

2007

# Service with a smile: Antecedents and consequences of emotional labor strategies

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Service With a Smile: Antecedents and Consequences of Emotional Labor Strategies

by

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A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment  
of the requirements for the degree of  
Doctor of Philosophy  
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Date of Approval:  
April 6, 2007

Keywords: deep acting, surface acting, service performance, emotions at work, employee well-being

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## Dedication

To my dear mother, Icilma Johnson, for her constant encouragement and faith in me, and to my wonderful fiancé, Courtney Marcus, for his love, patience and unwavering support as I undertook this academic journey.

## Acknowledgements

Thank you to everyone who has inspired and encouraged me over the years of this dissertation journey. Specifically, I would like to thank my supervisory committee, Walter Borman, Ph.D., Michael Brannick, Ph.D., Ellis Gesten, Ph.D. and Kristen Salomon, Ph.D. for their valuable insights and contributions to my dissertation. I am so very grateful for all the opportunities and professional guidance provided by my mentor, Paul Spector, Ph.D. Thank you for being there for me when I needed you and for granting me the space to develop my academic potential! I am also blessed to have had Tammy Allen, Ph.D. as a mentor. Thank you for your advice and constant support! I need to thank Laura Pierce and the Psychology Department staff for their assistance in ensuring that I adhered to all the policies and deadlines during my tenure in graduate school. Also, I am grateful to my research assistants, Herrica Telus, Kyle Groff and Jeremy Bauer, for their yeoman's work. Finally, I would like to thank all of my classmates who have made my years of graduate school some of the best, especially those in the Center for Occupational Health Psychology! Special thanks are due to Elena Lopez, Haitham Khoury, Charlie Ottinot, Burcu Rodopman, Kimberly O'Brien, and Xian Xu, all of whom I am proud to call my friends!

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## Service With a Smile: Antecedents and Consequences of Emotional Labor Strategies

Hazel-Anne Michelle Johnson

### ABSTRACT

Organizations across the United States and in many parts of the globe are increasingly focused on providing their customers with an excellent service experience by implementing organizational emotion display rules (Hochschild, 1983). These display rules dictate the requisite employee emotions for a particular encounter (Ekman, 1973). However, over the course of a work day display rules may call for expressions that contradict an employee's genuine emotions, thus prompting a discrepancy between felt emotions and required emotions – emotional dissonance (Hochschild, 1983). Emotional labor involves employee efforts to reduce emotional dissonance in order to adhere to organizational display rules (Hochschild, 1983; Grandey, 2000). Hochschild (1983) identified two emotional labor strategies that may be used by employees – surface acting (managing observable expressions to obey display rules) and deep acting (corresponds to managing feelings in order to actually feel the emotion required by the display rules). This study examined emotional intelligence, affectivity and gender as potential antecedents of an employee's choice of emotional labor strategy in order to meet organizational display rules. I also investigated the differential impact of the emotional

labor strategies on the individual outcomes of emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction, and service performance.

Correlation and moderated regression analyses as well as structural equation modeling were employed to test the proposed hypotheses. Two hundred and twenty-three employee-supervisor pairs completed surveys to examine the research hypotheses. Correlation results indicate that emotional intelligence, affectivity and gender related to the emotional labor strategies in the expected directions. Similarly, deep acting and surface acting displayed differential relationships with emotional exhaustion, job satisfaction and service performance. Moderated regression analyses suggest that females were more likely to report negative outcomes when engaging in surface acting. Structural equation modeling results indicate that affectivity predicted choice of the emotional labor strategies, which in turn predicted the outcomes of emotional exhaustion, job satisfaction and service performance.

## Service With A Smile: Antecedents and Consequences of Emotional Labor Strategies

Organizations across the United States and in many parts of the globe are increasingly focused on providing their customers with an excellent service experience. One of the ways in which they seek to do so is through organizational emotion display rules (Hochschild, 1983); these rules dictate the requisite employee emotions for a particular encounter (Ekman, 1973). As the service-oriented economy provides the customer with an interactive experience, organizational display rules are implemented to ensure that the experience is pleasant and satisfying. These display rules can be formally transmitted through training manuals (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987) or informally encouraged by the organizational culture (Van Maanen & Kunda, 1989). For example, studies have demonstrated that when employees were dressed in their work uniforms they were more likely to express positive emotions to customers (Rafaeli, 1989; Van Maanen & Kunda, 1989). The uniforms remind the employees of the informal display norms that exist within their organizational culture.

It is expected that pleasant and friendly employees transmit positive emotions to their customers through emotional contagion (Hatfield, Cacioppo & Rapson, 1992; Pugh, 2002). Emotional contagion is “the tendency to automatically mimic and synchronize facial expressions, vocalizations, postures, and movements with those of another person and, consequently to converge emotionally” (Hatfield, Cacioppo & Rapson, 1992, p. 153). Given that organizations are trying to orchestrate a satisfying service experience, employees that “infect” customers with their positive emotions would be ideal. However,

the automatic nature of emotional contagion can backfire when customers present employees with negative emotions; it is in this scenario when emotion regulation becomes necessary and potentially taxing (Pugh, 2002). For instance, Grandey, Dickter and Sin (2004) demonstrated that call-center employees' appraisal of verbal aggression from customers predicted their method of emotion regulation. Employees who reported feeling more stressed with verbally aggressive customers faked their emotions more than employees who perceived them as less stressful.

According to Wharton and Erickson (1993), there are three main types of display rules – integrative, differentiating and masking. Integrative emotions are hedonically positive, create good feelings in others and encourage harmony among people (e.g., love, happiness, compassion); conversely, differentiating emotions are hedonically negative and tend to drive people apart (e.g., fear, hate, anger). Emotional masking involves displays of neutrality and restraint with respect to either integrative or differentiating emotions (Cropanzano, Weiss & Elias, 2004). In general, organizations require that employees adhere to integrative emotion display rules. Yet, over the course of a work day display rules may call for expressions that contradict an employee's genuine emotions, thus prompting a discrepancy between felt emotions and required emotions, this discrepancy has been a focus of research attention over the last two decades (e.g., Hochschild, 1983; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987; Morris & Feldman, 1996; Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002). Hochschild (1983) termed this discrepancy emotional dissonance, that is, the separation of felt emotion from emotion expressed to meet external expectations, and she contended that it is harmful to the physical and psychological well-being of employees.

Emotional dissonance is an unpleasant state, so employees seek to reduce this discrepancy by utilizing a variety of emotion regulation strategies (Grandey, 2000). Employee efforts to resolve emotional dissonance in order to adhere to organizational display rules have been termed emotional labor (Hochschild, 1983). Emotional labor is the expression of organizationally desired emotions by service agents during service encounters (Hochschild, 1979, 1983; Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). Grandey (2000) has defined emotional labor as “the process of regulating both feelings and expressions for organizational goals” (p. 97). Emotional labor has also been regarded as a type of impression management, because it is a deliberate attempt by the individual to manipulate his or her behavior toward others in order to foster both certain social perceptions of himself or herself and a certain interpersonal climate (Gardner & Martinko, 1988; Grove & Fisk, 1989). Essentially, emotional labor involves the emotion regulation strategies employed to reduce the discrepancy between felt and organizationally-mandated emotions.

Hochschild (1983) identified two strategies that may be used by employees to manage their emotions: Surface acting, which corresponds to managing observable expressions to obey display rules, and deep acting, which corresponds to managing feelings in order to actually feel the emotion required by the display rules. As surface acting only modifies the outward expression, the employee is likely to continue to experience the uncomfortable state of emotional dissonance. On the other hand, deep acting brings the felt emotion in line with the expressed emotion so this strategy should serve to reduce emotional dissonance. This study will focus on these two emotion regulation strategies, deep acting and surface acting. First, I will examine the constructs

of deep acting and surface acting, and then I will discuss individual difference antecedents (emotional intelligence, affectivity and gender) to these emotional labor strategies. Finally, I will examine the impact of the emotional labor strategies on emotional exhaustion, job satisfaction and customer service performance.

### *Emotional Labor Strategies*

Grandey (2000) recommended the utilization of emotion regulation theory as a framework to guide emotional labor research. Emotion regulation involves “the processes by which individuals influence which emotions they have, when they have them and how they experience and express these emotions” (Gross, 1998b, p. 275).

Gross (1998a) proposed a process model of emotion that begins with emotional cues that lead to emotional response tendencies (behavioral, experiential, physiological), which can then lead to emotional responses. Accordingly, this model posits that emotion regulation is comprised of two processes, where the first process is *antecedent-focused*, in which an individual regulates the situation or appraisal that precedes emotion; this is analogous to deep acting. The second process, *response-focused*, involves modification of the observable signs of emotion in a manner consistent with surface acting (Grandey, 2000).

According to Gross and John (2002), it is essential that emotions are viewed as multi-componential processes concerning changes in subjective experience, expressive behavior, and physiological responding. Therefore, emotion regulation entails efforts to modify these three components. Gross’s (1998a, 1998b) process model differentiates emotion regulation strategies along the timeline of the unfolding emotional response. Mainly, there is a distinction between antecedent-focused and response-focused emotion regulation strategies. Antecedent-focused strategies occur before changes in the three components – full activation of emotional response tendencies, changes in behavior, and

peripheral physiological responding. On the other hand, response-focused strategies are attempts to curtail an emotional response that is already underway.

Gross (1998a, 1998b) proposed four antecedent-focused strategies: Situation selection (approach or avoidance of a particular situation), situation modification (tailoring a situation to alter its emotional impact), attentional deployment (selective focus on other aspects of the situation), and cognitive change (reappraisal of the meaning of the situation). The main response-focused strategy, response modulation, involves efforts to influence emotion response tendencies that have already been elicited (Gross, 1998a, 1998b). Typically adherence to integrative display rules via response modulation involves the faking of positive emotions, suppression of negative emotions, or intensification of an authentic emotion (Grandey & Brauburger, 2002). As Grandey (2000) indicated, some of Gross' emotion regulation strategies are more clearly applicable to the service context, namely, the attentional deployment (positive refocus), cognitive change (reappraisal) and response modulation strategies. Of the antecedent-focused emotion regulation strategies, situation selection and situation modification are the least likely to be employed by customer service employees as they do not often have the ability or autonomy necessary to avoid or to modify the situation. To some degree, attentional deployment is applicable, but may be difficult for service employees because the source of the differentiating or negative emotion may be the customer and it would be inappropriate for them to divert their focus from the customer. However, one aspect of attentional deployment, positive refocus, may be utilized if the employee is able to successfully focus on a positive aspect of the situation without ignoring the customer. For these reasons, this study will focus on the emotion regulation strategies of positive

refocus and reappraisal (analogous to deep acting) as well as the faking and suppression of emotion (analogous to surface acting).

Gross and John (2002) posited that because reappraisal (deep acting) involves emotional cues and impacts emotional response tendencies before they are fully activated, it does not require significant cognitive effort. On the other hand, suppression (surface acting) requires continuous monitoring and modification of activated emotional response tendencies. Consequently, suppression (surface acting) entails greater cognitive costs than reappraisal. Research by Richards and Gross (1999) demonstrated that suppression (surface acting) impaired female participants' incidental memory for information presented during suppression. Therefore, suppression (surface acting) may not be the best choice for an employee who needs to remember critical information obtained during a service interaction. For instance, an irate client calls a financial services representative and while screaming in an abusive fashion, provides information that the representative needs to alleviate the client's frustration. However, if the representative engaged in suppression (surface acting) due to the client's angry display some of the important information provided during the transaction may be forgotten, which potentially makes that representative a target for further abuse by the dissatisfied client.

While suppression (surface acting) effectively decreases expressive behavior, it does not reduce subjective experience of the emotion and in fact leads to increases in physiological responding. Conversely, reappraisal (deep acting) serves to decrease expressive behavior as well as subjective experience and is not associated with increased physiological responding (Gross, 1998a). Overall, reappraisal (deep acting) is the

emotion regulation strategy that produces the outcomes most in accordance with the integrative display rules of most organizations; specifically, individuals who habitually engage in reappraisal (deep acting) feel and exhibit more positive emotion and less negative emotion. Individuals who suppress (surface act) have a contrasting result – they feel and exhibit less positive emotion, while they actually feel more negative emotion than habitual reappraisers (Gross & John, 2003). Gross and John (2003) posit that suppressors (surface actors) experience greater negative emotion because of inauthenticity caused by the discrepancy between felt emotions and expressive behaviors, also known as emotional dissonance.

Laboratory research has indicated that suppression (surface acting) extracted cognitive costs such as distraction and reduced responsiveness during conversation that led to increased physiological responding in the conversation partner (Butler, Egloff, Wilhelm, Smith, Erickson & Gross, 2003). Expression of emotions during a social interaction conveys relevant information to the interaction partner about the other party's emotions, intentions, and orientation to the relationship. Disruption of the accurate transfer of emotions contributes to the collapse of social interactions (Keltner & Kring, 1998). That is, emotional displays are usually met with a prescribed range of emotions and when our interaction partner's response deviates significantly from that range; it becomes socially awkward. Imagine having just described to a company's service representative how their product caused you grievous bodily injury, to which they respond with gales of laughter – entirely inappropriate and very socially inept! While this example is a little extreme, it serves to illustrate the social consequences of inappropriate emotional responses. Engaging with an individual who does not provide

the appropriately contingent responses is stressful, and according to Butler et al. (2003) actually causes increased physiological responding for the interaction partner of the individual suppressing their emotions. Given that organizations implement display rules to facilitate a pleasant service experience for their customers, employees who habitually suppress (surface act) may actually produce a negative experience by increasing customers' blood pressure!

Most emotional labor research has been concerned with its potentially negative impact on service employees (e.g., Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Totterdell & Homan, 2003). In particular, field research has demonstrated a clear link between surface acting and burnout (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Johnson & Spector, in press), while deep acting has been positively associated with service performance (Grandey, 2003; Totterdell & Holman, 2003); therefore, it is clear that the choice of emotion regulation strategy influences both individual and organizational outcomes.

The strategy that employees choose to address emotional dissonance can have negative effects, for instance, surface acting may lead to feelings of misalignment and inauthenticity that can decrease an employee's sense of well-being (Sheldon, Ryan, Rawsthorne, & Ilardi, 1997). Conversely, regulation through deep acting in a "good faith" type of emotional labor may result in a sense of accomplishment depending on the employee's level of identification with the organization (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). Emotions research has shown that the inhibition of negative emotions over time can be associated with a variety of physical illnesses, such as asthma (Florin, Freudenberg & Hollaender, 1985), cardiovascular disease (Guyton & Hall, 1997) and cancer (Gross, 1989; Greer & Watson, 1985). Therefore, while deep acting and surface acting enable an

employee to successfully achieve organizational goals, they may also contribute to detrimental effects to that employee's health and psychological well-being. However, it must be noted that the expression of positive emotions may cause physiological changes that result in increased well-being for employees (Zajonc, 1985), so positive display rules may lead to positive emotions in employees in a way that might be beneficial.

This study aims to examine potential antecedents of an employee's choice of emotional labor strategy in order to meet organizational display rules. In particular, emotional intelligence, affectivity and gender are thought to influence the selection of an emotional labor strategy. I will also investigate the differential impact of the emotional labor strategies on individual outcomes of emotional exhaustion, job satisfaction, and service performance, an especially important outcome for organizations. To this end, Figure 1 presents a model that illustrates the proposed links between the antecedents, emotional labor strategies and outcomes. The remainder of this introduction will cover the various linkages in this model. Based on the preceding discussion of the emotional labor strategies, it is expected that they will be differentially related to proposed antecedents and the proposed outcomes.

## *Antecedents*

### *Emotional Intelligence*

Emotional intelligence (EI) is arguably one of the most passionately debated constructs in the field of social sciences. Yet, to date, there has been little consensus on what it is, what it measures and its unique contribution to the prediction of meaningful outcomes. We can generally define emotional intelligence as an ability (or constellation of abilities) involving emotions in the self and others (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). While this suffices as a general definition, more specific definitions of emotional intelligence depend on the research stream in question. Two major research streams on emotional intelligence have emerged; the ability models proposed by Mayer and Salovey (1997) and the mixed models proffered by Goleman (1995) and Bar-On (1997) that present broader definitions of emotional intelligence involving a range of emotion-related skills and traits. The main source of the controversy around the emotional intelligence construct stems from the disparity between the definitions presented by both camps; that is, Mayer and Salovey (1997) view it as a form of intelligence that only involves emotion-related abilities, while Goleman (1995) and Bar-On (1997) include dimensions of personality and social competence. Consequently, a schism has developed between the proponents of the ability models and the mixed models such that measures of emotional intelligence as an ability do not converge with measures of emotional intelligence that encompass personality dimensions. The breadth of the mixed model approach to emotional intelligence has led to the criticism that emotional intelligence is nothing more than the

re-packaging of old constructs (e.g., Landy, 2005). In addition, the measures of the mixed model approach tend to substantially overlap with existing measures which casts doubt on their ability to provide incremental prediction of meaningful outcomes. For these reasons, this study will utilize the ability model proposed by Mayer and Salovey (1997) as this more precise model has received more empirical support, while the support for the mixed models often derives from anecdotes and resides within proprietary databases less subject to peer review (Landy, 2005).

Salovey and Mayer's (1990) initial definition of emotional intelligence is widely recognized as the origin of research on the ability model of emotional intelligence (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005). Salovey and Mayer (1990) defined emotional intelligence as an individual's ability to monitor feelings and emotions in the self and others, to discriminate among emotions, and to use information about emotions to guide one's thinking and actions. Therefore, individuals high in emotional intelligence are capable of understanding and expressing their own emotions, recognizing emotions in others and regulating affect, as well as the use of emotions to engage in adaptive behaviors (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Further work on the construct led Mayer and Salovey (1997) to propose an emotional intelligence framework that is comprised of four branches (1) the perception, appraisal and expression of emotion, (2) emotional facilitation of thought, (3) understanding of emotion, and (4) managing of emotion in self and others. This framework is a multidimensional hierarchy in which perception of emotions, as the most basic skill, serves as a precursor to the remaining three sets of skills. As such, emotion management is the most complex branch that depends on successful utilization of the other abilities in this hierarchy.

The first dimension, or branch, concerns an individual's ability to accurately identify emotions in the self and others and to accurately express emotions. The second branch involves the assimilation of emotions into mental processes, that is, emotions may serve as memory aids for judgments about feelings. Alternatively, problem-solving approaches may be influenced by current emotional states; for instance, happy moods facilitate inductive reasoning and creativity (Palfai & Salovey, 1993). The third branch focuses on the ability to understand emotions and the complexity of emotions and their progressions. Finally, the fourth branch is concerned with the regulation of emotion in the self and others; for instance, the ability to calm down after feeling anger or to alleviate the fears of another person (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

*Support for the Ability Model.* Mayer, Caruso and Salovey (1999) conceptualize emotional intelligence as a new form of intelligence, which serves to broaden the coverage of the intelligence construct space. They present three standard criteria that must be met by an intelligence in order to be considered scientifically legitimate and then go on to demonstrate how emotional intelligence meets these criteria. First, the conceptual criterion mandates that an intelligence reflects intellectual performance instead of a preferred way of behaving or a personality trait, and should clearly measure the particular concept; in this case, emotion-related abilities. The correlational criterion maintains that "an intelligence should describe a set of closely-related abilities that are similar to, but distinct from already-established intelligences" (Mayer et al., 1999, p. 270; Carroll, 1993). The final criterion concerns the developmental nature of intelligence, as it is supposed to improve with age and experience.

According to Mayer et al. (1999) emotional intelligence is an ability that enables individuals to utilize emotional knowledge to solve emotional problems. The solutions to these emotional problems can be objectively verified by expert or group consensus. Darwin (1872/1965) established the universality of emotions, such that all humans can recognize and express at least six basic emotions. Subsequently, there has been universal agreement on emotional information thereby lending credence to the notion that there can be consensus about the correct answer to an emotional problem. Mayer, Salovey, Caruso and Sitarenios (2001) discuss a method of measuring emotional intelligence (via the MSCEIT v. 2.0) in which they utilize expert consensus, such that they gather emotions experts from various countries and across demographic characteristics, and have them provide their correct answers to the emotional problems posed in the measure. The group of experts is better able to assess the correct answer because their training enables them to more accurately determine the consensus than members of the non-expert group.

In order to meet the correlational criterion, Mayer et al. (1999) demonstrated that emotional intelligence is correlated to, yet distinct from, other types of intelligence such as verbal intelligence, as measured by the Army Alpha intelligence test (Yerkes, 1921). Studies by Mayer et al. (1999, 2001) showed that adults exhibited higher levels of emotional intelligence than adolescents, and that the pattern of relationships between EI and related variables remained the same between the adolescent and adult group. Therefore emotional intelligence can be considered developmental in nature and consequently meets the third criterion for an intelligence. Moreover, Brackett and Mayer (2003) demonstrated the criterion-related validity of emotional intelligence, measured by

the MSCEIT v. 2.0, through its ability to predict negative behaviors in a group of college males after controlling for personality and verbal SAT scores.

The ability model of emotional intelligence (Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Mayer & Salovey, 1997) has spurred the development of a number of measures that unlike the MSCEIT v.2.0 are based on self- or peer-reports (e.g., Jordan, Ashkanasy, Härtel & Hooper, 2002; Wong & Law, 2002). In fact, Ashkanasy and Daus (2005) classify such measures as a new stream of research on emotional intelligence. However, as Conte and Dean (2006) point out, self-report measures based on the ability model may be best characterized as measures of self-perceptions of emotional abilities rather than as measures of EI abilities (Barchard & Hakstian, 2004). Spector and Johnson (2006) suggest that self-report measures of emotional intelligence may reflect emotional self-efficacy rather than emotional intelligence itself, but these are empirical questions that should be addressed in future research.

Wong and Law (2002) developed a self-report measure of emotional intelligence (Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale, WLEIS) that derives its four dimensions from the Salovey and Mayer (1990) conceptualization of emotional intelligence. Consequently, Wong and Law's (2002) dimensions are (1) appraisal and recognition of emotion in the self (self-emotional appraisal); (2) appraisal and recognition of emotion in others (others' emotional appraisal); (3) regulation of emotion in the self (regulation of emotion); and (4) use of emotion to facilitate performance (use of emotion). Contrary to the Mayer and Salovey ability measures of emotional intelligence, the WLEIS does not assess an individual's ability to solve emotional problems. Instead, it measures self-perceptions of emotional intelligence or emotional self-efficacy.

According to Wong and Law's (2002) theoretical framework, employees who are high in emotional intelligence should be able to effectively engage in emotion regulation to satisfy organizational display rules with greater ease and effectiveness. Employees high on the first two dimensions will be more aware of their emotions and those of their customers. Consequently, they will recognize the need to engage in emotional labor in order to satisfy display rules and contribute to a positive service experience for the customer. Individuals high on the third and fourth dimensions should be skilled emotion laborers because they possess the ability to quickly adapt to the conflict between felt and expressed emotions. Accordingly, employees high in emotional intelligence are more likely to utilize deep acting because it is the more effective strategy to produce the emotions required by the display rules. While emotional intelligence is a multidimensional construct, it is prudent to consider the overall abstraction, as it is the driver of the abilities within each dimension (Côté, 2005; Law, Wong & Mobley, 1998; Wong & Law, 2002).

Côté (2005) provides some initial findings that support the relationship between emotional intelligence and deep acting. He reports that individuals with high emotional intelligence were more likely to engage in deep acting during interpersonal interactions. Côté's (2005) findings are among the first to directly link emotional intelligence to the emotional labor strategies, and serve as a good starting point for further exploration of the relationship between these two constructs. Given that the emotional labor strategies are posited to have differential effects on individual well-being and performance, emotional intelligence is thought to be a vital characteristic that enables an individual to appropriately match the strategy to the situation (Feldman Barrett & Gross, 2001).

*H1a: Emotional intelligence will be positively related to deep acting.*

*H1b: Emotional intelligence will be negatively related to surface acting.*

### *Affectivity*

Affective traits serve as predispositions to particular emotional responses (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Positive affectivity indicates the extent to which a person feels enthusiastic and optimistic, whereas negative affectivity corresponds to pessimism and aversive mood states (Watson & Tellegen, 1985; Grandey, 2000). Morris and Feldman (1996) contend that an individual's predisposition to experience positive or negative affect will influence emotional dissonance. That is, if the organizationally prescribed emotions conflict with an employee's affectivity (positive or negative), then emotional dissonance will occur more often, therefore, individuals whose display rule requirements are congruent with their affective states should experience fewer negative outcomes. Brotheridge and Lee (2003) posited that affectivity corresponds to both the range and intensity of emotions displayed, and the use of surface or deep acting. Individuals with high levels of affectivity may have greater trouble, concealing their feelings with surface acting and realigning their feelings through deep acting, than individuals with low affectivity (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003). Therefore, an individual who is high in positive affectivity may not fit well in a job that required the expression of negative emotions, such as a bill collector. Conversely, an individual high in negative affectivity may not be the best choice for the job of a customer service representative.

Research has consistently found a positive relationship between negative affectivity and surface acting (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Brotheridge & Lee, 2003; Johnson, 2004; Gosserand & Diefendorff, 2005); such that it appears that high negative-

affect individuals are more likely to fake or suppress their emotions than to modify their feelings in order to stick to display rules. However, findings on affectivity and deep acting have not been so clear – only two known studies report findings. Johnson (2004) found that positive affectivity and deep acting were positively associated, and while deep acting and negative affectivity were negatively related, this relationship was non-significant. Similarly, Gosserand and Diefendorff (2005) reported a positive relationship between positive affectivity and deep acting, and a negative, albeit non-significant, relationship between negative affectivity and deep acting. As there are so few findings about two constructs that exist within the same nomological network, it is important that further research examines the relationship between affectivity and the emotional labor strategies, especially deep acting.

It is expected that individuals high in positive affectivity are more inclined to employ deep acting to meet positive display rules because modification of their currently negative or neutral state to a more disposition-appropriate positive state, should reduce emotional dissonance and its attendant negative consequences. On the other hand, individuals with high negative affectivity should be more prone to engage in surface acting to meet positive display rules, because such a strategy only modifies the expression of emotion, not the experience of emotion. These hypotheses are proposed in the context of integrative organizational display rules that mandate the expression of positive emotion and suppression of negative emotion.

*H2a: Positive affectivity will be positively related to deep acting.*

*H2b: Positive affectivity will be negatively related to surface acting.*

*H3a: Negative affectivity will be negatively related to deep acting.*

*H3b: Negative affectivity will be positively related to surface acting.*

#### *Gender*

Hochschild's initial (1983) work on emotional labor focused on female flight attendants. She noted that women significantly outnumber men in the service industry. Her initial concern was that, due to their numerical superiority in service work, the negative aspects of emotional labor were disproportionately affecting women. Women have maintained their numerical superiority within service occupations as the Current Population Survey (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2005) estimates that two-thirds of employees in service occupations are indeed female. However, contrary to Hochschild's (1983) original concern, Wharton's (1993) research has demonstrated that women who perform jobs requiring emotional labor are significantly more satisfied than men who perform the same type of job. This contradictory finding implies that perhaps women are better socialized to handle the interpersonal demands of emotion management in service work, and this competency may lead them to have a more positive experience than their male counterparts. Rafaeli (1989) also posits sex-role socialization as an explanation for higher display of positive emotions by female convenience store clerks. Alternatively, more positive expression of emotion may be due to women's superiority at expressing emotions, that is, both male and female clerks may be trying to adhere to the positive organizational display rules, but females are more successful due to their superior ability to express emotions (Rafaeli, 1989; Hall & Halberstadt, 1981).

Research by Bulan, Erickson and Wharton (1997) demonstrated that effectiveness in working with people was more important to job success for women than for men. This perceived effectiveness in working with people was associated with positive feelings

about work for women, but not for men. Bulan et al. (1997) suggested that the people-oriented nature of service work is more closely related to women's traditional care-taking role, so the authenticity felt by women involved in such roles contributes to their positive feelings about service work. Along those lines, Pugh (2002) referred to service work as gendered, that is, stereotyped feminine behaviors like friendliness, deference, and flirting are all hallmarks of good service (Hall, 1993; Hochschild, 1983).

Interestingly, Gross and John (1998) found that women scored higher than men on the three core dimensions of emotional expressivity – positive expressivity, negative expressivity and impulse intensity (strength of response tendencies). On the other hand, they found that men reported more masking of their emotions than women, in essence, men reported more suppression of the type employed in surface acting. Subsequent research by Gross and John (2003) also demonstrated that men suppress more than women. Furthermore, Pugh (2002) pointed out that women are likely to display more positive and negative emotions in the service encounter. While organizational display rules support the display of positive emotions, display of negative emotions is often a sanction-worthy event (Van Maanen & Kunda, 1989). Due to females' greater tendency to display stronger positive and negative emotions than males they may have to engage in more emotion regulation in order to adhere to the integrative display rules.

Research has demonstrated a relationship between gender and emotional dissonance, such that women reported more cases in which they felt differently than they expressed (Kruml & Geddes, 1998). It is possible that while more satisfied, women may have higher levels of stress or psychological ailments that are related to their more frequent and successful emotion regulation. The contradictory research on the effects of

emotional labor on women may be explained by whether they engage in deep acting or surface acting. Deep acting may enable women to experience positive emotions, which correspond to outcomes such as job satisfaction. Conversely, surface acting while producing the appropriate expressive behavior, does not alleviate emotional dissonance which can lead to negative outcomes such as emotional exhaustion and poor service performance (Grandey, 2003). In a recent study by Johnson and Spector (in press) women reported significantly more deep acting than men while surface acting was associated with more negative outcomes for women than for men. Specifically, women experienced more emotional exhaustion and lower affective well-being with increased surface acting. On the other hand, men actually experienced lower emotional exhaustion and slightly higher affective well-being with increased surface acting. Women may be more inclined to choose deep acting as their emotion regulation strategy, therefore when they do engage in surface acting the outcomes are more negative than for men because such regulation contradicts their preferred strategy.

While gender differences in emotion expression have been well-documented (LaFrance & Banaji, 1992), it is important to examine gender differences in preferred emotion regulation strategy as service performance often hinges upon successful emotion regulation. Gender role socialization may better equip women to adhere to organizational display rules as they often coincide with societal display rules; that is, women are expected to, and usually do, display more warmth and liking cues (Bem, 1974; Rafaeli, 1989) that are consistent with the integrative display rules implemented by organizations. Consequently, when faced with emotional dissonance in a service encounter, women should be more likely to engage in deep acting in order to produce the authentic emotion

required by the display rules. However, given that socialization arguably predisposes women to feel and display integrative emotions, engaging in surface acting should be more detrimental than for men because the discord created by surface acting magnifies their lack of adherence to both sets of display rules (societal and organizational). Therefore, it is also expected that women who engage in surface acting will experience more negative outcomes than men who choose this method of emotion regulation.

*H4a: Females will be more likely than males to engage in deep acting.*

*H4b: Males will be more likely than females to engage in surface acting.*

## *Consequences*

### *Emotional exhaustion*

Emotional exhaustion is a specific stress-related reaction, and it is considered a key component of burnout (Maslach, 1982). Emotional exhaustion is the state of depleted energy caused by excessive emotional demands made on people interacting with customers or clients (Saxton, Phillips & Blakeney, 1991), and involves “feelings of being emotionally overextended and exhausted by one’s work” (Maslach, Jackson & Leiter, 1996, p. 4). Research by Wharton (1993) has shown that although jobs requiring emotional labor do not place employees at greater risk of emotional exhaustion than other jobs, all else being equal, emotional labor does result in negative consequences under some circumstances. Kruml and Geddes (2000) demonstrated that surface acting (which they conceptualized as dissonance) was more strongly related to emotional exhaustion than deep acting (conceptualized as effort). Brotheridge and Grandey (2002) found that surface acting was positively related to emotional exhaustion while deep acting showed almost no relationship. In an experience sampling study of call-center employees, Totterdell and Holman (2003) demonstrated that surface acting was more positively associated with emotional exhaustion than deep acting. In addition, Grandey, Fisk and Steiner (2005) also found that surface acting was positively related to emotional exhaustion. Finally, Johnson and Spector’s (in press) recent findings also support this notion, that is, surface acting was positively related to emotional exhaustion, while deep acting exhibited a negative relationship with emotional exhaustion. Therefore, it is likely

the choice of emotional labor strategy that influences an employee's level of emotional exhaustion.

*H5a: Deep acting will be negatively related to emotional exhaustion.*

*H5b: Surface acting will be positively related to emotional exhaustion.*

As addressed in the previous section, recent research has demonstrated that gender serves to moderate the impact of surface acting on individual outcomes (Johnson & Spector, in press). Therefore, it is also expected that women who engage in surface acting will experience more negative outcomes than men who choose this method of emotion regulation.

*H5c: Gender moderates the relationships between surface acting and emotional exhaustion. Females who surface act will experience more emotional exhaustion than males.*

#### *Job satisfaction*

Job satisfaction is an attitudinal variable that gauges how an employee feels about his or her job. Early research on the relationship between emotional labor and job satisfaction found both positive (Adelmann, 1995; Wharton, 1993) and negative relationships (Abraham, 1998; Morris & Feldman, 1997). These findings may be explained by the emotional labor strategy employed, for instance, surface acting may lead to feelings of inauthenticity and consequently job dissatisfaction. Conversely, if an employee engages in deep acting this may lead to feelings of personal accomplishment and by extension, job satisfaction (Kruml & Geddes, 2000). In fact, Wolcott-Burnam (2004) found that job satisfaction was negatively related to surface acting and positively related to deep acting. Grandey et al. (2005) also report a negative relationship between

surface acting and job satisfaction. Further, a recent meta-analysis by Bono and Vey (2005) indicates that the type of emotional labor matters; that is, surface acting was negatively related to job satisfaction, while deep acting displayed a non-significant relationship with job satisfaction.

*H6a: Deep acting will be positively related to job satisfaction.*

*H6b: Surface acting will be negatively related to job satisfaction.*

Based on recent finding that gender moderates the impact of surface acting on individual outcomes (Johnson & Spector, in press), it is expected that women who engage in surface acting will experience more negative outcomes than men who employ this emotional labor strategy.

*H6c: Gender moderates the relationships between surface acting and job satisfaction. Females who surface act will experience lower job satisfaction than males.*

### *Service performance*

Employee performance encompasses voluntary behaviors that are relevant to organizational goals (Campbell, McCloy, Oppler & Sager, 1993). In particular, employee service performance involves behaviors that serve and help customers (Liao & Chuang, 2004). Display rules make emotion regulation a critical part of service performance because conforming to them requires employee planning and effort (Pugh, 2002). Emotional labor, when it serves to induce the appropriate feelings in customers, should result in good service performance (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). Typically, positive emotional expressions lead to better service performance. However, insincere emotional expressions, if perceived as such by customers, result in poor service

performance (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). Given that deep acting modifies the employee's feelings to approximate the expressed emotion, this type of display is less likely to be perceived as disingenuous. Conversely, surface acting involves just the modification of expressed emotion, so it is still possible for the negative feelings to leak out through other channels of nonverbal communication or tone of voice (Grandey, 2000; Ekman & Friesen, 1969). Grandey (2003) found that affective delivery (expression of positive emotions in a service interaction) was positively related to deep acting and negatively related to surface acting. In addition, Totterdell and Holman (2003) report that deep acting was positively associated with display of positive emotions and service performance while surface acting did not demonstrate such a relationship. Similarly, Wolcott-Burnam (2004) reported that deep acting was positively related to coworker ratings of service performance. Therefore, choice of emotional labor strategy should predict service performance, such that, service performance will be positively related to deep acting and negatively related to surface acting.

*H7a: Deep acting will be positively related to service performance.*

*H7b: Surface acting will be negatively related to service performance.*

### *Current Study*

This study contributes to the emotional labor literature by advancing the understanding of some antecedents and consequences of emotional labor strategies. First, the examination of affectivity and emotional intelligence as antecedents to the emotional labor strategies is somewhat novel as only a few other studies have done so (see Gosserand & Diefendorff, 2005; Côté, 2005). In addition, the simultaneous examination of these variables allows for the investigation of their unique predictive contributions to the emotional labor process. Secondly, this study compares three measures of emotional labor strategies in an effort to broaden the scope of the construct and provide more details about how the emotional labor strategies impact the individual and the organization. Brotheridge and Lee's (2003) Emotional Labour Scale (ELS) has been the most widely used measure of emotional labor research and I utilized their deep acting and surface acting subscales. This study also uses the Emotion Regulation Questionnaire developed by Gross and John (2003) that assesses the reappraisal and suppression processes that are analogous to deep acting and surface acting (Grandey, 2000). Grandey's (2003) measure of antecedent- and response-focused emotion regulation was also used in this study. While Grandey's (2003) measure is based in part on Brotheridge and Lee's (2003) ELS, she provides a number of unique items that warrant comparison to the other measures. The inclusion of these three measures allows for a unique comparison that can help further refine the measurement of the emotional labor strategies.

A third contribution of this study is the examination of the link between emotional labor strategies and service performance. The emotional labor concept evolved from the notion that organizations wanted their service employees to manage their emotions for a wage and that this practice would be detrimental to employee well-being (Hochschild, 1983). As such, most of the emotional labor research has investigated the personal consequences of managing one's emotions to adhere to organizational display rules, and far fewer studies have examined the impact of emotional labor strategies on service performance – a very important organizational outcome (for exceptions see Grandey, 2003; Gosserand & Diefendorff, 2005).

Finally, as emotional labor is an intra-individual process, most studies have solely employed a self-report approach (for exceptions see Grandey, 2003 and Gosserand & Diefendorff, 2005). In order to minimize the potential of shared biases between reports of emotional labor and performance, this study obtained supervisor reports of employee service performance. Moreover, tapping into the supervisor as an alternative source of data should provide better measurement of service performance as it is perceived by others (Borucki & Burke, 1999). For this study the service performance construct was assessed with measures of affective delivery and task performance in an effort to adequately cover the relevant performance criterion space.

## Method

### *Participants*

A sample of 280 employees and 223 supervisors participated in this study. A criterion for participation in the study was that participants must have engaged in a significant amount of customer interaction as a part of their job, so this sample should be representative of customer service employees across a number of different organizations. For this study, 595 employee-supervisor survey packets were distributed to full-time employees in undergraduate classes at the University of South Florida. This data collection effort yielded 280 usable employee surveys and 223 usable supervisor surveys for respective response rates of 47 percent and 38 percent.

The employee sample was 74 percent female and had an overall mean age of 22, with a range from 18 to 60. Average tenure for the employees was one year and eight months and ranged from three weeks to ten years and eight months. Approximately 64 percent of the employee sample was White, 15 percent Hispanic, 13 percent Black, 3 percent Asian, and 5 percent Other. The supervisors were more evenly split according to gender with women accounting for 57 percent and men for 43 percent of the sample. The mean age for supervisors was 36 and ranged from 19 to 62. On average, tenure was longer for supervisors (about six years) and ranged from one month to almost 40 years. Ethnicity varied less among supervisors with 72 percent White, 9 percent Hispanic, 7 percent Black, 4 percent Asian and 8 percent Other.

## *Measures*

*Measures of Emotional Labor and Emotion Regulation (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003; Grandey, 2003; Gross & John, 2003; Appendix A)*

Three established scales were utilized in this study in order to broadly cover the emotional labor strategies of deep acting and surface acting. These three scales are used to gain a better understanding of the emotional labor strategies and to replicate previous findings. Deep acting can be achieved through reappraisal and positive refocus, while surface acting can operate through suppression and emotive faking. Three items from Brotheridge and Lee's (2003) Emotional Labour Scale (ELS) cover the positive refocus construct, and six items from Gross and John's (2003) Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (ERQ) cover the reappraisal construct – for a total of nine items that assess the deep acting construct. Four items from the ERQ as well as two items from the ELS measure the suppression component of surface acting, while emotive faking is captured by five items from Grandey (2003) – for a total of 11 items measuring the surface acting construct.

For the Emotional Labour Scale (ELS), the dimensions of interest are measured with a five-point Likert response scale (1 = *never*, 5 = *always*). Participants are asked to answer items in response to the stem question, “On an average day at work, how often do you do each of the following when interacting with customers?” Higher average scores on each of the subscales represent higher levels of the dimension being assessed. The three items in the deep acting subscale assess how much an employee has to modify

feelings to comply with display rules. The following represents a sample item from the deep acting subscale, “Make an effort to actually feel the emotions that I need to display to others.” The surface acting dimension consists of three items that measure the extent to which the employee has to express emotions that are not felt and suppress feelings that conflict with display rules. Two of the items from the surface acting dimension address suppression, while the other item addresses emotive faking. The following represents a sample item from the surface acting subscale, “Hide my true feelings about a situation.” Brotheridge and Lee (2002) reported acceptable coefficient alphas for the deep acting and surface acting subscales ( $\alpha = 0.89$ ,  $\alpha = 0.86$ ).

Grandey’s (2003) antecedent-focused and response-focused emotion regulation measure consists of three items to measure antecedent-focused emotion regulation, which corresponds to deep acting, and five items to measure response-focused emotion regulation, which corresponds to surface acting. The three deep acting items closely parallel Brotheridge and Lee’s (2003) deep acting subscale so they will not be used in this study. The emphasis here is on the antecedent-focused emotion regulation items that address the emotive faking construct. Items assess the extent to which employees have to engage in these behaviors to effectively perform their job. A sample item would be “I put on an act in order to deal with customers.” A five-point Likert scale is used where one corresponds to *never* and five corresponds to *always*. Grandey (2003) reported acceptable coefficient alphas for the deep acting and surface acting subscales ( $\alpha = 0.79$ ,  $\alpha = 0.88$ ).

Gross and John’s (2003) Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (ERQ) assesses individual differences in expressive suppression and cognitive reappraisal with a seven-

point Likert response scale (1 = *strongly disagree*; 7 = *strongly agree*). Items measure emotional experience, or feelings, and emotional expressions, in the form of speech, gestures and behaviors. The suppression subscale consists of four items (e.g., “I control my emotions by *not expressing them*.”). The reappraisal subscale is comprised of six items, for instance, “When I want to feel more *positive* emotion (such as joy/amusement), *I change what I’m thinking about*.” Gross and John (2003) reported acceptable alphas for the reappraisal and suppression subscales ( $\alpha = 0.79$ ,  $\alpha = 0.73$ ).

As discussed, the refocus (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003) and reappraisal measures (Gross & John, 2003) were both utilized to cover the deep acting construct for the correlational analyses. However, in the interest of parsimony, these two measures were combined to represent an overall deep acting construct for examination of the hypothesized model with the structural equation modeling. Similarly, the emotive faking (Grandey, 2003) and suppression (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003; Gross & John, 2003) measures were employed separately to cover the surface acting construct in the correlational analyses, but combined to represent an overall surface acting construct in the hypothesized model. All four separate measures of the emotional labor strategies demonstrated acceptable internal consistency reliabilities (refocus,  $\alpha = .88$ ; reappraisal,  $\alpha = .74$ ; faking,  $\alpha = .90$ ; suppression,  $\alpha = .69$ ). In addition, the composite measures of deep acting (refocus and reappraisal) and surface acting (faking and suppression) also demonstrated acceptable alphas ( $\alpha = .76$  and  $.81$ , respectively).

*Emotional Intelligence Scale* (Wong & Law, 2002; Appendix B). This scale measures individual differences in the ability to identify and regulate emotions in the self and others. The scale consists of 16 items in a six-point Likert format where one

corresponds to *strongly disagree* and six corresponds to *strongly agree*. High average scores should correspond to high levels of emotional intelligence. A sample item would be “I am sensitive to the feelings and emotions of others”. The internal consistency reliability for this scale was 0.87. This measure of emotional intelligence demonstrates good convergence with two measures of emotional intelligence, the Trait Meta-Mood Scale (Salovey, Mayer, Goldman, Turvey & Palfai, 1995) and the EQ-I (Bar On, 1997). When correlated with the Big Five personality dimensions this scale demonstrated smaller correlations in comparison to the EQ-I, thus demonstrating its discriminant validity. Also in support of its discriminant validity, this measure had minimal correlations with a measure of IQ by Eysenck (1990). In contrast to the Trait Meta-Mood Scale, this measure was able to explain incremental variance in predicting life satisfaction above the Big Five dimensions.

*Positive Affectivity Negative Affectivity Scale (PANAS: Watson, Clark & Tellegen, 1988; Appendix C).* The PANAS measures both positive and negative affectivity using a five-point Likert format that ranges from *very slightly or not at all* to *extremely*. Higher scores on positive or negative affectivity correspond to higher levels of positive and negative traits, respectively. For each of the 20 items, participants are asked to choose a response that best indicates how they feel on average. The items consisted of ten emotion words for each type of affectivity, for instance, positive affectivity items include *interested* and *excited*, while negative affectivity items include *distressed* and *upset*. Watson et al. (1988) report acceptable internal consistency reliabilities for both the positive and negative affectivity scales ( $\alpha = 0.88$ ,  $\alpha = 0.87$ ) that are almost identical to the alphas ( $\alpha = 0.87$ ,  $\alpha = 0.87$ ) obtained for these measures in this study.

*Emotional Exhaustion (Maslach & Jackson, 1986; Appendix D).* Nine items comprise the emotional exhaustion subscale of the Maslach Burnout Inventory. The measure assesses how often respondents report feeling the symptoms of emotional exhaustion at work. A sample item is, “I feel emotionally drained at work.” The scale employs a seven-point Likert format that ranges from *never* to *every day*. Higher mean scores on this measure suggest high levels of emotional exhaustion ( $\alpha = 0.93$ ).

*Job Satisfaction Subscale of Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins & Klesh, 1979; Appendix E).* This measure consists of three items that assess overall job satisfaction and demonstrated an acceptable alpha in this study ( $\alpha = 0.89$ ). A six-point Likert response scale is used where one corresponds to *strongly disagree* and six corresponds to *strongly agree*. A higher mean score indicates overall satisfaction with the job. A sample item is, “All in all, I’m satisfied with my job.”

*Service Performance Measures. (McLellan, Schmit, Amundson & Blake, 1998 as modified by Grandey, 2003; Williams & Anderson, 1991; Appendices F & G).* Two established scales were utilized in this study in order to broadly cover the construct of service performance. The affective delivery measure was adapted by Grandey (2003) from a “secret shopper” service rating measure developed by McLellan et al. (1998). Six items capture positive affective delivery by requiring supervisors to address qualities such as service employees’ display of friendliness and warmth during interactions with customers. A sample item would be, “This person treats customers with courtesy, respect and politeness.” This measure utilizes a five-point Likert format (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*) and displays acceptable internal consistency reliability ( $\alpha = .87$ ).

Grandey (2003) also reports a satisfactory alpha for the self-report version of this measure of affective delivery ( $\alpha = .88$ ).

The task performance measure consists of seven items that assess the extent to which an employee exhibits prescribed task performance. A seven-point Likert response scale is used where one corresponds to *strongly disagree* and seven corresponds to *strongly agree*. Supervisors responded with respect to their employee's general service performance, for example "My staff member adequately completes assigned tasks."

Rank (2006) reports an adequate alpha for this measure ( $\alpha = .91$ ). The internal consistency reliability for the task performance measure was acceptable ( $\alpha = .80$ ). As with the emotional labor strategy measures, the affective delivery and task performance measures were utilized separately for the correlational analyses, but combined to form a composite service performance measure for examination of the hypothesized model. The composite service performance measure also demonstrated a satisfactory alpha ( $\alpha = .86$ ).

*Demographic Information (Appendix H)*. Five items were included to assess the gender, ethnicity, age, job tenure and type of service job of respondents. The tenure, job type and age items were open-ended, while respondents chose either male or female for gender and Asian, Black, Hispanic, White or Other for ethnicity.

### *Procedure*

Participants were recruited during undergraduate classes and through the Psychology department research participant pool. In order to ensure an adequate number of participants, undergraduate students were also recruited to distribute the survey packets to full-time customer service employees. The survey packets contained separate envelopes for the employee and the supervisor, inside of each was a letter that described the study and instructions on how to complete the surveys. Employees and supervisors returned the surveys via postal mail in postage-paid business reply envelopes. The surveys were coded in order to match the employee and supervisor surveys. Participants in some classes received credit toward their courses for each completed employee survey and for each completed supervisor survey returned. In order to award credit each student was associated with the code on the survey packet, so that credit could be assigned to the appropriate student once those surveys were returned. Anonymity was maintained as the researcher was unable to identify the employee or supervisor to whom the student gave the packet, only that the surveys associated with the student were returned. Most participants received a pen as a small gift in exchange their time.

### *Analyses*

Structural equation modeling (SEM) was used to test the proposed model with LISREL 8.5 being used to obtain the covariance matrices necessary to test the model and maximum likelihood (ML) estimation was employed for all procedures. The structural equation modeling provided path coefficients to assess the relationships posited in the

model. The covariances were not estimated for the error terms. Correlation analyses were used to test the majority of hypotheses, while moderated regression analyses were conducted for the hypotheses that involved gender as a moderator of the relationship between the emotional labor strategies and the outcome variables.

## Results

Table 1 summarizes the results for each of the study hypotheses. The means, standard deviations, observed and possible ranges, as well as the Cronbach's alphas for each scale variable are presented in Table 2. All of the scales demonstrated internal consistency reliability from  $\alpha = 0.69$  to 0.93, where an alpha of 0.70 is the minimum considered acceptable (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Table 3 displays the zero order correlations among all study variables. Both forms of deep acting (refocus and reappraisal) and both forms of surface acting (faking and suppression) displayed opposing relationships with all variables thereby supporting the majority of the study hypotheses involving correlation analyses.

Four of the hypotheses dealt with the relationship between the emotional labor strategies and the proposed antecedents, emotional intelligence, positive and negative affectivity and gender. Hypothesis 1a was fully supported as emotional intelligence was positively related to both the refocus and reappraisal forms of deep acting, indicating that individuals with higher perceived emotional intelligence were more likely to refocus and reappraise in order to obey display rules than those with lower perceived emotional intelligence. Hypothesis 1b received partial support as the negative relationship between emotional intelligence and surface acting was significant for faking but not for suppression. Thus, individuals with lower perceived EI reported faking their emotions more often than those with higher perceived emotional intelligence. As predicted in Hypothesis 2, positive affectivity displayed opposing relationships with the emotional

labor strategies such that employees predisposed to experience positive affect were significantly more likely to refocus and reappraise in order to obey positive display rules than to fake or suppress their emotions. Conversely, employees high in negative affectivity were significantly more likely to utilize surface acting (faking and suppression) to adhere to positive display rules than to deep act (refocus). The reappraisal form of deep acting was not significantly related to negative affectivity, so Hypothesis 3 was only partially supported. Hypothesis 4 proposed that choice of emotional labor strategy differed by gender, and indeed females were significantly more likely to report engaging in deep acting (refocus and reappraisal) than males with the opposite being true for surface acting (faking and suppression) where males are more likely to report faking their emotions than women in order to positive obey display rules.

The final three hypotheses dealt with the relationships between the emotional labor strategies and the three proposed outcomes of emotional exhaustion, job satisfaction and customer service performance. Hypotheses 5a and 5b were supported as higher levels of deep acting (refocus and reappraisal) were associated with lower levels of emotional exhaustion, while higher levels of surface acting (faking and suppression) corresponded with higher levels of emotional exhaustion. Job satisfaction was positively related to both forms of deep acting (refocus and reappraisal), but negatively related to both forms of surface acting (faking and suppression) providing support for Hypotheses 6a and 6b. Hypotheses 7a and 7b were partially supported as affective delivery was significantly related to deep and surface acting; however task performance was only significantly related to deep acting. Specifically, affective delivery was positively related

to refocus and reappraisal and negatively related to faking and suppression; while task performance was positively related to refocus and reappraisal.

With respect to the moderated regression analyses, both of the hypotheses were fully supported for the faking aspect of surface acting. For Hypothesis 5c, emotional exhaustion was regressed on faking, the proposed moderator, gender and the interaction between faking and gender. As shown in Table 4, both the  $R^2$  and the  $b$  weight for the interaction were significant ( $b = -.55, p < .05$ ). For women, as faking increased there was a sharper increase in emotional exhaustion than for men (Figure 2). Similarly, at high levels of faking, females reported lower job satisfaction than males at the same level of faking, and the converse occurred at low levels of faking, thereby supporting Hypothesis 6c (see Figure 3).

In the interest of parsimony, composite measures of the emotional labor strategies and service performance were utilized to examine the overall hypothesized model. As expected, the two measures of deep acting, reappraisal and refocus were positively related ( $r = .30, p < .05$ ), as were the two measures of surface acting, faking and suppression ( $r = .24, p < .05$ ). These composite measures of deep acting and surface acting also exhibited acceptable internal consistency reliabilities ( $\alpha = .76; \alpha = .81$ ). Similarly, the measures of affective delivery and task performance were also positively related ( $r = .36, p < .05$ ) and the alpha for the composite service performance measure was satisfactory ( $\alpha = .81$ ).

Table 5 presents overall goodness of fit measures such as chi-square, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), expected cross-validation index (ECVI), normed fit index (NFI), Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) and the comparative fit index (CFI)

for the hypothesized model. The chi-square test examines the null hypothesis that the proposed model holds exactly in the population, and there was a significant chi-square which indicates that the proposed model is not completely plausible. The RMSEA examines the error of approximation in the population and addresses the question of how well the proposed model with optimally chosen parameter values would fit the population covariance matrix. MacCallum, Browne and Sugawara (1996) suggest that RMSEA values between 0.05 and 0.08 indicate good to reasonable fit, and values between 0.08 and 0.10 represent mediocre fit, while those values above 0.10 indicate poor fit. The RMSEA value for the hypothesized model is 0.068, therefore this model demonstrates good to reasonable fit.

The ECVI assesses the likelihood that the model will cross-validate across similarly sized samples from the same population (Browne & Cudeck, 1989). There is no predetermined range of appropriate values for the ECVI, but the lower the values the better the potential for replication. The hypothesized model has a somewhat low value for the ECVI, thereby suggesting that this model may have a chance for replication. The NFI, TLI, and CFI are measures of practical fit and values greater than 0.90 are considered to indicate acceptable fit. For the hypothesized model, the NFI value approached acceptable fit, while the TLI and CFI values can be considered acceptable. Power was estimated by utilizing the sample size and degrees of freedom for each proposed model. For the hypothesized model the degrees of freedom were 480, so with the sample size of 198, the power estimate approximated 0.90 ( $df = 100, N = 200$ ).

In addition to the overall goodness of fit measures for the hypothesized structural model, specific parameter estimates for most of the paths denoted by the study

hypotheses were obtained during the SEM analyses. Specifically, the relationships between gender and the emotional labor strategies were not included in the structural model as gender is a measured variable and structural models are only comprised of latent variables. The hypothesized structural model is comprised of paths from the antecedents (emotional intelligence, positive affectivity and negative affectivity) to the emotional labor strategies (deep acting and surface acting), which then have paths to the consequences (emotional exhaustion, job satisfaction, and service performance). Of the twelve paths in the structural model, eight of them were significant, which further bolsters the support for this hypothesized model of the antecedents and consequences of the emotional labor strategies (see Figure 4).

Contrary to correlation results for Hypothesis 1, emotional intelligence did not have significant paths to deep acting or surface acting. However, the positive path between positive affectivity and deep acting ( $\beta = .43$ ) further corroborates the significant findings of Hypothesis 2a. On the other hand, positive affectivity did not significantly relate to surface acting thereby contradicting the findings of Hypothesis 2b. In support of Hypothesis 3, negative affectivity did significantly relate to deep acting and surface acting in the expected directions ( $\beta = -.23$ ;  $\beta = .27$ ). In terms of the outcomes, Hypothesis 5a and 5b were also supported by the SEM findings, as deep acting negatively related to emotional exhaustion ( $\beta = -.60$ ) while surface acting positively related to emotional exhaustion ( $\beta = .35$ ). Job satisfaction was also differentially related to the emotional labor strategies, such that it was positively related to deep acting ( $\beta = .73$ ) and negatively related to surface acting ( $\beta = -.19$ ) further supporting Hypotheses 6a and 6b. Finally, only deep acting was significantly related to service performance ( $\beta =$

.35) thereby lending further support to Hypothesis 7a, but not to Hypothesis 7b. For completeness, Figure 5 displays the indicators for the measurement as well as for the structural model.

## Discussion

The purpose of this study was to investigate antecedents and consequences of the emotional labor strategies of deep and surface acting in a sample of customer service employees. Specifically, the individual difference variables of emotional intelligence, affectivity and gender were examined as antecedents of the emotional labor strategies, while emotional exhaustion, job satisfaction and customer service performance were examined as outcomes of the emotional labor process. Indeed the majority of proposed hypotheses received support clearly demonstrating the differential relationships of the emotional labor strategies of deep acting and surface acting with the antecedents and consequences of interest in this study. This is the first study to assess the different forms of deep acting and surface acting and the findings suggest that a finer-grained analysis of these emotional labor strategies may be warranted in future research.

### *Antecedents*

All of the proposed antecedents were related to the emotional labor strategies in the expected directions. First, the finding that emotional intelligence was differentially related to the emotional labor strategies supports and extends the research of Côté (2005). That is, individuals high in perceived emotional intelligence were more likely to report employing deep acting (refocus and reappraisal) than surface acting (faking) when engaging in emotional labor. Given the differential relationships of the emotional labor strategies with individual well-being and performance, the choice of deep acting as the more effective strategy indicates that emotional intelligence may be a vital characteristic

that enables an individual to appropriately match the strategy to the situation (Feldman Barrett & Gross, 2001). One part of emotional intelligence is knowledge of emotions, and the choice of deep acting over surface acting is advantageous as deep acting is linked with improved employee well-being and service performance. That emotional intelligence was not significantly related to the suppression form of surface acting is interesting, as it suggests that individuals lower in perceived emotional intelligence, may find it easier to comply with the portion of the organizational display rule that encourages suppression of negative emotion than with the production of positive expressions via refocus, reappraisal or emotive faking.

Positive affectivity was positively related to deep acting which suggests that high positive-affect individuals are more likely to attempt to feel the requisite positive emotions dictated by organizational display rules when they experience negative emotions at work. This preference for deep acting over surface acting is likely because these individuals are generally predisposed to experience positive emotions, so on the occasions when they experience negative emotions that conflict with display rules, they are more likely to try to change their feelings via deep acting than to provide fake expressions through surface acting. Overall, integrative organizational display rules mandate the expression of positive emotion and suppression of negative emotion, so they are likely to be favorable to individuals high in positive affectivity because this approximates their natural state of being, that is in positive mood states. These findings make a unique contribution to the emotional labor literature because few studies have examined the relationship between positive affectivity and the emotional labor strategies despite their proximity with the same nomological network.

On the other hand, individuals high in negative affectivity were more likely to surface act in order to obey integrative organizational display rules, because these rules call for expressions that conflict with their general negative mood states. In this case, these individuals are more prone to negative moods, so surface acting which only modifies the expression and not the feeling would be chosen more frequently than deep acting which modifies the feeling as well as the corresponding expression.

An interesting contribution of this study is the relationship between gender and the emotional labor strategies which corresponds with the research of Johnson and Spector (in press). That is, women are more likely than men to report engaging in deep acting, while men are more likely to report engaging in surface acting than women. The correspondence of integrative organizational display rules with societal display rules that encourage women to display more warmth and positive emotions than men may contribute to women's preference for deep acting (Bem, 1974; Rafaeli, 1989). Thus, when faced with negative emotion during a service encounter, women are more likely to refocus or reappraise in order to produce the authentic positive emotion required by the organizational display rules. As such, emotive faking and suppression appear to be more detrimental for women than for men because the discord created by surface acting magnifies their lack of adherence to both sets of display rules (societal and organizational).

#### *Gender As A Moderator*

Johnson and Spector (in press) found that gender served as a moderator of the relationship between surface acting and a number of personal outcomes. This study's results are consistent with their findings, such that gender moderated the relationships

between surface acting and emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction. That is, women who reported faking their emotions reported more emotional exhaustion and less job satisfaction than men who reported faking their emotions. Faking emotions perpetuates emotional dissonance, which for women contributes to inauthenticity in two sets of roles, organizational and societal; thereby this is likely a more taxing strategy for women than for men. This heightened role inauthenticity likely contributes to the increased emotional exhaustion and reduced job satisfaction reported by women in this study. As a practical implication, female service employees who surface act may experience more negative outcomes, and therefore should be encouraged to avoid surface acting where possible.

### *Consequences*

The emotional labor strategies were related to all the proposed consequences in the hypothesized directions. The finding that both forms of surface acting (faking and suppression) were positively related to emotional exhaustion is consistent with previous research (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Johnson & Spector, in press). However, this is the first study to find significant negative relationships between the forms of deep acting (refocus and reappraisal) and emotional exhaustion perhaps suggesting that the process of deep acting, which brings the employee's emotions in line with the positive display rules, may actually contribute to reduced emotional exhaustion as employees are now experiencing positive emotions and thereby less likely to be emotionally exhausted. An implication of this finding would be that employers should provide training in deep acting as it appears to alleviate some of the negative consequences of emotional dissonance. For job satisfaction, there was a negative relationship with surface acting and a positive relationship with deep acting, such that employees who reported faking or

suppressing their emotions reported lower levels of job satisfaction than those who reported attempting to feel the requisite emotions through refocus or reappraisal. The surface acting-job satisfaction relationship corresponds to recent meta-analytic findings by Bono and Vey (2005), and this is the first known study to establish the deep acting-job satisfaction relationship.

Employees who genuinely try to experience the positive emotion that they are expected to display to customers ultimately provide better service performance (affective delivery and task performance), as rated by their supervisors. Conversely, surface actors were rated poorly on affective delivery by their supervisors. These findings are similar to those of Grandey (2003) who found that deep acting was positively and surface acting was negatively related to affective delivery, as rated by coworkers. In essence, the genuine nature of the emotions expressed by deep actors should contribute to a better service experience than the faked and suppressed emotions of surface actors.

#### *Hypothesized Model*

The overall hypothesized model has acceptable fit which provides added support for the study hypotheses. That is, the good fit of the hypothesized model lends further support to the linkages proposed between the antecedents and consequences of the emotional labor strategies. In particular, eight of twelve paths in the structural model were significant; however, the non-significant paths in the model deserve further scrutiny. While the paths from emotional intelligence to the emotional labor strategies were non-significant, they were in the expected directions. Similarly, as expected, the non-significant path between positive affectivity and surface acting was positive. However, given the existence of the emotional intelligence and affectivity constructs

within the general nomological network of affect and emotions, it is possible that multicollinearity served to attenuate the path coefficients between these predictors and the emotional labor strategies. Finally, the non-significant path between surface acting and service performance may be due to the weak correlations that exist between these variables. In fact, neither form of surface acting (faking and suppression) was significantly related to task performance, which may indicate that supervisors do not tie an employee's fake expressions of positive emotion to the more general tasks captured in the task performance measure.

#### *Limitations and Conclusions*

The cross-sectional nature of this study does serve as a limitation in that causality can not be inferred about the relationships in the model as the data were collected at one point in time. Future research should adopt a longitudinal design where the antecedents, emotional labor strategies and outcome variables are assessed at various points in time so that inferences can be made about the causal nature of these relationships. Alternatively, experience sampling methodology, in which employees respond to questions about their feelings, expressions and emotion regulation several times throughout the workday, holds promise for the future of emotional labor research (Beal, Trougakos, Weiss & Green, 2006).

Another potential limitation of this study is the concern that self-report methodology will lead to the overstatement of relationships between variables, however this is somewhat offset by the supervisor reports of service performance. It must be noted that the use of self-report measures may be appropriate in this instance because this study seeks to assess individual behaviors, attitudes and perceived outcomes.

Nevertheless, future research in this area could improve on the methods used here by including some physiological measures of distress, perhaps during the performance of emotional labor. In fact, the combination of the experience sampling methodology with physiological measures of distress would make for a very interesting examination of the emotion regulation process.

The participants for this sample were employed at a variety of service organizations, so the diversity of sources should contribute to the generalizability of these findings. Given that organizational display rules may differ across organizations, collecting data from a number of organizations facilitates the examination of emotional labor processes across varied organizational contexts. Overall, this study provides a valuable contribution to the literature on emotions in the workplace, and in particular it serves to clarify some of the antecedents and consequences of emotional labor strategies. These results also have practical implications for service organizations. Given that all service employees will experience emotional dissonance at some point, it is important to recognize that surface acting has less favorable outcomes than deep acting for both the individual and the organization; therefore deep acting should be encouraged where possible.

The findings on the antecedents suggests that service organizations should look for employees who are high in positive affectivity, low in negative affectivity and high in perceived emotional intelligence, as they are more likely to employ deep acting, which is the emotional labor strategy that related favorably to the outcomes of emotional exhaustion, job satisfaction and service performance. In conclusion, this study provides useful information to organizations in the service industry, as well as to researchers

because the negative consequences associated with performance of emotional labor can have immense personal and organizational costs. Understanding the emotional labor process and how it can result in negative consequences for employees is the first step in attempting to ameliorate the sometimes negative aspects of service work and reduce the related personal and organizational costs.

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Table 1

Summary of Results for Study Hypotheses

Hypothesis	Result
H1a: Emotional intelligence will be positively related to deep acting (refocus and reappraisal).	Supported
H1b: Emotional intelligence will be negatively related to surface acting (faking and suppression).	Partially supported
H2a: Positive affectivity will be positively related to deep acting (refocus and reappraisal).	Supported
H2b: Positive affectivity will be negatively related to surface acting (faking and suppression).	Supported
H3a: Negative affectivity will be negatively related to deep acting (refocus and reappraisal).	Partially supported
H3b: Negative affectivity will be positively related to surface acting (faking and suppression).	Supported
H4a: Females will be more likely than males to engage in deep acting (refocus and reappraisal).	Supported
H4b: Males will be more likely than females to engage in surface acting (faking and suppression).	Supported
H5a: Deep acting (refocus and reappraisal) will be negatively related to emotional exhaustion.	Supported

Table 1 (continued)

Summary of Results for Study Hypotheses

Hypothesis	Result
H5b: Surface acting (faking and suppression) will be positively related to emotional exhaustion.	Supported
H5c: Gender moderates the relationships between surface acting (faking and suppression) and emotional exhaustion. Females who surface act will experience more emotional exhaustion than males.	Supported
H6a: Deep acting (refocus and reappraisal) will be positively related to job satisfaction.	Supported
H6b: Surface acting (faking and suppression) will be negatively related to job satisfaction.	Supported
H6c: Gender moderates the relationships between surface acting (faking and suppression) and job satisfaction. Females who surface act will experience lower job satisfaction than males.	Supported
H7a: Deep acting (refocus and reappraisal) will be positively related to service performance (affective delivery and task performance).	Supported
H7b: Surface acting (faking and suppression) will be negatively related to service performance (affective delivery and task performance).	Partially supported

Table 2

## Descriptive Statistics and Cronbach's Alpha for Scale Variables

Scale	N	Mean	SD	Alpha	Range (Observed)	Range (Possible)
Refocus	277	3.71	0.78	0.88	1.00 – 5.00	1 – 5
Reappraisal	277	4.99	0.90	0.74	1.00 – 7.00	1 – 7
Deep acting	277	8.70	1.36	0.76	2.00 – 12.00	2 – 12
Faking (SA)	277	3.20	0.82	0.90	1.00 – 5.00	1 – 5
Suppression (SU)	275	3.35	1.11	0.69	1.00 – 6.50	1 – 7
Surface acting	275	6.56	1.53	0.81	2.57 – 11.11	2 – 12
Positive affectivity	279	3.57	0.67	0.87	1.10 – 5.00	1 – 5
Negative affectivity	277	1.82	0.63	0.87	1.00 – 4.20	1 – 5
Emotional intelligence	277	4.75	0.55	0.87	3.19 – 6.00	1 – 6
Emotional exhaustion	278	2.31	1.45	0.93	0.00 – 5.78	0 – 6
Job satisfaction	279	4.51	1.08	0.89	1.00 – 6.00	1 – 6
Affective delivery	222	4.58	0.46	0.87	2.83 – 5.00	1 – 5
Task performance	221	6.45	0.59	0.80	3.57 – 7.00	1 – 7
Service performance	220	11.03	0.89	0.80	7.05 – 12.00	2 – 12

Table 3

## Intercorrelations Between Study Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Refocus	-													
2. Reappraisal	.30**	-												
3. Deep acting	.78**	.84**	-											
4. Faking	-.17**	.00	-.10	-										
5. Suppression	-.27**	-.12*	-.23**	.24**	-									
6. Surface acting	-.29**	-.09	-.22**	.71**	.85**	-								
7. Emotional intelligence	.34**	.20**	.33**	-.23**	-.09	-.19**	-							
8. Positive affectivity	.33**	.14**	.29**	-.25**	-.18**	-.27**	.49**	-						
9. Negative affectivity	-.13**	-.09	-.13**	.33**	.18**	.31**	-.34**	-.15**	-					
10. Emotional exhaustion	-.22**	-.11*	-.20**	.46**	.18**	.37**	-.27**	-.35**	.37**	-				
11. Job satisfaction	.28**	.19**	.28**	-.35**	-.27**	-.38**	.31**	.41**	-.27**	-.61**	-			
12. Affective delivery	.12*	.17**	.18**	-.12*	-.14**	-.16**	.13*	.08	-.08	-.19**	.40**	-		
13. Task performance	.12*	.12*	.15**	-.02	-.07	-.06	.08	.08	-.06	-.14**	.21**	.36**	-	
14. Service performance	.14*	.16**	.19**	-.08	-.12*	-.13*	.12*	.09	-.08	-.19**	.22**	.81**	.89**	-
15. Gender	-.20**	-.14**	-.20**	.14**	.21**	.23**	-.04	.03	-.02	.01	-.01	-.15**	-.10*	-.10

\*  $p < .10$ , \*\*  $p < .05$

Table 4

## Moderated Regression Analyses

Independent variable	Emotional Exhaustion		Job Satisfaction		
		R <sup>2</sup>	b	R <sup>2</sup>	b
	H5c	.23**		H6c	.14**
Gender			1.65**		-1.45**
Faking			1.49**		-1.02**
Gender * Faking			-.55**		.46**
	H5c	.03**		H6c	.08**
Gender			.46		-.30
Suppression			.43*		-.40**
Gender * Suppression			-.15		.11

\*  $p < .10$ , \*\*  $p < .05$

Table 5

Summary of Fit Statistics for Hypothesized Model

Model	$\chi^2$	df	RMSEA	ECVI	NFI	TLI	CFI
Hypothesized	916.88	480	0.068	5.48	0.84	0.90	0.91

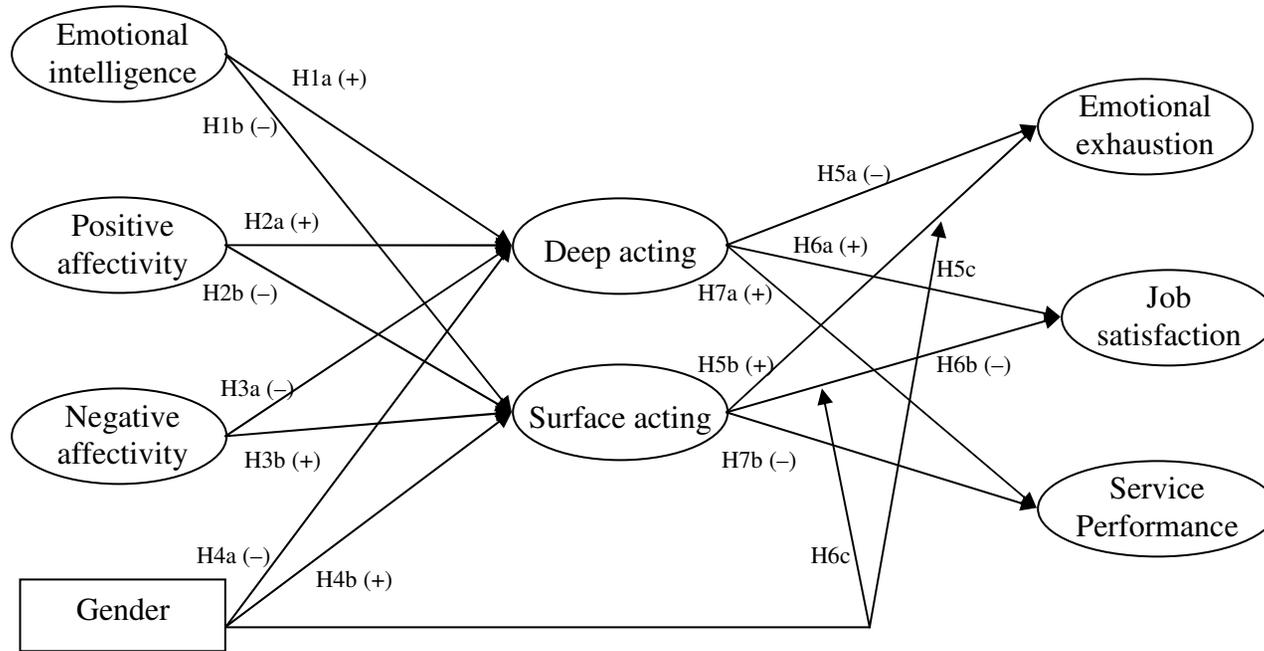
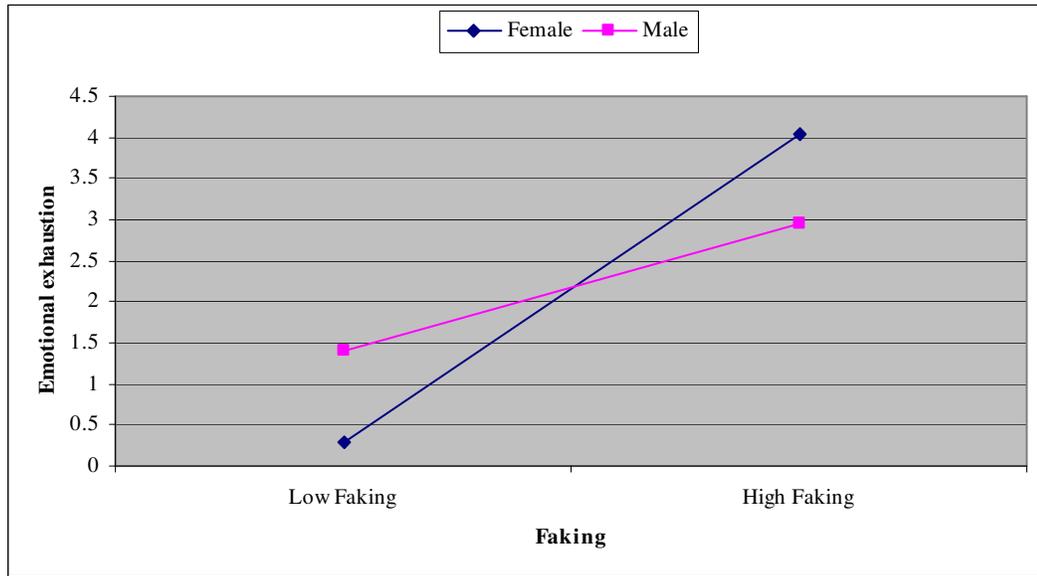


Figure 1. Overall hypothesized model of relationships between antecedents, emotional labor strategies and outcomes.



*Figure 2.* Graph of the moderating effect of gender on the relationship between faking and emotional exhaustion.

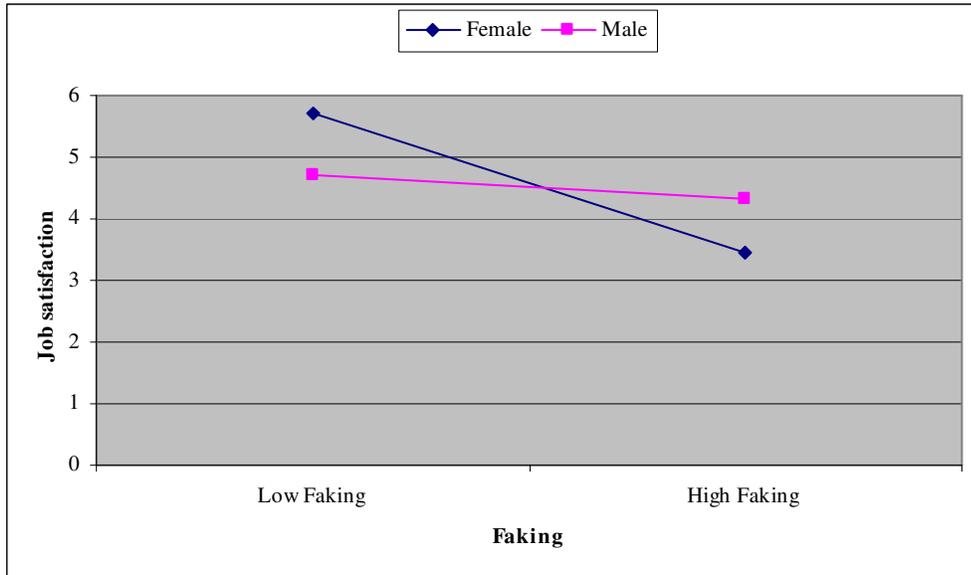


Figure 3. Graph of the moderating effect of gender on the relationship between faking and job satisfaction.

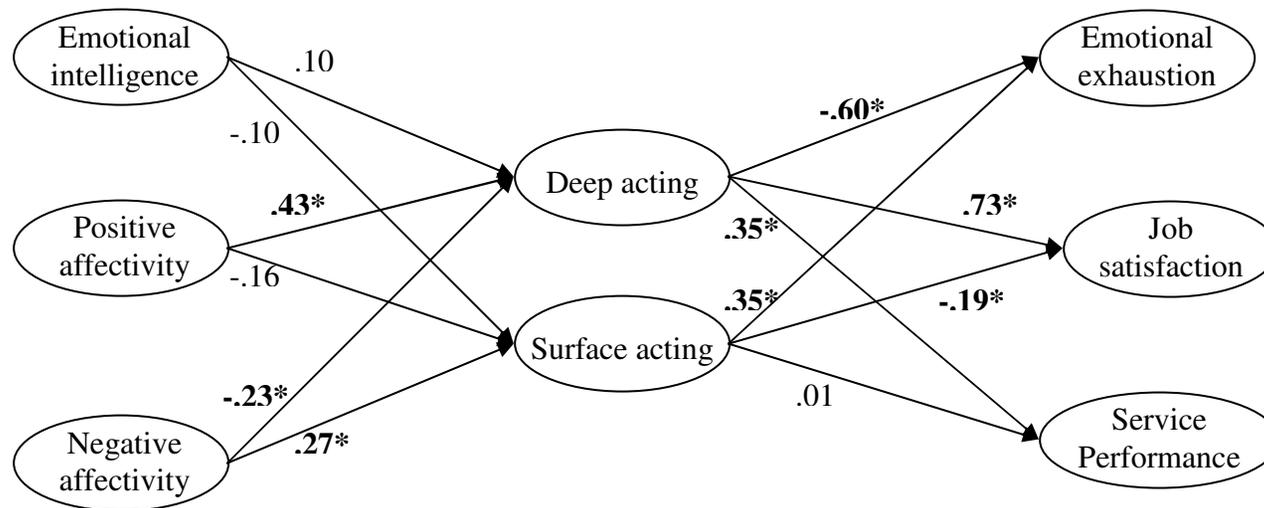


Figure 4. Hypothesized structural model of antecedents, emotional labor strategies and outcomes with path coefficients.

\*  $p < .05$

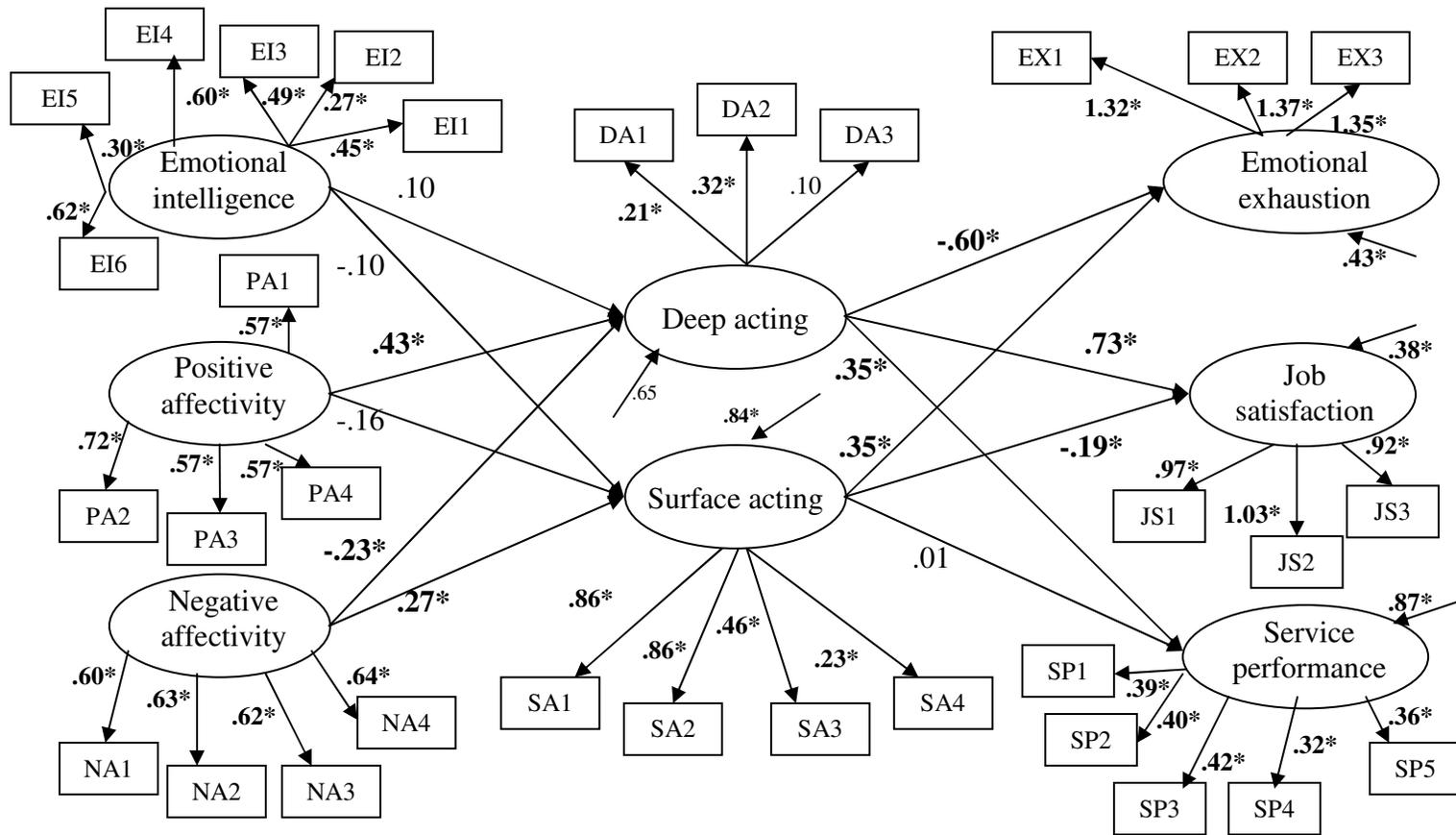


Figure 5. Hypothesized structural and measurement model of antecedents, emotional labor strategies and outcomes with path coefficients.

\*  $p < .05$

## Appendices

## Appendix A

### Deep Acting and Surface Acting Measures (Brotheridge & Lee (2003); Grandey (2003); Gross & John (2003))

<b>On an average day at work, how frequently do you do each of the following when interacting with customers?</b>		<b>Never</b>	<b>Rarely</b>	<b>Sometimes</b>	<b>Often</b>	<b>Always</b>
1	Make an effort to actually feel the emotions that I need to display to others. (D)	1	2	3	4	5
2	Try to actually experience the emotions that I must show. (D)	1	2	3	4	5
3	Really try to feel the emotions I have to show as part of my job. (D)	1	2	3	4	5
4	Resist expressing my true feelings. (S)	1	2	3	4	5
5	Hide my true feelings about a situation. (S)	1	2	3	4	5
6	Put on an act in order to deal with customers in an appropriate way. (S)	1	2	3	4	5
7	Fake a good mood when interacting with customers. (S)	1	2	3	4	5
8	Put on a “show” or “performance” when interacting with customers. (S)	1	2	3	4	5
9	Just pretend to have the emotions I need to display for my job. (S)	1	2	3	4	5
10	Put on a “mask” in order to display the emotions I need for the job. (S)	1	2	3	4	5

<b>We would like to ask you some questions about your emotional life, in particular, how you control (that is, regulate and manage) your emotions. Although some of the following questions may seem similar to one another, they differ in important ways.</b>		<b>Strongly disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Slightly disagree</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Slightly agree</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly agree</b>
1	When I want to feel more <i>positive</i> emotion (such as joy/amusement), <i>I change what I'm thinking about.</i> (D)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	When I want to feel more <i>negative</i> emotion (such as sadness/anger), <i>I change what I'm thinking about.</i> (D)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	When I'm faced with a stressful situation, I make myself <i>think about it</i> in a way that helps me stay calm. (D)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

4	When I want to feel more <i>positive</i> emotion, I <i>change the way I'm thinking</i> about the situation. (D)	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5	I control my emotions by <i>changing the way I think</i> about the situation I'm in. (D)	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6	When I want to feel more <i>negative</i> emotion, I <i>change the way I'm thinking</i> about the situation. (D)	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7	When I am feeling <i>positive</i> emotions, I am careful not to express them. (S)	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8	I control my emotions by <i>not expressing them</i> . (S)	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9	When I am feeling <i>negative</i> emotions, I make sure not to express them. (S)	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10	I keep my emotions to myself. (S)	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Appendix B  
Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale  
(Wong & Law, 2002)

	<b>Please circle the <i>one</i> number for each question that comes closest to reflecting your opinion About it.</b>	<b>Strongly disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Slightly disagree</b>	<b>Slightly agree</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly agree</b>
1	I have a good sense of why I have certain feelings most of the time	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	I have good understanding of my own emotions	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	I really understand what I feel	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	I always know whether or not I am happy	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	I always know my friends' emotions from their behavior	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	I am a good observer of others' emotions	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	I am sensitive to the feelings and emotions of others	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	I have good understanding of the emotions of people around me	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	I always set goals for myself and then try my best to achieve them	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	I always tell myself I am a competent person	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	I am a self-motivated person	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	I would always encourage myself to try my best	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	I am able to control my temper and handle difficulties rationally	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	I am quite capable of controlling my own emotions	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	I can always calm down quickly when I am very angry	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	I have good control of my own emotions	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix C  
PANAS  
(Watson, Clark & Tellegen, 1988)

This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions.

	<b>Please check <i>one</i> response for each item that best indicates how you feel on average.</b>	Very slightly or not at all A little Moderately Quite a bit Extremely
1	Interested (P)	1 2 3 4 5
2	Distressed (N)	1 2 3 4 5
3	Excited (P)	1 2 3 4 5
4	Upset (N)	1 2 3 4 5
5	Strong (P)	1 2 3 4 5
6	Guilty (N)	1 2 3 4 5
7	Scared (N)	1 2 3 4 5
8	Hostile (N)	1 2 3 4 5
9	Enthusiastic (P)	1 2 3 4 5
10	Proud (P)	1 2 3 4 5
11	Irritable (N)	1 2 3 4 5
12	Alert (P)	1 2 3 4 5
13	Ashamed (N)	1 2 3 4 5
14	Inspired (P)	1 2 3 4 5
15	Nervous (N)	1 2 3 4 5
16	Determined (P)	1 2 3 4 5
17	Attentive (P)	1 2 3 4 5
18	Jittery (N)	1 2 3 4 5
19	Active (P)	1 2 3 4 5
20	Afraid (N)	1 2 3 4 5

Appendix D  
Emotional Exhaustion  
(Maslach & Jackson, 1986)

	<b>Please circle the <i>one</i> number that indicates how often you experience each of the following.</b>	Never A few times a year or less Once a month or less A few times a month Once a week A few times a week Every day
1	I feel emotionally drained at work.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6
2	I feel used up at the end of the day.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6
3	I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6
4	Working with people is really a strain on me.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6
5	I feel burned out from my work.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6
6	I feel frustrated on my job.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6
7	I feel I am working too hard on my job.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6
8	Working with people directly puts too much stress on me.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6
9	I feel like I am at the end of my rope.	0 1 2 3 4 5 6

Appendix E  
 Job Satisfaction from the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire  
 (Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins & Klesh, 1979)

	<b>Please circle the <i>one</i> number for each question that comes closest to reflecting your opinion about it.</b>	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	In general, I do not like my job. (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	All in all, I am satisfied with my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	In general, I like working here.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix F  
Affective Delivery Measure – Supervisor  
(McLellan, Schmit, Amundson & Blake, 1998 as modified by Grandey, 2003)

	<b>We are trying to get a supervisor’s perspective on employee-customer interactions. Please consider the customer interactions of the person who gave you this form, and answer each part below as truthfully as possible.</b>	<b>Never</b>	<b>Rarely</b>	<b>Sometimes</b>	<b>Often</b>	<b>Always</b>
1	This person seems sincere when dealing with the public.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Customers seem to like interacting with this person.	1	2	3	4	5
3	This person shows friendliness and warmth to most customers	1	2	3	4	5
4	This person treats customers with courtesy, respect, and politeness	1	2	3	4	5
5	This person smiles and communicates expressively with customers	1	2	3	4	5
6	This person shows enthusiasm when dealing with customers.	1	2	3	4	5

Affective Delivery Measure – Employee

	<b>We are trying to get an employee’s perspective on customer interactions. Please consider your customer interactions, and answer each part below as truthfully as possible.</b>	<b>Never</b>	<b>Rarely</b>	<b>Sometimes</b>	<b>Often</b>	<b>Always</b>
1	I am sincere when dealing with the public.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Customers seem to like interacting with me.	1	2	3	4	5
3	I show friendliness and warmth to most customers.	1	2	3	4	5
4	I treat customers with courtesy, respect, and politeness.	1	2	3	4	5
5	I smile and communicate expressively with customers.	1	2	3	4	5
6	I show enthusiasm when dealing with customers.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix G  
Task Performance Measure – Supervisor  
(Williams & Anderson, 1991)

	<b>Using the choices below, please rate the person who gave you this form. For each item, please circle the number that expresses your agreement or disagreement best.</b>							
	<b>Concerning his/her customer service performance, my staff member...</b>	Strongly disagree	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Strongly agree
1	Adequately completes assigned tasks.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Fulfills responsibilities specified in his/her job description.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Performs tasks that are expected of him/her.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Meets formal performance requirements of the job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Engages in activities that will directly affect his/her performance evaluation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Neglects aspects of the job he/she is obligated to perform.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Fails to perform essential duties.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix G (continued)  
Task Performance Measure – Employee  
(Williams & Anderson, 1991)

<p><b>For each item, please circle the number that expresses your agreement or disagreement best.</b></p> <p><b>Concerning my customer service performance, I...</b></p>		Strongly disagree	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Strongly agree
1	Adequately complete assigned tasks.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Fulfill responsibilities specified in my job description.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Perform tasks that are expected of me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Meet formal performance requirements of the job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Engage in activities that will directly affect my performance evaluation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Neglect aspects of the job I am obligated to perform.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Fail to perform essential duties.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix H  
Demographic Information

\_\_\_\_\_ Female

\_\_\_\_\_ Male

\_\_\_\_\_ Asian    \_\_\_\_\_ Black    \_\_\_\_\_ Hispanic    \_\_\_\_\_ White    \_\_\_\_\_ Other

How long have you worked for this company (in months)? \_\_\_\_\_

Age in years: \_\_\_\_\_

Indicate your type of service job: \_\_\_\_\_

## Appendix I Employee Letter

Dear Participant;

Thank you so much for agreeing to participate in this study! Your assistance with this project is greatly appreciated and will be extremely valuable! My name is Hazel-Anne M. Johnson and I am a graduate student in the Ph.D. program in Industrial and Organizational Psychology at the University of South Florida. For my dissertation research project I am surveying individuals who have service-related jobs, like yours, that require the management of emotions as a part of the job.

Please be candid when you complete the survey – there are no “right” or “wrong” answers. You are free to participate in this study or to withdraw at any time. Your participation or withdrawal does not have any associated risks.

Your privacy and research records will be kept confidential to the extent of the law. Authorized research personnel, employees of the Department of Health and Human Services, and the USF Institutional Review Board, its staff, and any other individuals acting on behalf of USF, may inspect the records from this research project. The results of this study may be published. However, the data obtained from you will be combined with data from others in the publication. The published results will not include your name or any other information that would personally identify you in any way. If you have questions about your rights as a person who is taking part in a research study, you may contact the Division of Research Integrity and Compliance of the University of South Florida at (813) 974-5638.

USF Psychology Students: If you are completing this survey for extra credit your name will be temporarily linked to the survey number on a separate sheet in order to award the points. This sheet will be kept confidential and once the extra credit points have been awarded this sheet will be destroyed.

### **Why should you fill out this survey?**

- You are helping to collect data for my research project!
- While you will not directly benefit from participating, you will help to advance scientific knowledge and understanding about people in customer service positions similar to yours!

### **Instructions**

There are two surveys in this packet – the Employee Survey and the Supervisor Survey. These surveys are numbered in order to match your survey to your supervisor’s survey. I do not ask for your name so this survey will not be directly linked to you. This survey should take no more than ten minutes to complete, while the supervisor survey should take no more than five minutes to complete.

All you need to do is complete this short survey and ask your supervisor to complete the other survey based on his/her observations, experiences and conversations with you on your present job. **Please do not discuss these questions with your supervisor before you both have completed the surveys.**

Once you complete the survey, please return it in the enclosed postage-paid business reply envelope within two weeks. If you have any questions, concerns, or would like a summary of the study's results, please contact me at [johnsonh@mail.usf.edu](mailto:johnsonh@mail.usf.edu).

Thanks in advance for your help, I greatly appreciate it!☺

Sincerely,  
Hazel-Anne M. Johnson, M.A.  
Psychology Department, PCD 4118G  
University of South Florida

## Appendix J Supervisor Letter

Dear Participant;

Thank you so much for agreeing to participate in this study! Your assistance with this project is greatly appreciated and will be extremely valuable!

My name is Hazel-Anne M. Johnson and I am a graduate student in the Ph.D. program in Industrial and Organizational Psychology at the University of South Florida. You can contact me at [johnsonh@mail.usf.edu](mailto:johnsonh@mail.usf.edu) or 813.974.2492. This survey is a part of my dissertation research project on individuals in customer service jobs.

One of your employees has agreed to participate in this research study, and has authorized you to answer questions about his/her job behaviors in this survey. Please complete this Supervisor Survey with regards to **your employee** who is participating in this study. Answer the questions based on your observations, experiences, and conversations with this employee on his/her present job.

**I do not ask for your name, so the information you provide will be completely anonymous.** Your privacy and research records will be kept confidential to the extent of the law. Authorized research personnel, employees of the Department of Health and Human Services, and the USF Institutional Review Board, its staff, and any other individuals acting on behalf of USF, may inspect the records from this research project. The results of this study may be published. However, the data obtained from you will be combined with data from others in the publication. The published results will not include your name or any other information that would personally identify you in any way. Please be candid when you complete the survey – there are no “right” or “wrong” answers. You are free to participate in this study or to withdraw at any time. Your participation or withdrawal does not have any associated risks. If you have questions about your rights as a person who is taking part in a research study, you may contact the Division of Research Integrity and Compliance of the University of South Florida at (813) 974-5638.

### **Why should you fill out this survey?**

- You are helping to collect data for my research project!
- While you will not directly benefit from participating, you will help to advance scientific knowledge and understanding about people in the customer service industry!

### **Instructions**

This survey should take no more than five minutes to complete. All you need to do is complete this short survey based on your observations, experiences and conversations

with the employee who gave you this survey. **Please do not discuss these questions with your employee before you both have completed the surveys.**

Once you complete the survey, please return it in the enclosed postage-paid business reply envelope within two weeks. If you have any questions, concerns, or would like a summary of the study's results, please contact me at [johnsonh@mail.usf.edu](mailto:johnsonh@mail.usf.edu).

Thanks in advance for your help, I greatly appreciate it!☺

Sincerely,

Hazel-Anne M. Johnson, M.A.  
Department of Psychology, PCD 4118G  
University of South Florida

## About the Author

Hazel-Anne Michelle Johnson was born in Barbados, where she attended secondary school at Harrison College, and began her undergraduate education at the Cave Hill campus of the University of the West Indies. In May 2001, she graduated from the University of Florida with a Bachelor of Science degree in Psychology with a minor in Business Administration (*Honors*). In August 2001, Hazel-Anne began the Industrial-Organizational doctoral program at the University of South Florida, earning the Master of Arts degree in Industrial-Organizational Psychology in May 2004. Hazel-Anne has taught several undergraduate courses at the University of South Florida, for which she has received a number of teaching awards. Hazel-Anne's research interests involve emotions in the workplace, as well as workplace mentoring and diversity. Her master's thesis research has been published in the *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*. She is now eagerly anticipating the start of a productive and rewarding career as a university professor!