these norms are and how they relate to their own behaviour (e.g., are employees truly aware of organizational norms within the workplace, and is awareness and understanding of these norms necessary for employees to be committed to these rules?).

Research Question 3: No Effect of Self-Construal on Commitment to Display Rules

Relationships did exist between organizational culture of emotional labour and commitment to display rules, however self-construal was not related to these measures, nor did it serve as a moderator. The extent to which an employee values their own goals versus the goals of the group did not influence their commitment to follow the display rules put forth within the organization. It seems counterintuitive that employees with seemingly divergent values would engage in similar behaviours within the workplace, however the previous discussion regarding the theory of planned behaviour and instrumental collectivistic behaviour may also be relevant here.

The self-construal of the individual did not influence the relationship, as their behaviour was dependent on multiple factors, such as normative supports and perceived behavioural control or was collectivistic in appearance, but not intent (i.e., the intent was to accomplish a goal of self-interest). The workplace context is an important influencing factor on the way values translate into behaviour, and why employees engage in specific behaviours (or more specifically, to what end?). The values inherent within an

employee's self-construal did not affect the relationship between organizational culture of emotional labour and commitment to display rules. These measures focused on behaviours, and employees may engage in behaviours that appear to not be congruent with their values, especially when they 1) feel that important others would want to them to behave this way, 2) it is easy to perform this behaviour, and/or 3) it is in their best interest to act accordingly.

Theoretical Implications

Overall the results of this study indicate two important conclusions regarding display rules: 1) context is very influential, and 2) values do not always directly translate into behaviours. The importance of context, specifically related to workplace targets has not been a central theme within emotional labour research. Display rules may vary depending on the target of the interaction and these findings have implications for the way display rules are examined and understood within the literature. Specifically, researchers should always consider the target of emotional labour when conducting research studies. Scales that are developed to assess emotional labour and display rules should be adapted to precisely define the target of the labour. Often this distinction is not made and results are focused solely on the external customer. Differences in display rules across internal and external customers were evident within the current study, and future studies should ensure they specify the target in their research and methodology order to have a more clear understanding of the relationships between the variables within their study. The majority of the results of the current study were consistent with Diefendorff and Greguras (2009) and serve to further validate the DRAI measure of display rules within the workplace. The DRAI can be a valuable instrument to examine

both discrete emotions and specific workplace targets; researchers should not only consider the use of this measure, but also reflect on alternative ways to use the information from this measure (e.g., alternative coding measures) to answer important research questions. For example, alternative strategies could include coding the DMSs along a continuum of expressivity or incorporating the baseline “alone” responses within the analysis.

Beyond the replication of previous research and increased understanding of display rules across emotion and target, the current study also provides a greater understanding of the role social and organizational culture plays in these workplace interactions. Differences across independent and interdependent values did not result in differences across emotional display rules and the theory of planned behaviour can be used as a guiding theory to provide a direct examination of how independent and interdependent values can be directly mapped onto behaviours. The workplace is an important contextual variable to consider when conducting research in this environment. Researchers should use the theory of planned behaviour to understand how values can translate into behaviour within the workplace. The important factors within this theory are the individual attitude toward the behaviour, normative support, and perceived behavioural control. Research examining display rules should incorporate all of these factors in order to have a comprehensive understanding of the resulting behaviour. Theories of emotional labour and research examining display rules should especially include an investigation into the normative support that exists within the organization for these role requirements. Further, organizational culture is an important construct that is not often examined within the emotional labour literature. The norms put in place by the

organization are what create and enforce display rules, and an omission of this factor leaves out important information. Organizational culture is also essential to the understanding of how display rules are created, maintained, and communicated within the workplace and therefore organizational culture should also be included an important construct.

As research moves forward, it is valuable to draw from other areas, such as industrial relations and union research, in order to further understand display rules and the translation of values to behaviours. Instrumental collectivistic behaviour is a classification that has not been used widely within the literature, and its use has been isolated to research within a union context. Emotion research, especially display rules could greatly benefit from this nuanced view of self-concept. Research should examine instrumental collectivistic behaviours outside the context of union environments, to determine if instrumental collectivistic behaviours (as performed by individualistic employees) and purely collectivistic behaviours (as performed by collectivistic employees) have different intentions and outcomes.

Research examining this classification could employ qualitative research methods to delve into the reasons why employees may engage in behaviours that are counter to their values. Interviews could reveal the intentions behind workplace behaviours for both independent and interdependent employees. In a similar vein, researchers could then explore the outcomes of these behaviours and determine if the end goal is the same across employees with different values. Examination of the end goal (e.g., promotion and other rewards for workplace performance) can potentially answer the question '*does the end truly justify the means?*' and determine if the answer to this question is the same across

employees with different who endorse different a self-construal (but yet engaged in the same behaviour to achieve the end). Employees often engage in behaviours that they do not want to, due to the organizational pressure present within the workplace (e.g., being rewarded for being a good “team player”). Research should continue to examine instrumental collectivistic behaviours not only to understand the intent behind these behaviours, but also to understand the potential consequences of engaging in them.

Emotional labour and display rule research could also benefit from research on psychological contracts. Psychological contracts have been used to try to explain differences between part-time and full-time workers. Display rules are strongly tied to workplace obligations, as these rules are obligations put in place by the organization. Workplace obligations from both the organization and the employee are the foundations of the psychological contract (i.e., the beliefs an individual holds concerning the implicit terms of an agreement between the individual and the organization; Rousseau, 2000). Conway and Briner (2002) conducted a study that attempted to explain some of the inconclusive findings regarding attitudes of part-time and full-time workers. They felt these differences were due to the way employees within each group perceives themselves to be treated and employed the psychological contract as a theoretical framework. They found that psychological contract fulfillment (i.e., the extent to which organizational promises are kept) mediated the relationship between work status and workplace outcomes (e.g., the relationship between work status and job satisfaction and intention to quit was due to fulfillment of the psychological contract) for one of their two samples (full and partial mediation was found for their bank sample, but not their supermarket sample). Given these differences, these authors contend that the psychological contract

has some utility in examining these employment relationships, but they also call for more rigorous research.

These authors examined psychological contract fulfillment on the side of the employer (e.g., opportunities for promotion, flexibility of work hours), however, employee obligations (e.g., showing up to work on time, levels of engagement) are more directly related to display rules within the workplace. Display rules are rules dictated by the employer and the extent to which employees fulfill these obligations (employee fulfillment), may also differ across work status (just as employer fulfillment helped explain differences across part-time and full-time workers). The examination of contract fulfillment on the side of the employee, in association with display rules, and the implications for emotional labour is another avenue for future research.

Given the outcome of interest within Research Question 3 was commitment to display rules, or rather, commitment to follow through on employee obligations, consideration and application of the psychological contract would also be valuable here. Determination of employee fulfillment (i.e., the extent to which employee fulfill their commitments to the organization) could be examined across organizational culture of emotional labour and commitment to display rules. Examination of the specific predictors of employee fulfillment would also be valuable for employers to understand what leads to employees following through on their obligations to their employer. For example, it would be of interest to determine if organizational culture of emotional labour and commitment to display rules together predict employee fulfillment, such that employees must be aware of the rules, and committed to them, to follow through with these obligations.

Practical Implications

These results met an existing need in the literature by examining display rules across a variety of workplace contexts. It is necessary to understand how display rules change across contexts and the role social culture plays (or rather *does not play*) in order to gain a better theoretical understanding of these constructs, and to also provide managers and employers with the means to improve the workplace. In particular, these results can help organizations better understand communication within the workplace, especially given that such a large amount of communication is non-verbal (e.g., emotional cues and non-verbal gestures). The current study demonstrated that employees will engage in different display management strategies depending on what emotion they are feeling and who they are interacting with. This information allows managers to more easily identify the actual emotion an employee may be experiencing, which may, in turn, enhance communication and interpersonal interactions within the workplace. Employees who experience an interpersonal problem due to poor communication may spend their time ruminating over this interaction, discussing or gossiping about the interaction with other coworkers, and they may have a difficult time focusing on their work. A greater understanding of display rules (and how they differ across context and target) can help managers and employees identify emotions and given this information, improve both workplace communications and interpersonal interactions. These improvements can then lead to a more productive workplace as employees will then spend more of their time on their work, in a much more focused and less distracted way.

Social norms can be difficult to maintain because they change and evolve over time; managers should examine how these norms change and be aware of the influence of

these changes on employees. Given the potential for change in social norms, it is increasingly important that managers take the necessary steps to understand display rules. For example, social norms will change with the influence of different technology (Humphrey, 2000). New technology will not only change the job characteristics of a role (e.g., advances in technology increased the complexity of a typist role to include file management, creating reports and brochures, and even using graphics programs; Humphrey, 2000), but also the way in which employees communicate with each other. The advent of email allowed employees to communicate with their colleagues in a way that removes an in-person interaction. This personal interaction is an important part of display rules, and the influence of technology creates new ways of communicating emotion within the workplace (i.e., through email and instant messages). Advances in technology will produce changes in communication and job characteristics within the workplace and these changes will affect display rules (both how they are understood and demonstrated). As the workplace grows and changes, managers will need to deal with corresponding changes that will occur regarding display rules.

Managers should not only be aware of the types of display rules that are present within their workplace, they should also manage these rules (communicate these display rules to their employees). Using the current findings, workshops could be developed describing the typical display management strategies to provide employees with a better understanding of the role emotions play within workplace interactions. A workshop could also provide strategies for identifying emotions and awareness of the influence of target (e.g., an employee can understand how their supervisors and subordinates will interact with them differently in terms of how they manage their emotion during these

interactions). These strategies could focus on enhancing interpersonal skills through a reduction in miscommunication, such that through the proper identification of emotions, incorrect assumptions about how the other person is feeling would be avoided. For example, the current showed that “deamplify” was one of the most common DMSs endorsed; this is important as this DMS allows part of the true emotion to show and communicates that information to the target. A greater understanding of the strategy to “deamplify” can help employees how to better understand and analyze interpersonal interactions within the workplace. Enhanced interpersonal skills and a reduction in miscommunication will lead to a more productive and less disruptive workplace. The workplace will be more productive as employees will have a clear understanding of their assignments and instead of spending the time trying to decipher a misunderstanding, they will focus on their work tasks. The workplace will be less disruptive as improved communication will lead to a reduction in workplace issues, conflict, and arguments. A reduction in workplace conflict can also lead to more satisfied employees who will be less likely to leave the workplace.

The importance of context within the current study also provides managers with the tools to understand how the work status, industry, or cultural backgrounds within their workplace influence attitudes and behaviour at work. Just as researchers have focused on segmenting their employees into different generations (e.g., babyboomers, generation x, millennials) and determining their specific needs, wants, and motivators, managers should also recognize that there are other important segments within the workplace. Research has revealed a clear distinction between part-time and full-time employees in terms of workplace attitudes and behaviour (Feldman, 1990), and the

differences that existed across the two samples in the current study underscore these findings.

An awareness of how work status and industry can influence workplace norms (such as display rules) should lead managers to tailor socialization programs specific to these groups. For example, by focusing on the differences across work status, managers might be able to focus on one set of specific norms for part-time employees, and another set of norms can be emphasized for full-time employees. Through the awareness and understanding of how work status can influence attitudes and behaviour within the workplace, managers can tailor norms, programs, and workshops to these groups in a way that will help these groups be more productive (through improved communication and interpersonal skills). The differences that exist across these groups might also demand a different means of communication regarding these norms; this communication is most often accomplished through the organizational culture.

This study emphasizes the importance of understanding not only the organizational culture of emotional labour within the organization, but how this culture is created, maintained, and understood by employees. Organizational culture underlies many attitudes and behaviours within the organization, and proper socialization can accentuate cultural norms and ensure that employees are committed to following display rules. The current study showed a relationship between organizational culture and commitment to display rules. Yet this work also demonstrated that employees may indicate that they are not aware of these rules, and then endorse several items on other scales that indicate the contrary. Organizations should make efforts to understand their culture, and how it is dictated to and understood by their employees. Taking a proactive

step and embracing their organizational culture might result in organizations that have a clear path between the awareness of and the commitment to display rules.

The most important work an organization can do is to acknowledge their culture, strive to create a culture that is reflective of their core values, and ensure that they do everything with this culture in mind. While gaining a full understanding of an organization's culture is a daunting task, it is of the utmost importance for organizations to focus on their culture, as their culture will then become the guiding light for all of their decisions. Alignment between the organizational culture and decision strategies provides employees with one consistent message, especially when regarding how to act and behave. A consistent message will reduce confusion, ambiguity, and potential frustration on the part of the employee. This message will also communicate the goals and purpose of the organization and what is expected of each employee. When employees work within an environment that provides this consistent communication they will then make decisions that are in line with the overall company objectives. An organization that is united in terms of their overall goals, will be a more successful and productive organization. Organizational culture is not easy to establish or change, but it is very important that managers create the culture they want, instead of having to deal with the culture they have.

Limitations and Future Directions

Cross-sectional cohort design. The current study employed a cohort design to examine the research questions across both students who are entering the workplace for the first time (and in very limited roles) and full-time workers who have been in the workplace for a few years. The advantage of this design is the ability to examine

differences across these different cohorts. Within the current study the two cohorts were drawn from very different contexts (different provinces, different city sizes, different cultural backgrounds). Future research should try to isolate these contextual factors to determine which variables could be responsible for differences across the two samples. The small sample size for the full-time sample also limits the generalizability of this study. Several analyses had large effect sizes and adequate power; however future research should aim to replicate the differences found within and across the two cohorts within the current study. Sample size was very different across the two samples, and future research would want to employ a stratified sampling method to identify organizations across several industries and cultures, and ensure that adequate and equal samples sizes could be obtained across all variables (including work status).

The differences in these two samples might also be influenced by the sampling procedure. The part-time sample participated in the study to earn bonus points for university course work, while the full-time sample participated only if they were interested and motivated to do so. These differences in sampling may have contributed to the differences found within the results. The part-time students may have just participated to earn their bonus points and answered in a manner that they felt was expected. Conversely, the full-time sample had the motivation and desire to participate and would likely have provided more truthful responses. This may have resulted in more socially desirable results within the part-time sample (e.g., neutralize always), compared to more authentic results within the full-time sample (e.g., deamplify instead of neutralize negative emotions).

The current design does not allow the study of how display rules develop and change over time within the same sample. The cohort study allow for certain inferences over time (as each sample was in a different career stage), although the differences between the populations from which the samples were drawn limits the generalizability of these results. Future studies should examine these constructs over time through a longitudinal design. Such a design could follow students through their first experiences within the workplace (limited part-time employment), and follow them through their working career to a full-time employee. This design, although very ambitious, could also examine the socialization process of new employees as they enter a workplace and examine their perceptions of display rules at the beginning of this process. Research could then follow their socialization process and determine any changes in these perceptions within the workplace over time and tenure. Finally, several research questions within the currents study were only examined within the full-time sample (e.g., organizational culture and commitment to display rules). Future research should explore these relationships at all stages within an employee's career.

Given the findings of this research, and the sampling design, it would also be interesting to know if the differences are due to the cohort effect, or to some other third variable (e.g., demographic, economic, or job specific differences of the context from which the sample was drawn). Work status was highly associated with age, as the mean age within the part-time sample was 23 compared to a mean age of 38 within the full-time sample. Within the current study, age was not significantly correlated with the majority of DMSs, and due to the inconsistency with which it was related to the dependent variables, it was not included in the analysis as a covariate. Future studies

would want to separate the effect of age from the effect of tenure to completely understand the role these factors play in workplace display rules.

Gender would also be expected to be related to emotional displays, for example, research has shown that people expect different emotions from men and women . For example, it has been found that men are expected to not modify their emotion, but show exactly what they are feeling, while women are expected to express or amplify positive emotions across all situations; (Mann, 2007). Gender was only related to the strategies of express (females expressed more than males) and neutralize (males neutralized more than females) within the part-time sample (see Table 9), supporting previous research. However due to the inconsistency with which gender was related to the expression of emotion across levels of the independent variable, it was also deemed not appropriate to include as a covariate.

Both samples were drawn from very specific industries and occupations (service work and office work for the part-time and full-time samples respectively). The results of the current study are therefore limited to these industries and the emotional labour requirements that may exist therein. For example, service work does require a higher level of emotional labour, due to the increased interactions with the client; office work may require a different amount of emotional labour, and this may exist during interpersonal interactions. Other occupations may have much different level of emotional labour. Doctors, nurses, and even debt collectors are required to engage in emotional labour within a highly emotional environment. Again, a focus on external customers is assumed within these contexts, concerning emotional labour. Future research should examine display rules across different targets within these occupations. For example, a

debt collect must maintain emotional control on the phone, but what is the implication of this heightened emotional regulation on the rest of their workplace interactions. Is more expression allowed, given they must always regulate on the phone? Research needs to focus on the internal customer to fully understand the impact of working in a highly emotional environment.

Self-report data and common method variance. The current study employed self-report measures in order to acquire the necessary data. There are several problems associated with this method, including the potential bias associated with self-report data (social desirability) and common method variance. Although the self-report data represents only a limited view into these constructs, for the display rules (i.e., DRAI), the individual is the most appropriate person to answer these questions. This measure asks how the respondent feels they *should* respond in each of these situations, and it is this variability on what the display rules are within the workplace that is of interest. The other measures within the current study (OCEL, CDR, SCS, and workplace measures of job satisfaction and intention to stay) also rely on self-report measures. It is again the employee's perspective that is of interest, especially concerning organizational norms and their commitment to these norms.

In order to resolve any issues related with the single source method of the current study, future research should obtain information from multiple sources. Supervisor ratings and other more objective data should be obtained. For example, supervisors could give ratings regarding an employee's awareness of and commitment to organizational norms based on their behaviour. Absenteeism data (missed days of work, and productivity through performance appraisals) could also provide information regarding

an employee's job satisfaction and intention to stay. An additional method strategy could employ a more experimental design in which employees are asked about their emotions and emotional displays directly following an incident (either created within a laboratory, or a more observational study within the workplace).

Closely tied to the issues associated with self-report data is common method variance. This issue is related to the extent to which variability explained within the current analysis represents actual differences among constructs, or variance that is common due to the similar measurement strategies employed. Researchers have suggested common method variance may not be as big of a problem as once assumed (Spector & Brannick, 2010). Future research should not only measure these constructs from multiple sources, but also include ways to measure and account for measurement error (i.e., within structural equation modeling, measurement error can be modeled and correlated in order to determine the extent to which common method variance exists).

Levels of analysis and quantitative design. The current study aimed to examine behaviours in the workplace (i.e., display rules) and investigated differences across values (i.e., self-construal). While this provides interesting information, a limitation of the current study is that actual behaviours were not measured, only behavioural intent, and differences across values were examined, instead of tying those behaviours to values (which behaviours represent interdependent values as opposed to independent values).

The translation of values to behaviours within the workplace introduces the need for a more nuanced measure. To begin, how can researchers tap into the values of an individual (and how they perceive themselves), and the behaviours an individual engages in (and how they feel this behaviour benefits themselves and others). The current study

measured values in terms of self-construal, but examined differences in terms of behaviour (i.e., what DMS would you select). It is important to examine differences across values, but a follow up on how these values translate into behaviours would also add to the current literature, especially with a focus on applying the theory of planned behaviour. An application of this theory would require an assessment of the influence of normative support and perceive behavioural control, and the combined influence of these factors on behavioural intention. Research should also examine how and when there can be a disconnect between the values an individual holds and the behaviours they actually engage in. This research should determine under what context individuals engage in behaviours that are in contrast to their values, and to what extent does the individual recognize, explain, or reconcile this potential dissonance. It may be the case that the disconnect that appears to be between values and behaviours is actually not perceived as a disconnect by the individual. The measure of self-construal was also examined using a median split; a median split can reduce the variability within a variable and consequently contribute to a loss of power. Future research modeling the theory of planned behaviour, within the context of self-construal and organizational display rules should take all efforts to avoid this loss in variability.

These limitations also stem from the quantitative data that were collected within the current study. To that end future research should also employ qualitative designs which can directly examine employees' values and how these values can translate to different behaviours, but also how the perceived understanding of emotional labour and the implicit display rules go along with these workplace norms. Within these studies, researchers could determine the process employees take in determining what display

rules are present within their organization, how context can influence these rules, and how their personal values can influence their workplace behaviours (e.g., when would someone “deamplify” as opposed to “neutralize” for negative emotions such as contempt, fear, disgust; and when would someone with an independent self-construal engage in instrumental collectivistic behaviour – or would they even view this behaviour as collectivistic).

Alternative data analysis techniques would also be valuable in replicating these results, given the violation of several assumptions with the current study. The majority of the analyses were robust to these violations, however given that these analyses were conducted under non-ideal conditions, replication of this study would be important to validate the current study’s findings. Other methods of examining the DRAI (beyond the coding strategy taken in the current study) could potentially result produce normal and more homogeneous data. In addition to the violation of assumptions, replication of the current study would also be beneficial given that the self-construal measure had lower than ideal reliabilities. Future research should continue to examine self-construal using the Self-Construal Scale (Singelis, 1994) within a workplace context, but also consider other measures that might also be valuable in examining the influence of social culture within the workplace.

There are several disadvantages with the DRAI that future research should explore. For example, there is a dependence within the DRAI such that certain DMSs are more likely to be used for specific emotions (e.g., amplify happiness) and the frequency with which mask and qualify were endorsed suggest that either these rules are not common, or they are not clearly understood by the participant. Further, this scale does

not allow for situations in which no emotion is felt, but a specific emotion should be expressed (e.g., a supervisor feeling apathy towards a subordinate's negative actions and they need to display a certain level of anger to indicate disapproval of the situation).

Future research should continue to evaluate the DRAI, but also consider other assessments of display rules in the workplace. An extension of this research would also be to incorporate the constructs of surface and deep acting (modifying expression or modifying feelings). The display management strategies can be accomplished in multiple ways, and it would be valuable to not only understand what these rules are, but how employees follow them. Alternative data analysis techniques, coding strategies, and even different measures would help determine the extent of the robustness of the results found within the current study.

Conclusions

Employees will feel a variety of emotions within the workplace, and they will experience these emotions towards a variety of different workplace targets, under a multitude of different contexts. The current study replicated previous research that demonstrated that workplace display rules vary across discrete emotions and work specific targets. Further, the display rules differed across the part-time and full-time samples, suggesting that work status, industry and/or individual culture also plays a role in the determination of workplace display rules. It is beneficial to understand the distinct influences on display rules, as emotions and emotion regulation are a large part of communication within the workplace. Understanding how display rules differ across context can help managers and employees identify emotions which can lead to improvement in communication, and consequently interpersonal interactions. These

improvements can then lead to create a more productive work environment with more satisfied employees.

Social culture was another contextual variable investigated within the current study, however this individual culture variable did not influence the display rules selected or commitment to follow these display rules. There are many factors that influence an employee's behaviours within the workplace, and the theory of planned behaviour highlights the importance of individual attitudes, normative support and perceived behavioural control. The work context itself also introduces several factors into the way in which employees engage in behaviour within the work environment. This context may result in employees engaging in behaviours that are not in line with their self-construal, due to the belief that other, more collectivistic, behaviours will deliver greater results in the achievement of their end goals.

The norms put in place by the organization are what create and enforce display rules; organizational culture underlies many attitudes and behaviours within the organization, and proper socialization can accentuate cultural norms and ensure that employees are committed to following display rules. A focus on how organizational culture is created, maintained, and understood by employees can also help organizations ensure consistent communication of what behaviours are expected within the workplace. Only through this consistent message can organizations gain the support and commitment of their employees and therefore ensure that the organization is united in terms of their overall goals.

It may be valuable for researchers and organizations to think of the workplace as a game; a game that would not exist without the *players*, the *teams*, and the *rules*. The

players within the workplace include both internal and external customers. It is important that internal customers are not forgotten; these customers need to get enough “game time” – especially in research. When thinking about who plays for what team, it is important to consider that part-time and full-time employees may represent two different teams. The implication of their allegiance is different motivations, goals, and potentially even different strategies to accomplish their goals. In addition, like many games, employees may not like the rules, but they need to follow them if they want to play. To that end, organizational culture is the referee who enforces these rules, however, it is a referee that no one can physically see. Due to the implicit nature of these rules, employers need to actively determine what these rules are, especially to ensure that these rules are aligned with the overall goals and values of the organization. Overall, when examining display rules and emotional labour, if researchers and organizations keep the *players*, the *teams*, and the *rules* at the forefront, research will not only be more thorough, but the applications more directly profitable.

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APPENDIX B

Relevant Workplace Outcomes

Job Satisfaction

How satisfied are you with your job in general?

- 1 - Very Dissatisfied
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5 - Very Satisfied

Turnover Intentions

How much do you agree with the following statements:

	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3	4	5 Strongly Agree
I will probably look for a new job in the near future	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
At the present time, I am actively searching for another job in a different organization	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I do not intend to quit my job (R)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is unlikely that I will actively look for a different organization to work in the next year (R)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am not thinking about quitting my job at the present time (R)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

APPENDIX C

Display Rule Assessment Inventory – Workplace

Instructions

We are studying how people express their emotions in different work situations. On each page is a description of a situation where you are interacting with someone you work with and feel certain emotions toward that person. **Please think of a specific person in your work life for each of the situations and tell us what you think you should do by selecting one of the seven possible responses that are listed.** If you want to choose a response not listed, select “OTHER” and write in what you think you should do. If you don't have such a person in your life indicated in the situations, please first make your best guess on what you think you should do. If you find that it is too difficult to do so, please check ‘not applicable’. Treat each emotion and each situation separately. Do not consider them occurring in any particular order or to be connected with each other in any way. There are no right or wrong answers, nor any patterns to the answers. Don't worry about how you have responded to a previous item or how you will respond to an item in the future. Just select a unique response for each emotion and situation on its merit. Don't obsess over any one situation and emotion. If you have difficulty selecting an answer, make your best guess; oftentimes your first impression is best. For a definition of each emotion, please see below.

Example:

What do you believe you SHOULD do if you are interacting with:
a supervisor... at work and you feel the following emotions toward them:

1. Anger (select one) Show more than you feel it
 Express it as you feel it
 Show less than you feel it
 Show it but with another expression
 Hide your feelings by showing nothing
 Hide your feelings by showing something else
 None of the above (please specify) _____

For this question, you should think of a situation in which you are with your supervisor at work and you feel anger and then choose how you should express your anger using the responses listed below.

List of Six Emotions and their Definitions

ANGER: A feeling of displeasure resulting from injury, mistreatment, opposition, and usually showing itself in a desire to fight back at the supposed cause of this feeling.

Example: The person is waiting in line at the post office for a very long time. The person finally reaches the window, when the clerk announces that there is only time for one more customer. The person is then pushed aside when someone cuts in front to take the person's turn.

CONTEMPT: A feeling or attitude of one who looks down on somebody or something as being low, mean, or unworthy.

Example: The person hears an acquaintance bragging about accomplishing something for which the acquaintance was not responsible.

DISGUST: A sickening distaste, or dislike.

Example: The person steps in dog feces, reaches down to wipe it off, and feces get on the person's hand.

FEAR: A feeling of anxiety and agitation caused by the presence or nearness of danger, evil, or pain.

Example: The person has realized that the brakes don't work while driving down a steep hill. The car approaches the end of the road, which is a cliff with no barrier. The person tries to brake and veers out of control.

HAPPINESS: Having a feeling of great pleasure, contentment, joy.

Example: The person sees many close friends at a party.

SADNESS: Having low spirits or sorrow.

Example: The person remembers the time last year when a young child died of a terminal illness.

What do you **believe you SHOULD** do if you are:
ALONE...at **home** and you feel the following emotions *toward yourself*:

Anger (select one) Show more than you feel it
 Express it as you feel it
 Show less than you feel it
 Show it but with another expression
 Hide your feelings by showing nothing
 Hide your feelings by showing something else
 None of the above (please specify) _____

Contempt (select one) Show more than you feel it
 Express it as you feel it
 Show less than you feel it
 Show it but with another expression
 Hide your feelings by showing nothing
 Hide your feelings by showing something else
 None of the above (please specify) _____

Disgust (select one) Show more than you feel it
 Express it as you feel it
 Show less than you feel it
 Show it but with another expression
 Hide your feelings by showing nothing
 Hide your feelings by showing something else
 None of the above (please specify) _____

Fear (select one) Show more than you feel it
 Express it as you feel it
 Show less than you feel it
 Show it but with another expression
 Hide your feelings by showing nothing
 Hide your feelings by showing something else
 None of the above (please specify) _____

Happiness (select one) Show more than you feel it
 Express it as you feel it
 Show less than you feel it
 Show it but with another expression
 Hide your feelings by showing nothing
 Hide your feelings by showing something else
 None of the above (please specify) _____

Sadness (select one) Show more than you feel it
 Express it as you feel it
 Show less than you feel it
 Show it but with another expression
 Hide your feelings by showing nothing
 Hide your feelings by showing something else
 None of the above (please specify) _____

Not Applicable (check here if you cannot answer this question)

What do you **believe you SHOULD** do if you are:
ALONE...at **work** in plain view within earshot of others, and you feel the following emotions
toward yourself:

Anger (select one) Show more than you feel it
 Express it as you feel it
 Show less than you feel it
 Show it but with another expression
 Hide your feelings by showing nothing
 Hide your feelings by showing something else
 None of the above (please specify) _____

Contempt (select one) Show more than you feel it
 Express it as you feel it
 Show less than you feel it
 Show it but with another expression
 Hide your feelings by showing nothing
 Hide your feelings by showing something else
 None of the above (please specify) _____

Disgust (select one) Show more than you feel it
 Express it as you feel it
 Show less than you feel it
 Show it but with another expression
 Hide your feelings by showing nothing
 Hide your feelings by showing something else
 None of the above (please specify) _____

Fear (select one) Show more than you feel it
 Express it as you feel it
 Show less than you feel it
 Show it but with another expression
 Hide your feelings by showing nothing
 Hide your feelings by showing something else
 None of the above (please specify) _____

Happiness (select one) Show more than you feel it
 Express it as you feel it
 Show less than you feel it
 Show it but with another expression
 Hide your feelings by showing nothing
 Hide your feelings by showing something else
 None of the above (please specify) _____

Sadness (select one) Show more than you feel it
 Express it as you feel it
 Show less than you feel it
 Show it but with another expression
 Hide your feelings by showing nothing
 Hide your feelings by showing something else
 None of the above (please specify) _____

Not Applicable (check here if you cannot answer this question)

You will respond to four different work situations so that you are imagining yourself interacting with: a supervisor, a coworker, a subordinate, and a customer. Please use the definitions provided for each question:

What do you **believe you SHOULD** do if you are interacting with:

a SUPERVISOR...at **work** and you feel the following emotions *toward them*:

'By "supervisor," we mean that person to whom you directly report. That is, your supervisor is the person who watches over, directs, and oversees your work.

Anger (select one) Show more than you feel it
 Express it as you feel it
 Show less than you feel it
 Show it but with another expression
 Hide your feelings by showing nothing
 Hide your feelings by showing something else
 None of the above (please specify) _____

Contempt (select one) Show more than you feel it
 Express it as you feel it
 Show less than you feel it
 Show it but with another expression
 Hide your feelings by showing nothing
 Hide your feelings by showing something else
 None of the above (please specify) _____

Disgust (select one) Show more than you feel it
 Express it as you feel it
 Show less than you feel it
 Show it but with another expression
 Hide your feelings by showing nothing
 Hide your feelings by showing something else
 None of the above (please specify) _____

Fear (select one) Show more than you feel it
 Express it as you feel it
 Show less than you feel it
 Show it but with another expression
 Hide your feelings by showing nothing
 Hide your feelings by showing something else
 None of the above (please specify) _____

Happiness (select one) Show more than you feel it
 Express it as you feel it
 Show less than you feel it
 Show it but with another expression
 Hide your feelings by showing nothing
 Hide your feelings by showing something else
 None of the above (please specify) _____

Sadness (select one) Show more than you feel it
 Express it as you feel it
 Show less than you feel it
 Show it but with another expression
 Hide your feelings by showing nothing
 Hide your feelings by showing something else
 None of the above (please specify) _____

Not Applicable (check here if you cannot answer this question)

What do you **believe you SHOULD** do if you are interacting with:

a COWORKER...at **work** and you feel the following emotions *toward them*:

By "coworkers," we mean those people with whom you work who are at about the same rank or organizational level as yourself. That is, coworkers are people with whom you work frequently yet exist at the same level of power and authority as yourself. Do not consider close friends with whom you happen to work. Also do not consider coworkers with whom you never interact.

Anger (select one)

- Show more than you feel it
- Express it as you feel it
- Show less than you feel it
- Show it but with another expression
- Hide your feelings by showing nothing
- Hide your feelings by showing something else
- None of the above (please specify) _____

Contempt (select one)

- Show more than you feel it
- Express it as you feel it
- Show less than you feel it
- Show it but with another expression
- Hide your feelings by showing nothing
- Hide your feelings by showing something else
- None of the above (please specify) _____

Disgust (select one)

- Show more than you feel it
- Express it as you feel it
- Show less than you feel it
- Show it but with another expression
- Hide your feelings by showing nothing
- Hide your feelings by showing something else
- None of the above (please specify) _____

Fear (select one)

- Show more than you feel it
- Express it as you feel it
- Show less than you feel it
- Show it but with another expression
- Hide your feelings by showing nothing
- Hide your feelings by showing something else
- None of the above (please specify) _____

Happiness (select one)

- Show more than you feel it
- Express it as you feel it
- Show less than you feel it
- Show it but with another expression
- Hide your feelings by showing nothing
- Hide your feelings by showing something else
- None of the above (please specify) _____

Sadness (select one)

- Show more than you feel it
- Express it as you feel it
- Show less than you feel it
- Show it but with another expression
- Hide your feelings by showing nothing
- Hide your feelings by showing something else
- None of the above (please specify) _____

Not Applicable (check here if you cannot answer this question)

What do you **believe you SHOULD** do if you are interacting with:

a SUBORDINATE...at **work** and you feel the following emotions *toward them*:

By "subordinates," we mean those people who report directly to you. These individuals are at a lower rank than you and are subject to your authority or supervision. Do not consider close friends whom you happen to supervise.

Anger (select one)

- Show more than you feel it
- Express it as you feel it
- Show less than you feel it
- Show it but with another expression
- Hide your feelings by showing nothing
- Hide your feelings by showing something else
- None of the above (please specify) _____

Contempt (select one)

- Show more than you feel it
- Express it as you feel it
- Show less than you feel it
- Show it but with another expression
- Hide your feelings by showing nothing
- Hide your feelings by showing something else
- None of the above (please specify) _____

Disgust (select one)

- Show more than you feel it
- Express it as you feel it
- Show less than you feel it
- Show it but with another expression
- Hide your feelings by showing nothing
- Hide your feelings by showing something else
- None of the above (please specify) _____

Fear (select one)

- Show more than you feel it
- Express it as you feel it
- Show less than you feel it
- Show it but with another expression
- Hide your feelings by showing nothing
- Hide your feelings by showing something else
- None of the above (please specify) _____

Happiness (select one)

- Show more than you feel it
- Express it as you feel it
- Show less than you feel it
- Show it but with another expression
- Hide your feelings by showing nothing
- Hide your feelings by showing something else
- None of the above (please specify) _____

Sadness (select one)

- Show more than you feel it
- Express it as you feel it
- Show less than you feel it
- Show it but with another expression
- Hide your feelings by showing nothing
- Hide your feelings by showing something else
- None of the above (please specify) _____

Not Applicable (check here if you cannot answer this question)

What do you **believe you SHOULD** do if you are interacting with:
a CUSTOMER...at **work** and you feel the following emotions *toward them*:

By "customers," we mean those people with whom you interact that are external to the organization and seek to purchase goods or services provided by your company.'

Anger (select one) Show more than you feel it
 Express it as you feel it
 Show less than you feel it
 Show it but with another expression
 Hide your feelings by showing nothing
 Hide your feelings by showing something else
 None of the above (please specify) _____

Contempt (select one) Show more than you feel it
 Express it as you feel it
 Show less than you feel it
 Show it but with another expression
 Hide your feelings by showing nothing
 Hide your feelings by showing something else
 None of the above (please specify) _____

Disgust (select one) Show more than you feel it
 Express it as you feel it
 Show less than you feel it
 Show it but with another expression
 Hide your feelings by showing nothing
 Hide your feelings by showing something else
 None of the above (please specify) _____

Fear (select one) Show more than you feel it
 Express it as you feel it
 Show less than you feel it
 Show it but with another expression
 Hide your feelings by showing nothing
 Hide your feelings by showing something else
 None of the above (please specify) _____

Happiness (select one) Show more than you feel it
 Express it as you feel it
 Show less than you feel it
 Show it but with another expression
 Hide your feelings by showing nothing
 Hide your feelings by showing something else
 None of the above (please specify) _____

Sadness (select one) Show more than you feel it
 Express it as you feel it
 Show less than you feel it
 Show it but with another expression
 Hide your feelings by showing nothing
 Hide your feelings by showing something else
 None of the above (please specify) _____

Not Applicable (check here if you cannot answer this question)

APPENDIX D

Emotional Stress

Using the following scale, tell us how often you find it stressful to interact with each person listed below.

For each, please think about the same specific person in your work life as you did in the questions above (Part A) and think about the stress you feel based on these expectations about how you SHOULD act towards this person.

How often do you find it stressful to interact with...

	1 Not at all	2	3 Sometimes	4	5 Often	6	7 Very Often
a supervisor?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
a coworker?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
a subordinate?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
a customer?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

APPENDIX E

Self-construal Scale

How much do you agree with the following statements?

(using the following 1 to 5 scale, where 1 means 'strongly disagree' and 5 means 'strongly agree' check the appropriate column)

Interdependent Self-construal

	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3	4	5 Strongly Agree
I have respect for the authority figures with whom I interact	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is important for me to maintain harmony within my group	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My happiness depends on the happiness of those around me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I would offer my seat in a bus to my boss	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I respect people who are modest about themselves	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I will sacrifice my self-interest for the benefit of the group I am in	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I often have the feeling that my relationships with others are more important than my own accomplishments	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I should take into consideration my parents' advice when making career plans	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is important to me to respect decisions made by the group	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I will stay in a group if they need me, even when I'm not happy with the group	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
If my brother or sister fails, I feel responsible	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Even when I strongly disagree with group members, I avoid an argument	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Independent Self-construal

	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3	4	5 Strongly Agree
I'd rather say "No" directly, than risk being misunderstood	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Speaking up during a meeting is not a problem for me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Having a lively imagination is important to me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am comfortable with being singled out for praise or rewards	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am the same person at home that I am at work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Being able to take care of myself is a primary concern for me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I act the same way no matter who I am with	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel comfortable using someone's first name soon after I meet them, even when they are much older than I am	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I prefer to be direct and forthright when dealing with people I've just met	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I enjoy being unique and different from others in many respects	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My personal identity independent of others, is very important to me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I value being in good health above everything	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

APPENDIX F

Organizational Culture of Emotional Labour

How much do you agree with the following statements about customers?
(the people who access your services (may also be called clients))
(using the following 1 to 5 scale, where 1 means 'strongly disagree' and 5 means 'strongly agree' check the appropriate column)

	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3	4	5 Strongly Agree
Part of my job is to make the customers feel good.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My workplace does not expect me to express positive emotions to customers as part of my job. (R)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
This organization would say that part of the product to customers is friendly, cheerful service.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My organization expects me to try to act excited and enthusiastic in my interactions with customers.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am expected to suppress my bad moods or negative reactions to customers.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
This organization expects me to try to pretend that I am not upset or distressed.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am expected to try to pretend I am not angry or feeling contempt while on the job.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

How much do you agree with the following statements about coworkers?
(the people you work with (supervisors, subordinates, coworkers)).
(using the following 1 to 5 scale, where 1 means 'strongly disagree' and 5 means 'strongly agree' check the appropriate column)

	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3	4	5 Strongly Agree
Part of my job is to make the coworkers feel good.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My workplace does not expect me to express positive emotions to coworkers as part of my job. (R)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
This organization would say that part of the product to coworkers is friendly, cheerful service.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My organization expects me to try to act excited and enthusiastic in my interactions with coworkers.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am expected to suppress my bad moods or negative reactions to coworkers.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
This organization expects me to try to pretend that I am not upset or distressed.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am expected to try to pretend I am not angry or feeling contempt while on the job.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Now we have some questions about these expectations. Please indicate how much you agree with each of the following statement. You will be asked to provide an answer for both expectations towards customers and coworkers in the columns provided.

How much do you agree with the following statements when thinking about expected emotions towards customers?

(the people who access your services (may also be called clients)

(using the following 1 to 5 scale, where 1 means 'strongly disagree' and 5 means 'strongly agree' check the appropriate column)

	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3	4	5 Strongly Agree
It's hard to take the requirement for displaying the expected emotions on the job seriously. (R)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Quite frankly, I don't care if I display the expected emotions on the job or not. (R)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am committed to displaying the expected emotions on the job.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It wouldn't take much to make me abandon the requirement for displaying the expected emotions on the job. (R)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I think displaying the expected emotions on the job is a good goal to shoot for.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

How much do you agree with the following statements when thinking about expected emotions towards coworkers?

(the people you work with (supervisors, subordinates, coworkers)

(using the following 1 to 5 scale, where 1 means 'strongly disagree' and 5 means 'strongly agree' check the appropriate column)

	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3	4	5 Strongly Agree
It's hard to take the requirement for displaying the expected emotions on the job seriously. (R)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Quite frankly, I don't care if I display the expected emotions on the job or not. (R)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am committed to displaying the expected emotions on the job.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It wouldn't take much to make me abandon the requirement for displaying the expected emotions on the job. (R)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I think displaying the expected emotions on the job is a good goal to shoot for.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

APPENDIX H

Letter of Information: Part-time sample



LETTER OF INFORMATION FOR CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

Title of Study: Culture and Emotional Display Norms at Work

You are asked to participate in a research study conducted by Dr. Catherine T. Kwantes, from the Psychology Department at the University of Windsor.

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel to contact **Dr. Kwantes at 519.253.3000 x2242** or ckwantes@uwindsor.ca.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

We are studying what expectations people have with respect to showing various emotions in different situations related to the workplace.

PROCEDURES

If you volunteer to participate in this study, you will be asked to do the following things: Complete a survey on campus in a room in the Psychology Department. The survey is expected to take approximately 60 minutes.

POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

There are no known risks associated with this research project.

POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO PARTICIPANTS AND/OR TO SOCIETY

This research extends previous research helping us understand employee behaviours in the workplace and how culture affects the choice of behaviours.

PAYMENT FOR PARTICIPATION

No cash payment will be offered for participation in this research. Participants will receive 1 bonus point for 31-60 minutes of participation towards the psychology participants pool, if registered in the pool and enrolled in one or more eligible courses.

CONFIDENTIALITY

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission.

No identifying information is asked on the survey instrument. Any reported data from this survey will be reported only in aggregate form, such as averages. Original questionnaire packages will be kept until the

information has been transferred to an electronic database, at which time the original questionnaire packages will be destroyed using the University of Windsor's secure shredding service.

PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

You can choose whether to be in this study or not. If you volunteer to be in this study, you may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. You may do this by indicating to the researcher that you do not wish your data to be used in this research project, and/or taking the completed survey with you. You may also refuse to answer any questions you don't want to answer and still remain in the study. The investigator may withdraw you from this research if circumstances arise which warrant doing so. This may occur, for example, if you answer only a few questions and it is not possible to do statistical analyses on a small portion of the data.

FEEDBACK OF THE RESULTS OF THIS STUDY TO THE SUBJECTS

Feedback for the results of this research will be available:

Web address: www.uwindsor.ca/kwantes

Date when results are available: anticipated date: April, 2011

SUBSEQUENT USE OF DATA

This data may be used in subsequent studies.

RIGHTS OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS

You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research subject, contact: Research Ethics Coordinator, University of Windsor, Windsor, Ontario N9B 3P4; Telephone: 519-253-3000, ext. 3948; e-mail: ethics@uwindsor.ca

SIGNATURE OF INVESTIGATOR

These are the terms under which I will conduct research.

Signature of Investigator

Date

APPENDIX I

Recruitment Materials: Full-time sample

Online Survey Recruitment Letter

Fill out this survey for a chance to WIN 1 of 3 \$50 Amazon.ca Gift Cards

If you are interested in participating in the study, please click on the following link:

<http://app.fluidsurveys.com/s/workexpectations>

My name is Joanna Kraft and I am a doctoral student at the University of Windsor. I am currently working towards completing my PhD dissertation research requirement, supervised by Dr. Catherine Kwantes.

I am interested in the learning more about attitudes in the workplace and more specifically, the expectations employees have within the workplace. By participating in this study, your responses will help researchers and employers understand how employees interact with each other and what employees expect from these interactions. This research will hopefully help employers create a more productive and healthy work environment for employees. This study has received clearance from the University of Windsor's Research Ethics Board.

The survey should take about **15 minutes** to complete and your participation would be greatly appreciated. Also, if you participate you will have the chance to **WIN 1 of 3 \$50 Amazon.ca Gift Cards!**

If you are interested in participating in the study, please click on the following link:

<http://app.fluidsurveys.com/s/workexpectations/>

Feel free to contact Joanna Kraft (kraft@uwindsor.ca, (519) 253-3000 ext. 2212) if you have any questions or comments about this study. If you prefer to complete a paper version of the survey, I can arrange for a paper survey to be distributed to you, which can be completed and returned in a provided postage-paid envelope.

Thank you for your time!

Joanna Kraft, M.A., Ph.D.(Cand.)
Department of Psychology
University of Windsor

YOU ARE INVITED TO PARTICIPATE!

You could win one of three
\$50 Amazon.ca gift cards!

Joanna Kraft, a doctoral student at the University of Windsor is currently conducting a research study on the attitudes and expectations employees have within the workplace.

- ⇒ *The survey will only take about 15 minutes to complete*
- ⇒ *If you participate you will have the chance to WIN 1 of 3 \$50 Amazon.ca gift cards!*

Feel free to contact Joanna Kraft (kraft@uwindsor.ca), if you have any questions or comments about this study (or if you would prefer to complete a paper copy of the survey).

➔ **If you are interested in participating in the study, please go to the following link:**

<http://app.fluidsurveys.com/s/workexpectations/>

YOU ARE INVITED TO PARTICIPATE!

You could win one of three
\$50 Amazon.ca gift cards!

Joanna Kraft, a doctoral student at the University of Windsor is currently conducting a research study on the attitudes and expectations employees have within the workplace.

- ⇒ *The survey will only take about 15 minutes to complete*
- ⇒ *If you participate you will have the chance to WIN 1 of 3 \$50 Amazon.ca gift cards!*

Feel free to contact Joanna Kraft (kraft@uwindsor.ca), if you have any questions or comments about this study (or if you would prefer to complete a paper copy of the survey).

➔ **If you are interested in participating in the study, please go to the following link:**

<http://app.fluidsurveys.com/s/workexpectations/>

APPENDIX J

Letter of Information: Full-time sample

LETTER OF INFORMATION FOR CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

Title of Study: Attitudes and Expectations in the Workplace

You are asked to participate in a research study conducted by Joanna Kraft, a Doctoral Candidate in Applied Social Psychology at the University of Windsor in Windsor, Ontario, Canada. This project serves as part of the dissertation requirements for Joanna's Doctorate of Philosophy degree in Applied Social Psychology. Dr. Catherine Kwantes, a professor from the Department of Psychology is supervising this research.

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel to contact Joanna (kraft@uwindsor.ca, 519-253-3000 ext. 2212) or her supervisor, Dr. Kwantes (ckwantes@uwindsor.ca, 519-253-3000 ext. 2242).

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to investigate employee attitudes and expectations regarding workplace interactions (between coworkers and each other and coworkers and customers).

WHO CAN PARTICIPATE

You are invited to participate if you are currently employed.

PROCEDURES

If you volunteer to participate in this study, you will be asked to do the following things:

1. Read through this consent form and decide whether you would like to participate in this study.
 - a. **To Participate:** Click the "I agree to participate" button at the bottom of this page. By clicking the "I agree to participate" button, you have provided your consent to participate. To access the survey you will need to enter the password provided at the bottom of this form.
2. Once you enter the survey, please follow the instructions for completing the survey questions, which will be found at the beginning of each survey section. As part of this survey, you will be presented with a series of questions that will ask about your workplace expectations and attitudes, in addition to several demographic questions (e.g., age, gender).
3. Once you have completed the survey (or if you choose not to participate), you will be directed to more information on this study. The survey will take approximately 15 minutes to complete.

POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

Risks or discomforts related to your participation in this study are not expected to exceed those encountered in everyday life. Participants may feel that there is a potential risk that your employer will know your responses, or that you have or have not completed the survey. However, all participation will be kept strictly confidential and anonymous, such that no one will be able to track your participation in the survey, or your answers. Results presented to the organization will be done in an aggregated manner, so that no individual survey responses will ever be presented.

POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO PARTICIPANTS AND/OR TO SOCIETY

Results from this study will be used to help understand workplace expectations and attitudes within your organization. By participating in this study, your responses will help researchers and employers understand how employees interact with each other and what employees expect from these interactions. This research will hopefully help employers create a more productive and healthy work environment for employees.

PAYMENT FOR PARTICIPATION

There is no payment for participation for this study, however, as a thank you for your participation, you will be invited to enter a draw for 1 of 3 \$50 amazon.ca gift cards. Once you complete the study, you will be provided with a space to enter your email address if you would like to be included into the draw. Your email address will **NOT** be linked to your survey responses in any way as the website collecting this information is a separate URL from the survey website. Following the completion of the study (no later than April 2012), the three winners of the draw will be notified, and emailed a \$50 amazon gift card.

CONFIDENTIALITY

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary and your responses will remain anonymous. Your answers cannot be matched to your identity and will be released only as summaries grouped with other people's responses. Information about the computer and Internet service provider you are using will not be collected. Your survey responses are entered into a non-identifiable data file with other people's responses. If you choose to enter your email address into the draw, this information will not be linked to your survey responses, will be kept in a password protected file on a secure server in Canada, and will be deleted once the draw has been awarded.

PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

You can choose whether to be in this study or not. If you volunteer to be in this study, you may withdraw prior to submitting your survey, without consequences of any kind. Any research study benefits from having as much complete information as possible from participants. However, if you are uncomfortable about answering any question you may refuse to answer a question by skipping it, or you can change your mind and leave the study at any time without consequences. To leave the study, simply close the web browser window.

Closing your browser does not withdraw your answers to that point. To withdraw your data you must do so prior to submitting your survey by clicking the "Withdraw Data" button. Once you have submitted your survey, it is no longer possible to withdraw your data because your responses are entered into a non-identifiable data file. If you withdraw your data you can still enter your email address into the draw.

FEEDBACK OF THE RESULTS OF THIS STUDY TO THE SUBJECTS

The results of this study will be available on the web by the September of 2012.

Web address: <http://www.uwindsor.ca/reb/study-results>

Date when results are available: September, 2012

SUBSEQUENT USE OF DATA

This data may be used in subsequent studies.

RIGHTS OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS

You may withdraw your consent at any time **prior to submitting your survey** and discontinue participation without penalty. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research participant, contact: Research Ethics Coordinator, University of Windsor, Windsor, Ontario N9B 3P4; Telephone: 519-253-3000, ext. 3948; e-mail: ethics@uwindsor.ca

Please print this letter of information for your records. This will also make sure you have a copy of the password you will need to access the survey.

ONCE YOU CLICK ON THE LINK BELOW, PLEASE ENTER THE FOLLOWING PASSWORD TO ACCESS THE SURVEY:

PASSWORD: expect

I agree to participate, please take me to the survey!

I DO NOT agree to participate

APPENDIX K

Summary Letter: Full-time sample

Thank you so much for participating in: Attitudes and Expectations in the Workplace!

Your contribution to the research will be used to help understand workplace expectations and attitudes within your organization. By participating in this study, your responses will help researchers and employers understand how employees interact with each other and what employees expect from these interactions. This research will hopefully help employers create a more productive and healthy work environment for employees.

My goal in this research was to examine how employees display emotions within the workplace, more specifically when interacting with a variety of different people (e.g., supervisors, coworkers, subordinates, or customers). I also hope to gain further information about how employees become aware of what is expected of them in the workplace, and how committed they are to following through with these expectations.

The results of this study will be available on the web by the September of 2012.

Web address: <http://www.uwindsor.ca/reb/study-results>

Date when results are available: September, 2012

Thanks so much for your participation!

If you would like to enter the draw for 1 of 3 **\$50 Amazon.ca Gift Cards**, please click on the following link.

<http://app.fluidsurveys.com/s/expectdraw/>

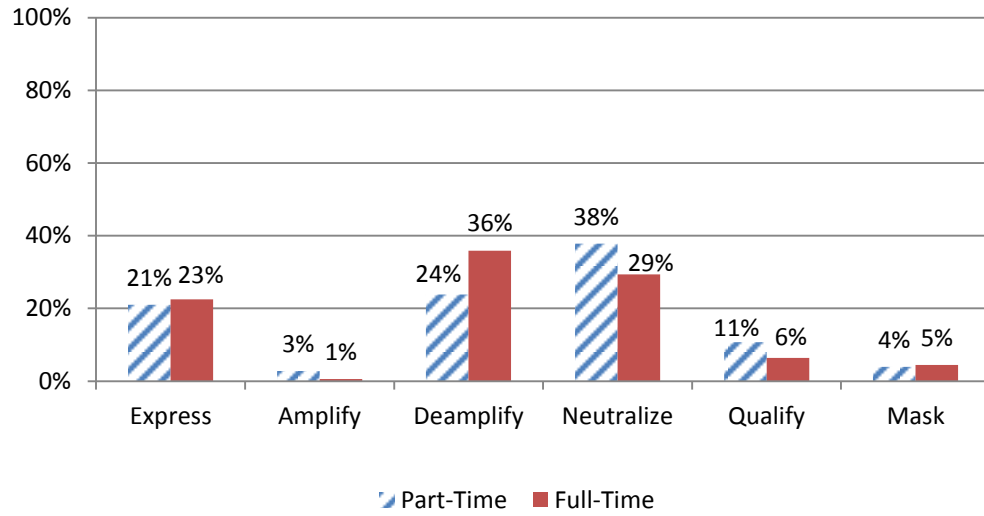
This link will take you to a new website/URL and will allow you to enter your email address (which will be stored in a separate file from your survey responses, so that your responses will remain anonymous).

If you would like to learn how to delete your browser history, please see the following website for instructions: <http://www.aboutcookies.org/default.aspx?page=2>

APPENDIX L

DMS Frequencies Overall

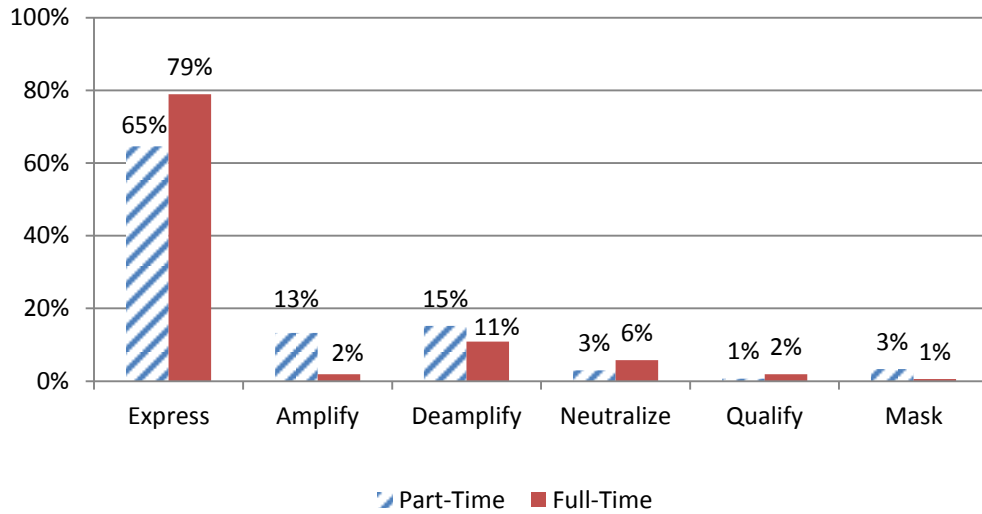
DMS Overall



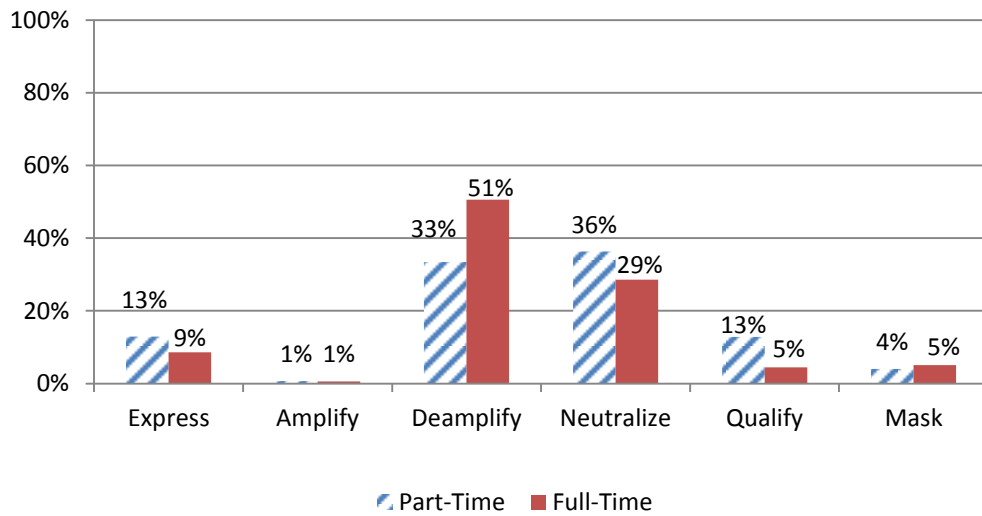
APPENDIX M

DMS Frequencies Across Emotion

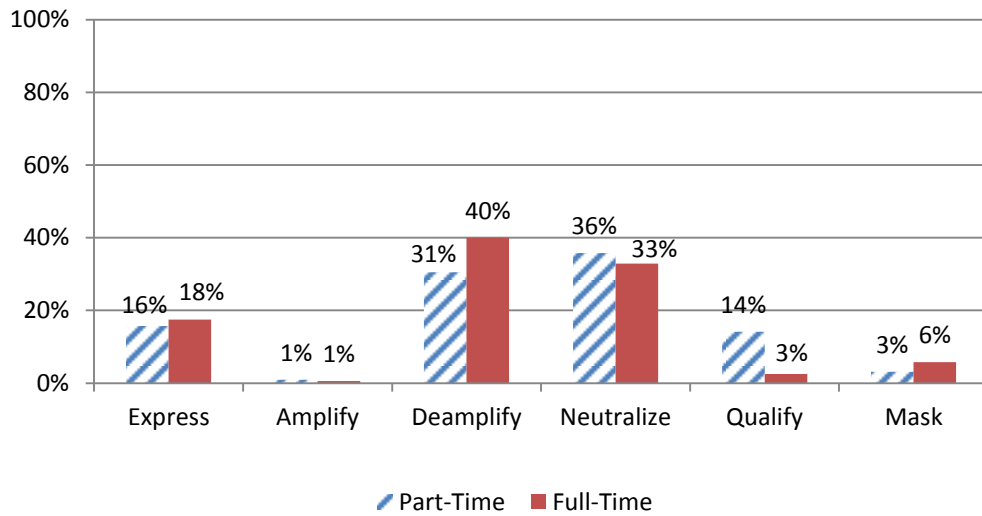
DMS for Happiness



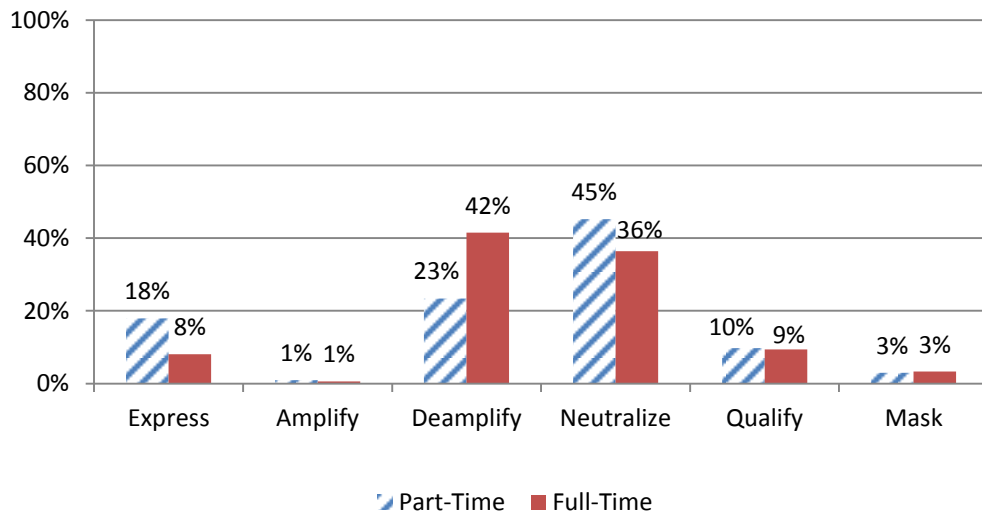
DMS for Anger



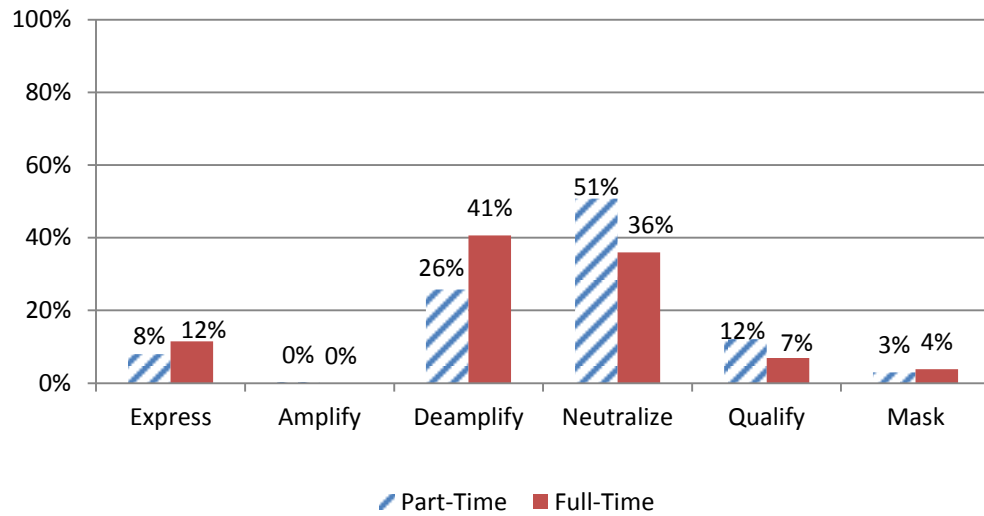
DMS for Sadness



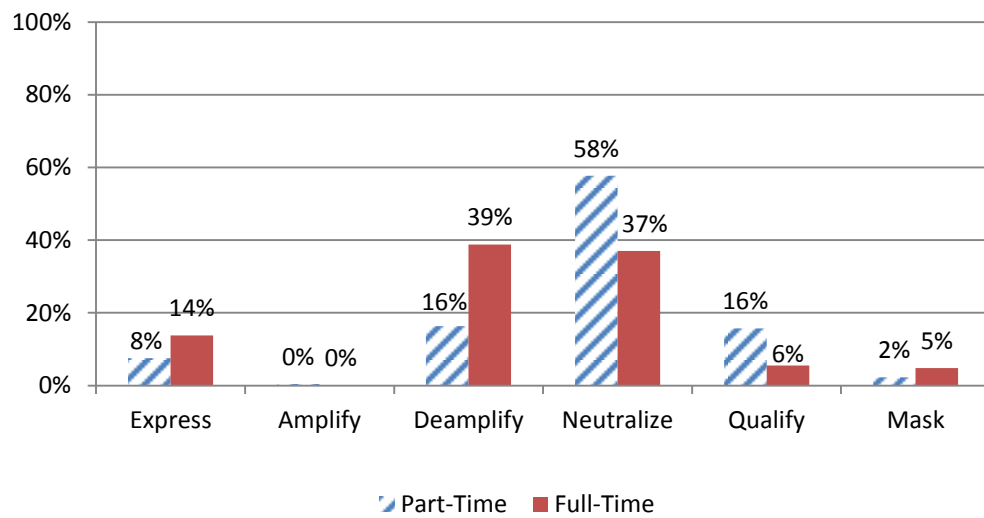
DMS for Contempt



DMS for Disgust



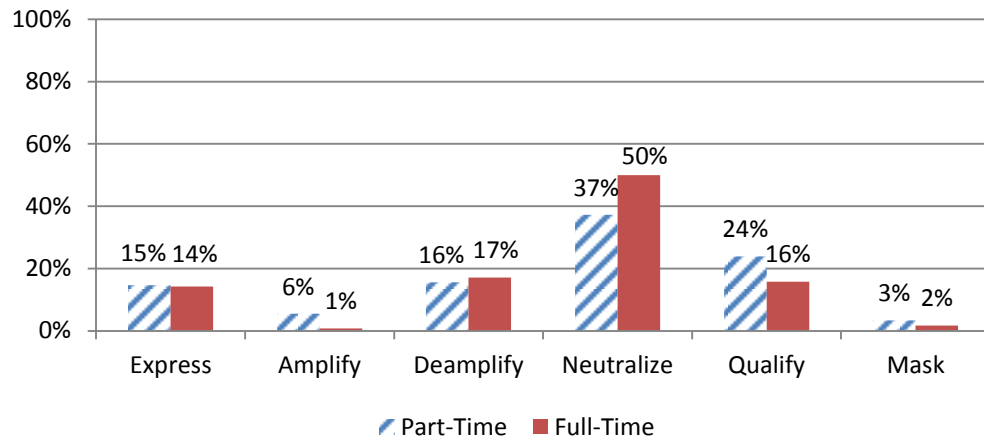
DMS for Fear



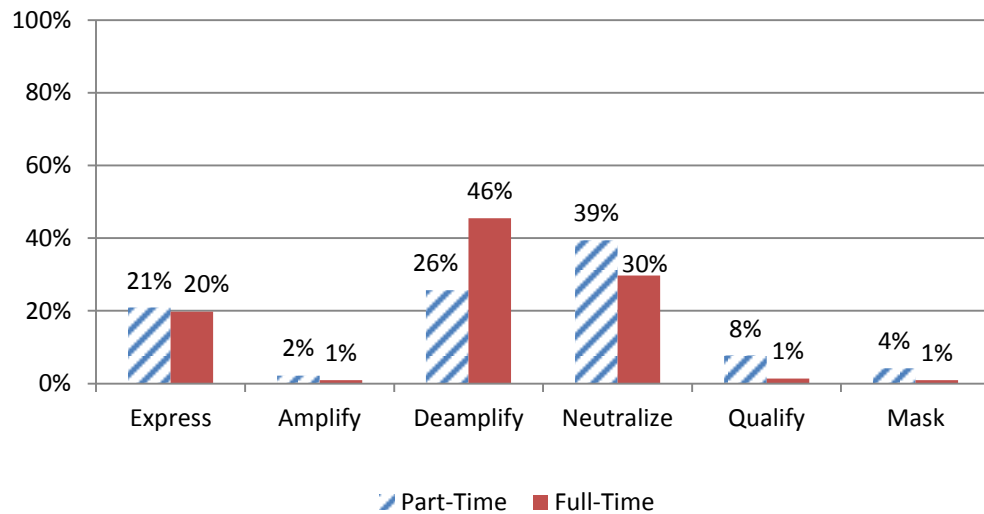
APPENDIX N

DMS Frequencies Across Target

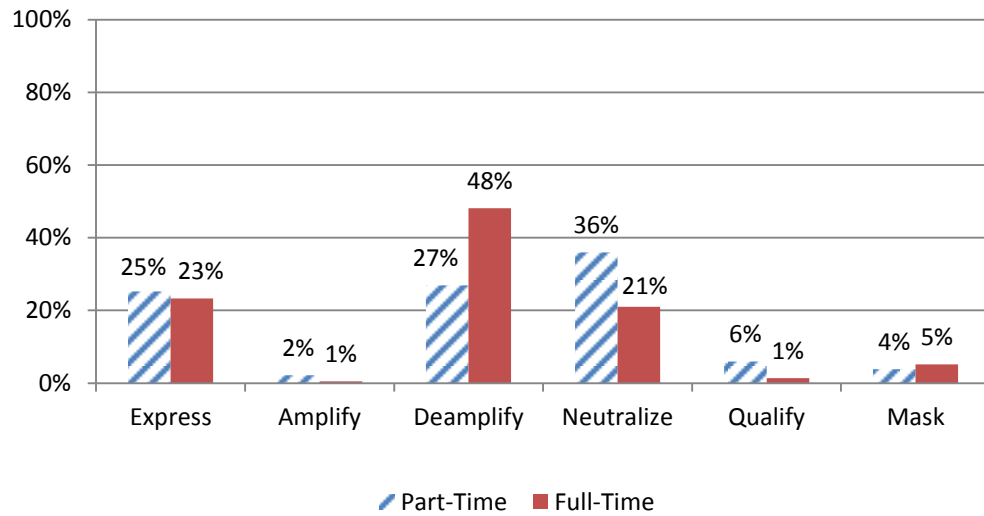
DMS for Customers



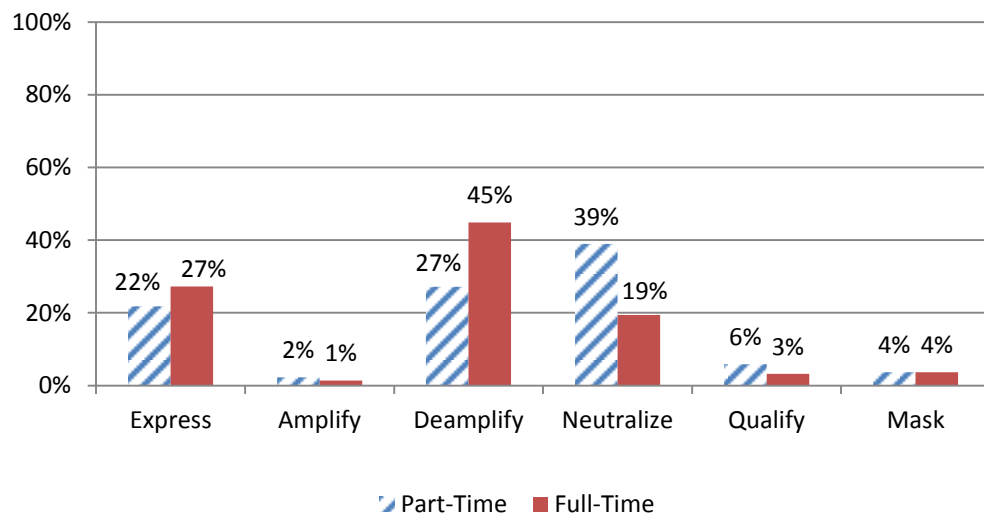
DMS for Supervisors



DMS for Coworkers



DMS for Subordinates



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