

The Effects of Emotional Labor on Employee Work Outcomes

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(ABSTRACT)

Emotional labor can be defined as the degree of manipulation of one's inner feelings or outward behavior to display the appropriate emotion in response to display rules or occupational norms. This study concerns the development of an emotional labor model for the hospitality industry that aims at identifying the antecedents and consequences of emotional labor. The study investigates the impact of individual characteristics on the way emotional labor is performed; it investigates the relationships among the different ways of enacting emotional labor and their consequences, and addresses the question of whether organizational characteristics and job characteristics have buffering effects on the perceived consequences of emotional labor, which are emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction.

This study involves the rigorous development of a 10-item scale, the Hospitality Emotional Labor Scale, to measure the emotional labor that employees perform. The results of the study conformed to a two-factor structure of emotional labor: emotive dissonance and emotive effort. These two dimensions tap three types of service-acting that employees perform: surface acting, deep acting, and genuine acting.

The scale was used to survey 285 hotel employees. Structural equation modeling (SEM) and moderated multiple regression (MMR) were employed to examine the proposed model, as well as to test the hypotheses. It was found that both surface acting (high emotive dissonance) and deep acting (emotive effort) associate positively with job satisfaction and negatively with emotional exhaustion. Genuine acting (low emotive dissonance) was found to associate positively with emotional exhaustion and negatively with job satisfaction. This study did not find strong relationships among the antecedents (affectivity and empathy) and emotional labor factors. Similarly, the proposed

moderators (job autonomy and social support) were not found to moderate the relations between emotional labor and its consequences.

In sum, this study found that both deep acting and surface acting lead to positive work outcomes, but genuine acting leads to negative work outcomes. The results provide support for prior qualitative studies. Further, deep acting plays an important role in determining employees' work outcomes. Based on these significant research findings, detailed theoretical and practical implications were discussed.

DEDICATION

To my parents, for their unconditional love and support to make my study possible.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1-1 RESEARCH BACKGROUND

“Now hiring smiling faces!”

“Friendly people wanted!”

These are typical “help wanted” ads that can be found everywhere in the hospitality industry. While farms or factories are hiring “hands” or “heads,” hospitality companies want to hire people with more. The spirit of the hospitality industry is not only “getting a job done,” but also involves getting the job done with the right attitude, with the right degree of sincerity, and with the right amount of concern for the guests. Every company in the hospitality industry requires that employees, while interacting with customers, display certain types of emotions such as friendliness, cheerfulness, warmth, enthusiasm, or confidence.

There are other jobs that demand particular emotional displays. Nurses are called on to display caring and kindness, food servers to show friendliness and cheerfulness; bill-collectors need to be forceful and angry, and police calm and cool. One attribute that the above job categories have in common is that they all are service occupations, in which face-to-face or voice-to-voice interactions with customers, clients, or the public constitute a major part of the work.

Because the interaction between the service provider and customer is the core of a service experience that influences customers’ perceptions of service quality, it is necessary for managers or employers to regulate or manage employees’ behavior or emotional expressions to ensure service quality. For example, in the employee handbook of a deli store, two of the items in the company’s mission statement make clear how important customer satisfaction is to the company’s fiscal success and how employees’ behavior affects customer satisfaction (Steinberg & Figart, 1999).

Remember...a positive attitude is a basic ingredient...if you are not having fun, you can be sure the people around you won't be smiling either (customers or co-workers)...you control your attitude...[Your] ...attitude can make the difference in someone's entire day...A friendly, positive, upbeat attitude will give you and the Company ...[an advantage] (Steinberg & Figart, 1999, p. 9).

A common belief held by many employers is that there is a high correlation between employees' smiling faces and increasing revenue (Ash, 1984; Peters & Austin, 1985; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1989). Displays of friendliness and enthusiasm, for example, are thought to increase customer satisfaction, improve sales immediately, result in increased repeat business, and ultimately, financial success (Hochschild, 1983; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987; 1989). As a result, even when facing difficult customers, employees are still expected by the company to do what it takes to change the situation into a positive experience. Negative emotional displays are prohibited and positive emotional displays are required.

Consequently, an employee's emotional display is no longer a private experience, but a public act that is controlled by employer supervision. Rules for emotional display are developed, and training programs are mandatory. Employees go through periodic sessions to learn how to smile in a sincere way and how to change private anger (or impatience) into public empathy and kindness (Yanay & Shahar, 1998). Through these types of practices, employees learn to suppress their true feelings and display the emotions that the organization desires.

Hochschild (1983) first disclosed this emotional demand on service providers in her study of flight attendants. She coined the term "emotional labor" to describe this occupational emotional demand. According to Hochschild (1983), emotional labor is defined as "the management of feeling to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display; emotional labor is sold for a wage and therefore has exchange value" (p.7). This definition explicitly delineates that service providers are required to regulate or manage their "felt" emotions and display those emotions for commercial purposes. These "displayed" emotions have economic value, which can be transformed into wages, salaries, or tips.

Researchers suggested that service employees perform emotional labor using three acting techniques (Hochschild, 1983; Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). One is “surface acting.” Service providers employ surface acting when they alter their outward appearance to simulate the required emotions—emotions that are not necessarily privately felt. The second acting mechanism is “deep acting.” Deep acting occurs when employees change not only their physical expressions, but also their inner feelings. This can be done through imaging or recalling similar emotional experiences. The last acting mechanism is “genuine acting.” Genuine acting occurs when employees’ felt emotions are congruent with expressed emotion and display rules.

Since Hochschild’s (1983) research, interest in emotional labor has accelerated rapidly over the past decades. A major reason for this increased attention is due to a change in the economy. As the economy in most of the developed countries has shifted from manufacturing to the service industry, the nature of job role requirements has changed. Whereas workers in factories deal with machines, service providers interact with people. Emotionally charged employee-customer interactions are essential to product delivery in service job roles.

In the service industry in general, and the hospitality industry in particular, being friendly or nice to people is a value-added part of the product that employees provide (Schneider & Bowen, 1985). Most managers in the field assume that the friendliness and good cheer of employees are strongly related to customer satisfaction and increase customer commitment, loyalty, and therefore, affect bottom lines (Albrecht & Zemke, 1985; Bowen, Siehl, & Schneider, 1989). The service literature has documented reasons of how critical employees’ emotional display is in determining customers’ service quality perceptions. First, customer-contact employees are the interface between customers and organizations, and thus represent the organization to customers (Bowen, et al. 1989). If an employee is rude to a customer, this rudeness will leave nothing but a bad impression about the company in the customer’s mind.

Second, the nature of service (i.e., intangibility, heterogeneity, variability, and inseparability between service providers and customers) makes the interaction between employees and customers a critical component in determining customers’ perceptions of service quality (Bowen, et al., 1989). These factors indicate the premium that is placed

on the behavior of service providers during encounters with customers, and this behavior often strongly affects customers' perceptions of product quality, both of goods and services (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993).

After Hochschild (1983), much research has been conducted to further explore the concept of emotional labor on fast-food employees (Leidner, 1993), waitresses (Paules, 1991; Rose, 2001), amusement park employees (Van Maanen & Kunda, 1989), cashiers (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987), 911 dispatchers (Shuler & Sypher, 2000), and police officers (Martin, 1999), to name a few. Most of the existing literature on emotional labor is in the form of ethnographic or sociological studies which are more qualitative in nature. Very few researchers (e.g., Wharton, 1993; Morris & Feldman, 1996; Kruml & Geddes, 2000a) have used a more systematic, quantitative approach to explore the dimensions of emotional labor and its associated antecedents, consequences, and moderators.

While the research on emotional labor gradually has evolved from qualitative studies to quantitative studies, there are still a number of unresolved issues surrounding the measurement and definition of emotional labor (Fisher & Ashkansasy, 2000). Researchers have used different approaches to understand the nature and dimensionality of emotional labor. Some treat emotional labor as a unidimensional construct solely concerned with the intensity and frequency of emotional displays (Hochschild, 1983; Wharton 1993; Abraham, 1998), and others see emotional labor as a multi-dimensional construct (Morris & Feldman, 1997; Grandey, 1999; Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000; Kruml & Geddes, 2000a).

Among those researchers who assert that emotional labor is a multi-dimensional construct, there are different opinions about the numbers of dimensions of emotional labor. Different dimensions capture different facets of emotional labor. For example, Morris and Feldman (1996) proposed four dimensions of emotional labor: frequency of emotional labor; attentiveness of emotional labor; variety of emotional labor; and emotional dissonance. Later, Kruml and Geddes (2000a) asserted that emotional labor indeed has two dimensions: emotive effort and emotive dissonance. They claimed that these two dimensions can best represent Hochschild's (1983) notion of emotional labor.

Clearly, although a considerable amount of effort has been devoted to understanding what is emotional labor, there is a lack of clear definitions and valid

measures. Gaps between how emotional labor is defined and measured often exist. The nature and dimensionality of emotional labor are not clear, and the effect of emotional labor on service providers is difficult to measure. Without a clear definition of emotional labor, it is difficult to address its effects on service employees (Fisher & Ashkanasy, 2000). If discussing the effects of emotional labor without fully understanding its dimensionality, researchers will continue to produce fragmented works that further confuse the field (Fisher & Ashkanasy, 2000; Grandey, 1999).

As emotional labor's dimensionality varies, so do its antecedents and consequences. Regarding the antecedents of emotional labor, Hochschild (1983) suggested that there are situational and individual factors that influence the way that individuals perform emotional labor. However, most researchers have focused solely on situational factors such as routineness of task, form of interaction, job autonomy, (Morris & Feldman, 1996), or training (Kruml & Geddes, 2000a). Very few studies have examined how individual factors affect the way service employees perform emotional labor, and thereafter, its associated consequences.

In terms of the consequences of emotional labor, prior research mainly focuses on the potentially psychologically damaging effects on the employees who perform emotional labor. The most-often-cited consequences are emotional exhaustion and job dissatisfaction. However, empirical research has found contradictory results (Wharton, 1993). Wharton (1993) found that workers who perform emotional labor report greater job satisfaction than workers who don't perform emotional labor. In addition, she found that the symptom of burnout is more strongly associated with work hours rather than emotional labor, for both service workers and non-service workers (Wharton, 1993).

Rafaeli and Sutton (1987) proposed that there might be some situations in which performing emotional labor can bring positive consequences. They suggested that when expressed feelings are congruent with experienced emotions, employees are then experiencing "emotional harmony," which is an indicator of good fit between person and job requirement (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). Their idea corresponds with person-job fit theory. Psychologists from a variety of perspectives have long recognized that one's personal characteristics can influence one's decisions about what particular situations to enter (Bandura, 1982; Mischel, 1977). That is, individuals tend to select situations that

allow the expression of their characteristic personality traits and values, and thus systematically create social environments consonant with their dispositions (Ickes, Snyder, & Garcia, 1997).

Theory on person-job fit further strengthens the above argument and therefore suggests that when individuals' characteristics are congruent with the job requirements, job satisfaction increases. In contrast, when there is a lack of congruence between individuals' characteristics and job requirements, job satisfaction drops and stress increases (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984). Individuals then seek opportunities to leave the situations.

Based on person-job fit theory, if one's personality or characteristics can fit job requirements of particular emotional displays, then it is assumed that an individual will experience more "emotional harmony" than "emotional dissonance" (the gap between one's felt emotions and expressed emotions). For example, if one's personality is more cheerful and upbeat, then this individual will probably find it effortless to be friendly or enthusiastic when interacting with customers. It is very likely that this individual will find enjoyment in emotional labor because his or her self-concept can be realized in the work context. In the above scenario, this individual is in a situation where it is possible to experience the positive consequences of emotional labor. On the other hand, if there is a lack of fit between one's personality and job requirements, then the individual will probably experience more negative consequences of emotional labor, including stress or job dissatisfaction.

As a result, when emotional labor is formulated as having an endogenous source of variance, it should be theorized as a reflection of an ongoing state of the person, as opposed to being a product of the situation. Taking individual characteristics into account as the antecedents of emotional labor can help understand how individuals perform emotional labor and its associated consequences.

1-2 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The primary purpose of this study is to explore the relationship between individual characteristics, emotional labor, and its associated consequences. The underlying assumption is that individual characteristics are critical factors in determining the perceived positive or negative consequence of performing emotional labor. If this assumption is correct, then what kind of person can perform emotional labor in a more genuine way? Will people report higher job satisfaction when they perform emotional labor in a genuine way? Will people report higher emotional exhaustion when they fake their emotions to comply with display rules?

It is expected that, by identifying what types of person can endure and enjoy performing emotional labor, the findings of this study can contribute not only to the existing body of literature on emotional labor, but to industry practitioners in terms of refining the current employee selection process. In addition, this study seeks to identify strategies the service industry can utilize to buffer the negative effects of performing emotional labor.

Based on the research objectives, this study will address the following three questions:

1. Do individual characteristics affect the way employees perform emotional labor?
2. Do different ways to enact emotional labor lead to different consequences?
3. Will organizational characteristics or job characteristics have buffering effects on the perceived negative consequences of emotional labor?

1-3 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

As stated in the above research objectives, the present study is an attempt to investigate how individual characteristics affect the way people engage in performing emotional labor, and thus further influence their perceived consequences of emotional labor. Drawn from ethnography and sociology literature on emotional labor, and industrial and organizational psychology on personality, emotion management and stress management, this study proposes a theoretical model (Figure 1). Two individual

characteristics, affectivity and empathy, are predicted to affect the way service providers enact emotional labor, and thus lead to different consequences: increased or decreased emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction.

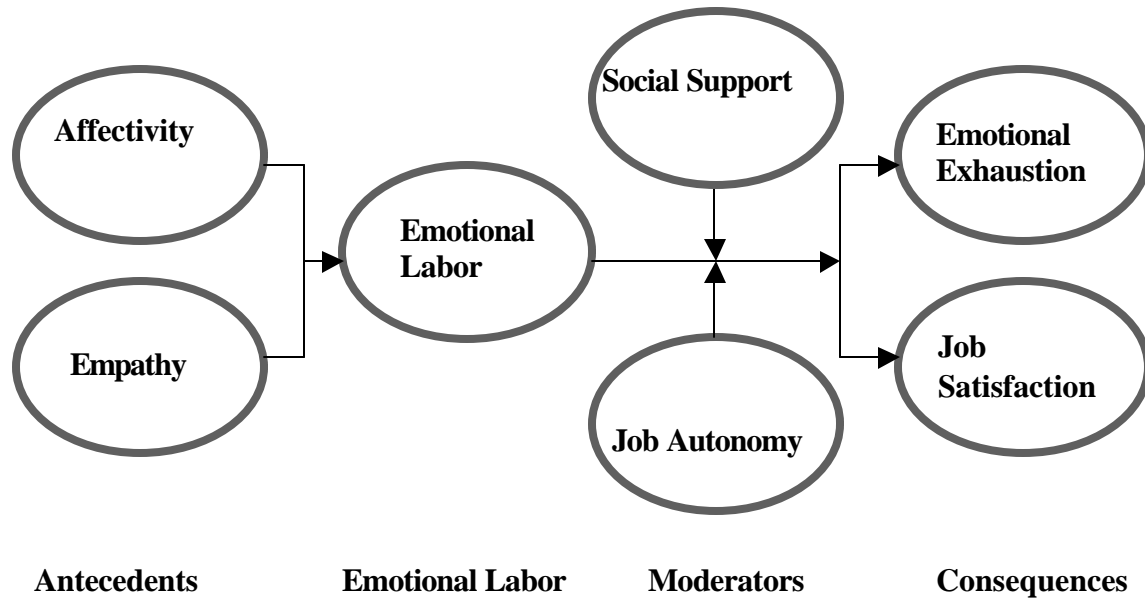


Figure 1. Theoretical Framework of the Antecedents and Consequences of Emotional Labor

In the center of this theoretical model (Figure 1) lies the construct of emotional labor, which is the main research interest of this study. In this study, emotional labor is conceptualized as “the degree of manipulation of one’s inner feelings or outward behavior to display the appropriate emotion in response to display rules or occupational norms.” This working definition differs from other emotional labor definitions since it emphasizes the “process” of how one engenders the appropriate emotional display to satisfy the organization’s display rules. As Grandey (1999) suggested, that when the research goal is to predict individual outcomes of performing emotional labor, understanding the emotion management process becomes vital (Grandey, 1999).

In addition, this working definition emphasizes the degree of manipulation that service employees use to generate the appropriate emotional display. Researchers have proposed that service providers perform emotional labor in one of three ways: surface acting, deep acting, and genuine acting (Hochschild, 1983; Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). While these three acting mechanisms vary in nature, they require different degrees of manipulation of one’s inner feelings or outward behavior. Some may require a greater degree of manipulation of one’s inner feelings (i.e., deep acting) than those of others (i.e., surface acting). Therefore, the degree of manipulation constitutes a major part of how one performs emotional labor. What makes an employee choose surface acting rather than other form of acting, everything else being equal? To answer this question, individual characteristics may be an important factor that drive individuals to engage in different types of acting mechanisms.

In the proposed theoretical model (Figure 1), individual characteristics are treated as the antecedents of emotional labor. Researchers have suggested that, individual characteristics are the precursors of whether a person will engage in emotional labor, or whether that labor will have a detrimental outcome (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1989; Grandey, 1999). In this study, the focus of individual characteristics are on the affectivity trait (Morris & Feldman, 1996) and on empathy (Kruml & Geddes, 2000a). Specifically, this study investigates how individuals’ affectivity type and empathy level would affect the way individuals engage in emotional management process.

Affectivity represents a general tendency of an individual to experience a particular mood or to react to things in a particular way or with certain emotions (Lazarus, 1993). Researchers have identified two types of affectivity: positive affectivity (PA) and negative affectivity (NA). High PA individuals experience more positive emotions, such as cheerfulness or enthusiasm. On the other hand, high NA individuals experience more negative emotions, such as irritation or nervousness.

In the context of the areas of the hospitality industry that require positive emotional display, it is clear that people who feel positive much of the time will have a smaller gap when required to act out positive feelings. On the other hand, people who feel negative much of the time will indeed have a larger gap when required to act out positive feelings (Fisher & Ashkanasy, 2000). This difference in one's affective orientation will then affect how one enacts emotional labor.

Another important antecedent of emotional labor is empathy. Empathy, defined as "the immediate experience of the emotions of another person" (Duan & Hill, 1996), is the ability to know how another feels. Researchers have suggested that people who are empathic are more sensitive to others needs or wants, and therefore, are perceived as emotionally intelligent people (Goleman, 1995). This ability of knowing how to relate to people is often considered as asset to the service industry because people with greater empathic ability can perform emotional labor better by knowing others' needs. Likewise, the importance of empathy also has been recognized in the service literature. Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry (1988) identified empathy as one of five dimensions of service quality. They defined empathy as the "caring, individualized attention the firm provides its customers."

Researchers have conceptualized empathy as a multidimensional phenomenon. Two of the most-often-cited dimensions are "emotional contagion" and "empathic concern." Simply speaking, emotional contagion is one's ability to mimic and synchronize with others' emotional expressions (Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1994) or to "catch" other people's moods. High emotional contagion individuals are more sensitive to others' emotions, and therefore can share or take-on the emotions of another person. In other words, they are better at "feeling with" others. On the other hand, empathic concern refers to an affective responsive to others' emotions that is clearly

other-oriented rather than self-oriented (Davis, 1994). It refers to a concern for the well-being of another that does not require sharing emotion. Therefore, high empathic concern individuals cannot necessarily “feel with” others, but can “feel for” others.

The various abilities to feel with (emotional contagion) or to feel for (empathic concern) others is predicted to affect how one enacts emotional labor. In addition, the literature on stress, emotional contagion and empathic concern has found that these factors have different effects on burnout that service providers perceived. The literature has suggested that emotional contagion promotes emotional exhaustion, whereas empathic concern reduces emotional exhaustion (Omdahl & O’Donnell, 1999). The proposed theoretical model brings the literature of empathy, emotional labor, and burnout together and attempts to investigate how empathic disposition (emotional contagion and empathic concern) affect service providers’ emotional exhaustion, corresponding to the type of emotional labor mechanisms.

Concerning emotional labor and its consequences, this study then investigates both positive (low emotional exhaustion and high job satisfaction) and negative (high emotional exhaustion and low job satisfaction) consequences. Emotional exhaustion refers to feelings of being emotionally overextended and worn out by one’s work (Maslach, 1982). Job satisfaction is a positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of the job (Locke, 1976).

Theory suggests that performing emotional labor can lead to positive consequences when there is a good fit between a job-holder’s personality and job requirements. It is then predicted that people who possess high positive affect and/or strong empathy will perform emotional labor in a more genuine way and experience less negative consequences.

Wharton (1999) further stated that the consequences of emotional labor may be “highly contingent upon other characteristics of the job and the organization” (p. 161). Thus, in the theoretical model, this study proposed how organizational and job characteristics moderate the relationships between emotional labor and its consequences. Organizational social support, the support employees receive from their coworkers or supervisors, and job autonomy, the degree of control employees have over their jobs, are predicted to have buffering effects on emotional labor or its consequences.

1-4 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

This study is an attempt to increase the current level of knowledge of the existing literature on emotional labor by proposing and empirically testing a causal model of emotional labor.

In terms of its theoretical contribution, first, this study contributes to the body of literature on emotional labor by exploring how individual characteristics affect the way service providers perform emotional labor. Specifically, this study explores the mechanism of what drives individuals to engage in a certain type of acting technique when interacting with guests. A proposed model of emotional labor (Figure. 1) was developed for the hospitality industry. Many researchers have suggested that individual characteristic is a major critical indicator of how one performs emotional labor, and thereafter whether that labor will have a detrimental outcome (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1989; Wharton, 1993; Grandey, 1999). However, very few studies have used a systematic approach to empirically test this assumption.

Second, this study provides a better understanding of the emotional labor of employees in the hospitality industry. While much attention to emotional labor has been paid in the service industries, little research has focused on the nature of emotional labor in the hospitality field. Most empirical emotional labor studies were conducted on nurses or school administrators whose authority is over clients; this study contributes to the body of knowledge about emotional labor by examining hotel employees who deal with the situation where “the customer is always right.” As many hotels challenge their employees to provide world-class service, this thrust increases service quality, but adds a burden on employees in terms of intensified emotional labor. Therefore, this study contributes to the emotional labor literature by understanding how hotel employees, who endure a high degree of emotional labor, perform emotional labor and experience the associated consequences.

In terms of its practical contribution, the results of this study could be helpful in identifying the types of people who can enjoy and endure performing emotional labor. This information is valuable to the industry in terms of refining employee selection and training strategies. In addition, as this study also investigates how job autonomy and organizational social support help alleviate the potential negative consequences of

emotional labor, industry practitioners can benefit from the study results by understanding what the industry can do to buffer the negative effects of emotional labor.

1-5 CONSTRUCT DEFINITIONS

Emotional Labor. The degree of manipulation of one's inner feelings or outward behavior to display the appropriate emotion in response to display rules or occupational norms.

Affectivity. A general tendency to experience a particular mood or to react to objects in a particular way or with certain emotions (Lazarus, 1993).

Empathy. The immediate experience of the emotions of another person (Duan & Hill, 1996).

Emotional Contagion. A tendency to automatically mimic and synchronize expressions, vocalizations, postures, and movements with those of another person and, consequently, to converge emotionally (Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1994).

Empathic Concern. An individual's experience of a particular affective response to a distressed target (Davis, 1994).

Emotional Exhaustion. Feelings of being emotionally overextended and drained by one's contact with other people (Maslach, 1982).

Job Satisfaction. A pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experience (Locke, 1976).

Social Support. Feedback that focuses on "action," "identity," and "guidance" as a supporter tries to help a stress receiver understand and/or identify ways to cope with a stressor (Caplan, 1974).

Job Autonomy. The degree to which an employee has freedom, independence, and discretion in fulfilling the tasks of the job (Hackman & Oldham, 1975).

Emotive Dissonance. The degree to which employees' expressed emotions align with their true feelings (Kruml & Geddes, 2000a).

Emotive Effort. The labor or work employees need to perform emotional labor (Kruml & Geddes, 2000a).

1-6 LAW OF INTERACTION

Laws of interaction are linkages among the constructs (units) of a model (Dubin, 1978). In general, there are three forms of interactions: categorical interactions, sequential interactions, and determinant interactions.

In this study, the interactions among the proposed constructs in the theoretical model are sequential interactions, which means that there is a sequential order among constructs. As one of the objectives of the study is to disclose how individual characteristics affect the way individuals perform or perceive emotional labor, the law of interaction between affectivity, empathy, and emotional labor can be expressed as, individual characteristics will affect the way individuals perform emotional labor. In addition, performing emotional labor in one's work will influence an individual's perceived level of emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction. The law of interaction among emotional labor, emotional exhaustion, and job satisfaction then can be expressed as, performing emotional labor will lead to increasing or decreasing emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction.

1-7 RESEARCH BOUNDARIES

Boundaries limit "values" placed on constructs within a theoretical model, and set the limitations in applying theory. Boundaries are necessary in the theorizing process, since all theories are constrained by their specific bounding assumptions. In general, boundaries can be categorized into two criteria: interior and exterior. The interior criteria of boundaries are derived from the characteristics of the constructs and laws in the model (values). The exterior criteria of boundaries are imposed from outside the model (space and time) (Bacharach, 1989). Although an increasing number of boundaries will decrease the generalizability of a given theory, a solid general model will require the least number of boundaries to be applied in an extended domain.

One bounding assumption of this model is that it only focuses on situations where organizations require employees to display positive emotions and suppress negative emotions. The proposed hypothetical model does not deal with situations that require employees to display negative emotions and suppress positive emotions in the work

place. Therefore, the research hypotheses, results, and discussion were confined within this boundary.

1-8 ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

This study was organized into five chapters. The specific information contained in these five chapters is listed below.

Chapter One discusses the research background, research questions and objectives, the proposed theoretical model, the laws of interaction among constructs in the model, and the research boundaries.

Chapter Two provides a review of the literature on emotional labor and each of its proposed antecedents and consequences. Following an extensive review of literature, hypotheses and an empirical testing model were proposed.

Chapter Three presents the methodology of the study. It explains the steps involved in developing an emotional labor scale, sampling and data collection procedures.

Chapter Four presents the results of the statistical analysis.

Chapter Five includes the findings of the study in relation to the hypotheses, and provides managerial implications. The limitations of the study and suggestions for future research are also discussed.

1-9 SUMMARY

This chapter introduced the research topic of emotional labor. It began with the background and importance of this research topic, followed by a discussion of the research evolution and related research method issues on empirical emotional labor studies. The purposes of the study were discussed, with a focus on the presentation and testing of a theoretical model that assesses the antecedents, consequences, and moderators of emotional labor.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

As one who perceives herself as servant, the waitress should willingly abdicate her claim to the courtesies of interaction; she should absorb abuse with no thought of retaliation; she should fulfil requests however trivial and unreasonable, and accept blame however misdirected, because as a servant it is her job to do so. – Greta Foff Paules (1991)

2-1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews the definitions of emotional labor and its concepts, dimensions, and consequences. Based on the proposed theoretical model, this chapter reviews literature pertaining to the constructs and the relationships among the constructs. Specific hypotheses are developed to depict the relationships among constructs in the model for empirical testing.

2-2 EMOTIONAL LABOR

Emotions are feelings that people experience, interpret, reflect on, express, and manage (Thoits, 1989; Mills and Kleinman, 1988). They arise through social interaction, and are influenced by social, cultural, interpersonal, and situational conditions (Martin, 1999). In many situations in our daily lives, we often find ourselves suppressing feelings and displaying a more socially accepted emotion that is deemed more appropriate. For example, showing excitement about a colleague's promotion or suppressing anger when being cut off by someone in a waiting line. Regulating one's emotions to comply with social norms then is referred to as "emotion work" (Hochschild, 1990; p. 118). When our job roles require us to display particular emotions and suppress others, we do our emotion management for a wage. Hochschild (1983) termed this regulation of one's emotions to

comply with occupational or organizational norms as “emotional labor.” She defined emotional labor as “the management of feeling to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display; emotional labor is sold for a wage and therefore has exchange value” (Hochschild, 1983; p.7).

According to Hochschild (1983), jobs involving emotional labor possess three characteristics: they require the workers to make facial or voice contact with the public; they require the worker to produce an emotional state in the client or customer, and they provide the employer with an opportunity to exert some control over the emotional activities of workers (Hochschild, 1983).

Based on impression management, Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) defined emotional labor as “the act of displaying the appropriate emotion.” Their definition differs from Hochschild’s (1983), since their definition emphasizes the actual behavior rather than the presumed emotions underlying the behavior (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993).

As the flight attendants described in Hochschild’s study, to comply with the emotion requirement of the organizations, service providers need to practice to play roles, fake a smile or a laugh, and try to maintain a “happy” appearance (Hochschild, 1983; Karabanow, 1999). In other words, when interacting with the public under the guidance of organizations, service providers manage a publicly displayed emotion that is not necessarily privately felt. Managing emotions then become public acts when emotions are sold as products which need to be monitored by the company (Hochschild, 1983). As Albrecht and Zemke (1985) stated, “the service person must deliberately involve his or her feelings in the situation. He or she may not particularly feel like being cordial and becoming a one-minute friend to the next customer who approaches, but that is indeed what interactive work entails” (p.114).

Display Rules

Hochschild (1983) argued that service providers and customers share a set of expectations about the nature of emotions that should be displayed during the service encounter. These expectations are a function of societal norms, occupational norms, and organizational norms (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1989). Ekman (1973) referred to such norms as

display rules, which are shared expectations about which emotions ought to be expressed and which ought to be disguised (Ekman, 1973).

The service industry in general, and the hospitality industry in particular, implement display rules to regulate employees' behavior. "Show an upbeat attitude at every table" or "Put energy and enthusiasm into every guest interaction" are common instructions in employee handbooks. In addition, companies use policies, symbols, myths, and stories to teach, demonstrate, and reinforce these display rules. Based on these display rules, service providers are expected to act friendly and upbeat and to disguise anger and disgust, even toward annoying customers. Further, employees must often relinquish part of their independence to the control of their company, including such things as wearing uniforms, and regulation of their mannerisms, body language, and emotional expressions (Paules, 1991). The purpose is to ensure that employees will project the desired image of the company to the public, and that this image will elicit the desired response—satisfaction and continued patronage—from consumers.

Service Acting

Hochschild's emotional management perspective of emotional labor is based on the "acting" service providers perform. Based on Goffman's (1959) dramaturgical perspective of social interactions, Hochschild theorized that service is a "show" where the service provider is an "actor," the customer is the "audience," and the work setting is the stage (Grandey, 1999). The work place (restaurant) provides the setting and context that allows actors (wait staff) to perform for audiences (diners). The interaction between actors and audiences is based on their mutual definition of the setting, which can be interpreted as occupational or organizational norms or display rules.

Researchers proposed that employees perform emotional labor through three types of acting mechanism: surface acting, deep acting, and genuine acting (Hochschild, 1983; Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993).

Surface Acting

Surface acting involves employees simulating emotions that are not actually felt, by changing their outward appearances (i.e., facial expression, gestures, or voice tone) when exhibiting required emotions. For example, a hotel front desk employee may put

on a smile and cheerfully greet a customer even if she or he is feeling down. In this case, the front desk clerk feigns emotions that are not experienced.

Using the surface acting technique, people alter the outward expression of emotion in the service of altering their inner feelings. By changing facial or bodily expressions, such as slumped shoulders, bowed head, or drooping mouth, inner feelings can be altered to a corresponding state (Hochschild, 1993). One flight attendant described how surface acting helps her to elicit friendly behavior.

If I pretend I'm feeling really up, sometimes I actually cheer up and feel friendly. The passenger responds to me as though I were friendly and then more of me responds back (Hochschild, 1990, p. 121).

The flight attendant uses surface acting to display an emotion—friendliness—that she does not actually feel. Surface acting then is a discrepancy between felt and displayed emotion (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993).

Deep Acting

Another acting technique is deep acting. Deep acting occurs when employees' feelings do not fit the situation; they then use their training or past experience to work up appropriate emotions.

Unlike surface acting, deep acting involves changing inner feelings by altering something more than outward appearance. In surface acting, feelings are changed from the “outside in,” whereas feelings are changed from the “inside out” in deep acting (Hochschild, 1983). Hochschild (1983) classified deep acting as (1) exhorting feeling, whereby one actively attempts to evoke or suppress an emotion, and (2) trained imagination, whereby one actively invokes thoughts, images, and memories to induce the associated emotion (thinking of a wedding to feel happy or a funeral to feel sad). In other words, employees use their training or past experiences to help conjure up appropriate emotions or responses (empathy, cheerfulness) for a given scene (Kruml & Geddes, 2000a). By practicing deep acting, emotions are actively induced, suppressed, or shaped.

The airline company that Hochschild studied utilizes the deep acting technique to help flight attendants produce appropriate emotions or suppress inappropriate emotional responses toward guests. In a training session, flight attendants are taught to image the

cabin as a living room and passengers as their guests, and to regard difficult passengers as children who need attention (Hochschild, 1983).

For example, one flight attendant described how she uses the deep acting technique to control her anger when dealing with an annoying customer. She said:

I try to remember that if he's drinking too much, he's probably scared of flying. I think to myself, 'He's like a little child.' Really that's what he is, and when I see him that way, I don't get mad that he's yelling at me. He's like a child yelling at me then. (Hochschild, 1983; p.35).

In this case, the flight attendant uses deep acting to change her feelings by deliberately visualizing a substantial portion of reality in a different way.

Genuine Acting

As Hochschild's acting paradigm rests on the assumption that service providers are making efforts to actually feel the emotions they are displaying, many scholars claim that Hochschild ignores the instances whereby one spontaneously and genuinely experiences and expresses the expected emotion without exerting any effort (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). For example, a bartender may show genuine caring when trying to comfort a depressed customer. Or a nurse who feels sympathy at the sight of an injured child has no need to "act." Therefore, genuine acting is used to imply the situation where employees spontaneously experience and express same emotion (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). Emotions are displayed with very little effortful prompting. However, Kruml and Geddes (2000a) argued that these assertions about Hochschild's acting classification is incorrect because she described the genuinely expressed emotions of service employees as passive deep acting or genuine acting (Kruml & Geddes, 2000a).

As the competition becomes more intense in the hospitality industry, many hospitality companies challenge their employees to strive for "world class service." This striving for guest-service excellence makes companies no longer content with their employees engaging in surface acting; they are seeking to achieve genuine acting or deep acting in employees. Consider the following instructions drawn from an employee handbook on how to greet or say good-bye to customers. Companies explicitly specify that "a personal greeting with a big smile and a warm 'Hello' means much more to a guest than a robotic greeting" or "Sincere thanks and your sincere (not 'canned') wish

that you get the opportunity to see and serve the guest again.” Clearly, by encouraging employees to engage in genuine acting or deep acting, companies hope to enhance the authenticity of the service performance and reduce the possibility that service providers might break the service “norms” and express emotions incongruous with the role they are expected to play (Paules, 1991).

Consequences of Emotional Labor

Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) described emotional labor as a double-edged sword. On the one hand, it can facilitate task performance by regulating interactions and precluding interpersonal problems. On the other hand, it can impair performance by priming expectations of good service that cannot be met (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). The following section discusses the positive and negative consequences of performing emotional labor, and particularly, its effects on employees’ psychological well-being.

Negative Consequences

It has been proven that there is a clear correlation between one’s emotional state and one’s physical state. Laboratory research suggests that efforts to display positive emotions or suppress negative emotions often lead to patterns of physiological response that presage somatic illness (Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000). These illnesses range from a lower immune level (Jamer, Schwartz, & Leigh, 1988; Cohen & Herbert, 1996), and cardiovascular illness (Booth-Kewley & Friedman, 1987; Friedman, 1989), to cancer (Watson, Pettingale, & Greer, 1984).

In the emotional labor literature, substantial research in this field addresses unfavorable outcomes. The most-often-cited outcomes are burnout (Hochschild, 1983; Kahn, 1993; Morris & Feldman, 1996) and job dissatisfaction (Morris & Feldman, 1996; Grandey, 1999; Wharton, 1993). For example, Rutter and Fielding (1988) found that prison officers report that suppressing emotion in the work place is positively associated with overall stress and negatively associated with job satisfaction. Other impacts on the individual’s psychological well-being are also discussed in the literature, such as poor self-esteem, depression, cynicism, role alienation, and self-alienation (Richman, 1988; Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Fineman, 1993; Tolich, 1993; Wharton, 1993).

Wharton (1999) suggested two reasons why the regulation of service providers’ emotional displays is problematic. First, to ensure service quality, employers often

implement behavior scripts (such as smile, eye contact, body position, tone of voice) for service providers to follow. This restrictive script prevents service providers from interacting with customers based on spontaneous intuition, but on a script drawn up by employers. That is, workers' own inclinations for interaction may be suppressed and replaced by an organizationally sanctioned response (Wharton, 1999). Second, service providers may have different interests vis-à-vis the outcome of the interaction. That is, employers believe that service providers' emotional displays are instruments of service excellence. While front line employees may sometimes share those objectives, they do not always do so. In these instances, workers' interests may be sacrificed.

Hochschild (1983) theorized about the consequences of emotional labor based on service providers' capacity to strike a balance between the requirements of the self and the demands of the work role. Sustained performance of emotional labor may engender a fusion of self and work role, an estrangement between self and work role that comes at the expense of the self, or an estrangement between self and work role that comes at the expense of the work role (Hochschild, 1983).

The fusion of self and work role can be seen as the service providers' inability to depersonalize and detach themselves from the work roles. Research has shown that workers in human service occupations, such as social work or counseling, are often too identified with their work roles and lose the ability to maintain sufficient psychological distance between the emotional requirements of their job and their sense of self. For example, flight attendants use deep acting techniques to conjure up desired positive emotions and to suppress felt negative emotions. But after awhile, many flight attendants reveal that they have a hard time recovering their true feelings once their shifts are over. They begin to lose track of when they are acting and when they are not (Hochschild, 1983).

Contrarily, another potential consequence of emotional labor is the estrangement between self and work role. Just as workers on the assembling lines become estranged from their bodies, service providers may become estranged from their true feelings (Hochschild, 1983). Hochschild claimed that most of the negative consequences of performing emotional labor has its roots in this estrangement. The estrangement between

oneself and the work role is often presented in the forms of emotive dissonance or inauthenticity, which can be seen as a result of surface acting.

Similar to cognitive dissonance, emotive dissonance reflects a gap between felt emotions and expressed emotions. For example, a front desk employee greets a customer in a cheerful and enthusiastic manner but indeed, she or he feels down and unhappy. The inconsistency between expressed emotions (cheerful and enthusiastic) and felt emotions (down and unhappy) is emotive dissonance. Based on the assumption that people are motivated to maintain and enhance their sense of self as being meaningful and authentic (Erickson & Wharton, 1997), the experience of emotive dissonance may cause the individual to feel false and hypocritical. Researchers suggest that the regular occurrence of emotive dissonance may be harmful in terms of employees' personal and work-related maladjustment, such as poor self-esteem, depression, cynicism, and alienation from work (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993).

Hochschild (1993) suggested that emotive dissonance is most harmful to employees' psychological well-being when it comes at the expense of the self, and is less harmful when it is at the expense of the work role. When emotive dissonance comes at the expense of the self, employees blame themselves for displaying feigned emotions and feelings of inauthenticity. Thereafter, this estrangement of oneself leads to negative consequences such as depression (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993), drug or alcohol abuse (Hochschild, 1983), and low self-efficacy (Seeman, 1991).

Antithetically, when emotive dissonance comes at the expense of the work role, employees attribute this false emotion or inauthentic expression to the demands of the job rather than to the desires of the self (Wharton, 1999), and thus it may be less harmful in terms of their psychological well-being. In an interview with a waitress, Paules (1991) documented how one waitress does not overextend herself into her work. The waitress says that when she distances herself from her job she does not "feel bad about it" (Paules, 1991, p.286).

Hochschild's estrangement hypothesis corresponds to Rafaeli and Sutton's (1987) "faking in good faith" and "faking in bad faith." Rafaeli and Sutton (1987) categorized the situation of estrangement of one's true feeling as "faking in good faith," and the situation of estrangement of one's work role as "faking in bad faith." Rafaeli and Sutton

(1987) suggested that faking in bad faith causes less personal problems but more work-related problems. Since employees who fake in bad faith have not internalized feeling rules, they are more likely to be poor performers because “they may comply with feeling rules only when monitored closely” (p.32). But if faking in bad faith is an outcome of person-role conflict, it may have an adverse impact on employees as well. Person-role conflict has been shown to have negative effects on individuals in terms of a lower level of job satisfaction and job involvement (Seeman, 1991) and is a clear threat to employee well-being (Caplan, Cobb, French, Harrison, & Pinneau, 1975).

Some of the negative consequences of emotional labor have received empirical support. Morris and Feldman (1997) found that greater emotive dissonance, which is a form of estrangement of self and work role, is significantly associated with increased emotional exhaustion and decreased job satisfaction. Similar relationships between emotive dissonance, job satisfaction, and emotional exhaustion are found in Abraham’s (1998) research.

Positive consequences

Although substantial literature on emotional labor implies negative consequences, some researchers have suggested positive consequences for both organizations and individuals.

For an organization, regulating employees’ emotional display in a highly scripted manner can ensure task effectiveness and service quality (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993), and increase sales and repeated business (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). For the individual, the positive aspects of emotional labor include financial rewards (i.e., tips or salaries) (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987); increased satisfaction, security, and self-esteem (Strickland, 1992; Tolich, 1993; Wharton, 1993); increased self-efficacy and psychological well-being (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993); and decreased stress (Conrad & Witte, 1994).

Although customers are major stress-producing figures for front-line employees, customers also provide employees with many pleasurable and satisfying moments in the work day (Tolich, 1993). One reason for this satisfaction is that customers enliven otherwise monotonous tasks. Most of the entry level jobs in the service industry are highly routine and standardized (i.e., supermarket clerks or food servers). Because of the

variety of customers, their presence, even when annoying, is only somewhat distracting, and can be stimulating (Tolich, 1993).

Similarly, Shuler and Sypher (2000) recognized the positive function of emotional labor because interaction with customers serves as a comic relief. They found that 911 dispatchers seem to enjoy and even benefit from some of their emotional interactions with callers. As one of the 911 dispatchers describes some “crazy” callers and says :

Sometimes it's really hard, you know, you hang up and go, 'Oh my God! What planet does she come from!' Cuz, you know, some of these people are kinda way out there and they're kinda humorous at some point in time.....So, the highlight of the day would be a funny one (Shuler & Sypher, 2000, pp. 70-71).

A similar positive function of emotional labor can be found in the hospitality industry. Rose (2001) conducted an extensive qualitative study on waitresses' working-life. He described the sources of satisfaction for wait staff as below:

Some waitresses gain satisfaction from contributing to a customer's enjoyment ('you supply nurturing and sustenance, the things that make life pleasurable'). Some respond to the hustle and stimulation of a busy restaurant, the sense of being in the middle of things.....some like the attention ('the spotlight's on you').....some comment on the pleasure of the attenuated human interaction: 'though we'll never get to know each other, there's a really nice feelings that go back and forth' (Rose, 2000, p. 19).

Both Shuler and Sypher (2000) and Rose 's (2000) case studies offer some support for the argument that performing emotional labor is not always psychologically damaging. The interaction with the public, being at the center of attention or a sense of joy when knowing one's work is altruistic in nature all bring some intrinsic rewards to one's job when performing emotional labor. As Shuler and Sypher (2000) concluded, “not all emotional labor is bad.....some employees are rewarded by the fruits of such labor and consequently are drawn to jobs that require emotional challenges” (p. 83).

The reward or benefit aspect of performing emotional labor receives some empirical support. Wharton (1993) found that workers employed in jobs requiring

substantial amounts of emotional labor experience higher job satisfaction and lower emotional exhaustion than other workers (Wharton, 1993). Adelman (1989) found a similar result for table servers. She concluded that, contrary to Hochschild's estrangement assumption, performing emotional labor does not adversely impact employees' psychological well-being, but enhances their job satisfaction (Adelman, 1989).

In a review of the negative and positive consequences, research in this area is still in its infancy. There is no universal conclusion about the consequences of emotional labor. Quantitative research has often found contradictory results—contradictory with each other or contradictory to predictions.

A major reason for the confusion in results is a lack of clear definitions of what constitutes emotional labor. Without a clear definition of emotional labor, it is difficult to address its effects on service employees (Fisher & Ashkanasy, 2000).

Another reason for the contradictory conclusions about emotional labor's consequences is that researchers have failed to take into account the importance of individual factors. Researchers have posited that individual characteristics may play a primary role in explaining variation in the consequences (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1989). More and more researchers have recognized the importance of individual characteristics in determining the consequences of emotional labor (i.e., Rafaeli & Sutton, 1989; Morris & Feldman, 1997; Jones, 1998; Wharton, 1999), and have acknowledged that the negative effects of emotional labor might be greater for some individuals than for others. As Pine (1982) noted, some service employees are unique in the way that they seem to enjoy "working with people, helping to meet people's needs, and making the world a better place to live in" (p. 457).

Emotional Labor Framework

Since Hochschild's (1983) work, *The Managed Heart*, there is a growing amount of qualitative case study literature on emotional labor on cashiers (Rafaeli, 1989), social workers (Karabanow, 1999), policemen (Martin, 1999), theme park employees (Van Maanen & Kunda, 1989), fast food workers (Leidner, 1993), restaurant wait staff (Adelman, 1989), and so on. These studies offer a rich source of information about the

nature of emotional labor and how employees perform it. However, Wharton and Erickson (1993) criticized the narrow focus of these case studies because it “obscures variability in work-role emotional demands” (Wharton & Erickson, 1993, p. 457). In addition, the case study provides limited implications of how emotional labor relates to other work outcomes (Steinberg & Figart, 1999).

To have a further understanding of emotional labor, Adelman (1989) called for empirical studies and suggested that Hochschild’s rich textured data would be strengthened by supporting quantitative data (Adelman, 1989). Empirical studies are necessary to understand the effects of emotional labor.

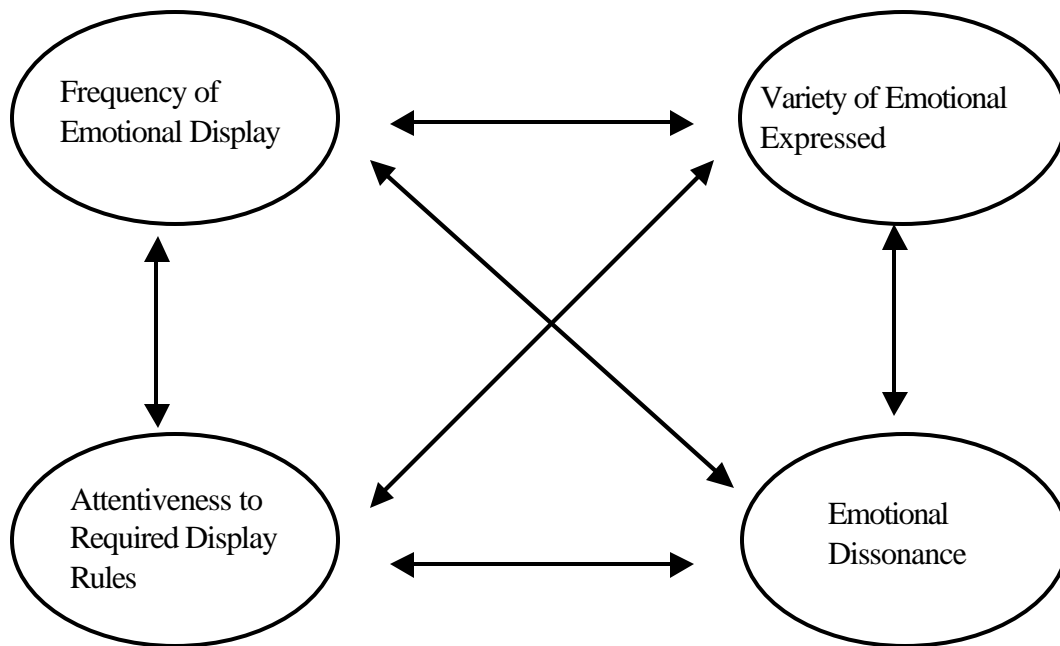
In earlier empirical studies, emotional labor has been conceptualized as a unidimensional construct solely concerned with the intensity and frequency of emotional displays. Researchers who employ this approach to emotional labor often separate samples into either an “emotional laborer” or a “non-emotional laborer” group. This classification is problematic since most jobs, more or less, involve performing emotional labor.

Wharton (1993) suggested that emotional labor should be treated as a multidimensional construct that delineates divergent consequences for different levels of emotional labor in different work settings. Understanding the dimensions of emotional labor would allow researchers to better differentiate emotional labor and examine its relationships with various individual and situational factors under different circumstances. The following section reviews two major theoretical frameworks and how emotional labor can be conceptualized based on these two frameworks.

Interactionist Framework

Morris and Feldman (1996, 1997) proposed a model of emotional labor based on the interactionist model of emotion, where emotions are expressed and determined by the social environment (Figure 2). The interactionist view of emotion infers that emotion is partly socially constructed. It is social factors that determine the experience and expression of emotion during service transactions. Morris and Feldman (1996) conceptualized emotional labor based on the interactionist model, and defined emotional labor as “the effort, planning, and control needed to express organizationally desired emotion during interpersonal transactions” (p.987). Based on this definition, they proposed emotional labor as a four-dimension construct: frequency of emotional labor, attentiveness (intensity of emotions, duration of interaction), variety of emotions required, and emotive dissonance (the difference between felt emotions and expressed emotions).

However, other researchers have criticized Morris and Feldman’s approach and raised some conceptual and methodological concerns regarding these dimensions and how they were identified. Grandey (1999) argued that frequency, duration, and variety of emotional labor provide information about the job demands on employees’ emotional displays. However, “they do not define what emotional labor is” (Grandey, 1999; p. 7). These three factors capture only the presence of emotional labor, but fail to further explain the emotion management process of the employee. Similarly, Kruml and Geddes (2000a) argued that Morris and Feldman’s dimensionality of emotional labor is methodologically problematic. Kruml and Geddes (2000a) critiqued the content validity of Morris and Feldman’s (1997) first three dimensions (frequency, duration, and variety). They argued that these three dimensions failed to conceptually link to their definition of emotional labor, which emphasized the individual’s effort, planning, and control of emotional labor (Kruml & Geddes, 2000a).



Source: Morris & Feldman (1996)

Figure 2. Four Dimensions of Emotional Labor

Dramaturgical Framework

Recently, some researchers have constructed theories about emotional labor based on Hochschild's dramaturgical perspective of emotion management. The essence of this perspective rests on viewing customers as audiences, employees as actors, and the workplace as theaters. Therefore, by utilizing different acting techniques (surface acting, deep acting, or genuine acting), employees alter their outward appearances, behavior or inner emotional state to control emotional expression according to situational dictates or display rules.

Grandey (1999) asserted that theorizing emotional labor from a dramaturgical perspective can explain "how" emotion is managed (effort and control). Knowing the process and methods employees use to manage their emotions is most useful when researchers' purpose is to understand this mechanism and its relationships with other work outcomes (i.e. attitude, withdrawal behavior). Thus this dramaturgical perspective can gain utility for emotional labor theory development (Grandey, 1999).

Kruml and Geddes (2000a) identified two dimensions of emotional labor based on Hochschild's acting perspective. They developed an emotional labor scale based on three types of acting—surface acting, deep acting, and genuine acting. Factorial analysis resulted in two dimensions—emotive dissonance and emotive effort. According to Kruml and Geddes (2000a), emotive dissonance represents the degree to which employees' expressed emotions align with their true feelings. Hochschild (1983) defined emotive dissonance as "the difference between genuinely felt emotions and feigned emotions." The dimension of emotive dissonance can capture surface and genuine deep acting as two opposite ends of a continuum (Kruml & Geddes, 2000a). The more that employees adopt surface acting, the more emotive dissonance they experience. On the other hand, the more employees adopt genuine acting, the less emotive dissonance they experience.

Another dimension of emotional labor is emotive effort. Kruml and Geddes (2000a) claimed that this dimension taps the domain of deep acting. Deep acting involves attempts to actually experience the emotions one is required to display. Employees need to actively strive to invoke thoughts, images, memories, or past experience to conjure up the appropriate emotional state and thereafter emotional

expression. Therefore, the emotive effort dimension of emotional labor captures the “efforts” employees need to exert when engaging in deep acting.

Based on the dramaturgical perspective of emotional labor and drawn from Grandey (1999), and Kruml and Geddes’ (2000a) works, in this study, emotional labor is operationally defined as “the degree of manipulation of one’s inner feelings or outward behavior to display the appropriate emotion in response to display rules or occupational norms.” This working definition emphasizes the different degrees of effort employees exert to manipulate or change their emotional state and behavior. As different types of acting require exerting different degrees of effort, surface acting is predicted to require the least effort, whereas deep acting requires the most effort. Genuine acting is when employees spontaneously feel what they are required to feel. It still requires some effort (or labor) to express emotions in an organizationally appropriate manner (Morris & Feldman, 1996).

The section below discusses how the two dimensions, emotive effort and emotive dissonance, are associated with the proposed antecedents (affectivity and empathy), consequences (job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion), and moderators (social support and job autonomy) of emotional labor. Specific hypotheses are presented and discussed.

2-3 EMOTIONAL LABOR ANTECEDENTS

Hochschild (1983) claimed that the way individuals perform emotional labor is influenced by various individual and situational characteristics. In recent years, most of the research on emotional labor has been situationally based. Situational variables such as frequency, duration, variety of emotional labor (Morris & Feldman, 1996, 1997; Jones, 1998; Grandey, 1999), presence of display rules (Morris & Feldman, 1996), or other job variables such as display training, quality orientation (Kruml & Geddes, 2000a), and job autonomy (Morris & Feldman, 1996; Jones, 1998; Kruml & Geddes, 2000a) are frequently treated as antecedents of emotional labor. Rarely, however, is emotional labor formulated as having an endogenous source of variance, one that is reflective of the ongoing state of the person as opposed to being a product of the situation. This study argues that it is the individual dispositional factor that will determine what acting

mechanism (surface acting, deep acting, and genuine acting) individuals tend to adopt during service transactions.

The individual difference approach to emotional labor involves the measurement of individual dispositions and the assumption that such measures can aid in explaining individual attitudes and behavior (Staw & Ross, 1985). Therefore, it is assumed that people can be characterized into certain dimensions, that these dimensions have some stability over time, and that these dimensions are useful in predicting individual behavior across situations (Staw & Ross, 1985).

It is proposed that individual characteristics affect the ways individuals perform emotional labor through different acting mechanisms, and thus lead to different outcomes. The underlying assumption is that, individuals with different disposition orientations appraise the same emotional display rules differently. In addition, individuals with different dispositions utilize different acting mechanisms to enact emotional labor. Schaubroek and Jones (2000) indicated that particular affective styles will be more or less congruent with particular emotional display rules, and therefore, will in turn affect individuals' perceptions of emotional display requirements (Schaubroek & Jones, 2000).

As previous research has suggested, that more studies are needed to demonstrate how these individual characteristics relate to emotional labor (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1989), this study adopts the individual difference approach to characterize people into different groups based on two characteristics: affectivity and empathy.

Affectivity

Affectivity has been defined as a general tendency to experience a particular mood (feeling happiness or sorrow) or to react to objects (e.g., situations or people) in a particular way or with certain emotions (Lazarus, 1993; Morris & Feldman, 1996; Abraham, 1998). Research has identified two basic types of affectivity: positive affectivity (PA) and negative affectivity (NA). While high PA individuals tend to feel enthusiastic, active, and alert, low PA individuals are often listless, lethargic, and apathetic. Low PA individuals are not necessarily experiencing something negative; they are simply less likely to report positive emotions (Cropanzano, James, & Konovsky, 1993). Unlike PA, high NA individuals tend to be anxious, afraid, nervous, and angry.

This type of person tends to be very tense and nervous. On the other hand, low NA individuals tend to be calm, placid, and contented (Cropanzano, James, & Konovsky, 1993).

Although the terms PA and NA might suggest that these mood factors are opposites (i.e., negatively correlated), Watson and Clerk (1984) suggested that these two are in fact independent, uncorrelated dimensions. For example, an individual may score high on both PA and NA. This type of person tends to be more emotional and experiences fluctuating moods in response to environmental events (high affect). On the other hand, people who score low on both PA and NA tend to be relatively unemotional and unresponsive (low affect).

Whereas some researchers have found that PA and NA are two separate constructs (Watson & Clark, 1984; Morris & Feldman, 1996), other researchers argue that PA and NA represent opposite ends of one construct (affectivity) that concerns the amount of happiness an individual experiences over time (Judge, 1992). Whether or not PA and NA is unipolar or bipolar is a debatable issue in the psychology literature. However, Watson and Clark's (1984) two-factor structure of mood has received considerable support in the psychology literature (Cropanzano, James, & Konovsky, 1993). Both cross-sectional and longitudinal studies have found that PA and NA are relatively independent, stable, related to different behaviors, and partially inherited (Watson & Clark, 1984; Watson & Tellegen, 1985; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988; George, 1992).

As employees with different affective styles evaluate and perceive the same display rules differently (Schaubroek & Jones, 2000), the acting mechanisms they choose to engage in also vary. When a high PA employee is asked to display positive emotions during a service transaction, this individual may perform such emotional labor with very little degree of "acting" and hardly recognize the effort of "acting cheerful." This individual is displaying "genuine acting," which indicates congruence between one's felt emotions and expressed emotions. In contrast, when a high NA individual is asked to display positive emotions, this individual may express such emotions with a greater degree of "acting," and will be more aware of this effort.

Therefore, it is assumed that a high PA employee needs to exert less effort to display positive emotion, and still can express more genuine positive emotions or attitudes. Therefore, a high PA employee is more likely to engage in genuine acting. Antithetically, it is assumed that a high NA employee needs to exert more effort to display genuine positive emotions. The more the NA employee wants to display authentic hospitality (fake in good faith), the more effort the NA employee needs to contribute to the acting process. Then this individual will be more likely to engage in “deep acting,” which can help him or her to call up positive emotions. However, if a high NA employee has not internalized display rules and does not believe that providing a positive attitude is part of his or her job (fake in bad faith), then this individual may be more likely to engage in “surface acting.”

As surface acting and genuine acting can be represented by emotive dissonance, and deep acting can be represented by emotive effort (Kruml & Geddes, 2000a), it is assumed that high PA employees will experience less emotive dissonance. Because employees who are more positive-oriented often experience positive emotions, they do not really need to “fake” the required positive emotions and can naturally display genuine positive emotions (i.e., a person who often experiences happiness will often show a happy emotion). In other words, they do not need to expend effort to express positive emotions. Therefore, they require less effort to produce positive emotions. The emotion they express will be less likely to clash with their felt emotions (less emotive dissonance).

Since high NA employees tend to frequently experience negative emotions, they need to rely on some acting techniques (more effort) to help them produce appropriate emotions. In a situation where high NA employees fake in good faith, they will engage in deep acting to induce a positive mood. Therefore, it is predicted that a high NA employee will exert more emotive effort, which represents the concept of deep acting. Oppositely, when high NA employees fake in bad faith, they tend to engage in surface acting. As a result, they experience more emotive dissonance. Based on the above argument, four hypotheses are proposed for empirical testing:

- H1: A high PA employee will experience less emotive dissonance than a low PA employee.**
- H2: A high PA employee will exert less emotive effort than a low PA employee.**
- H3: A high NA employee will experience more emotive dissonance than a low NA employee.**
- H4: A high NA employee will exert more emotive effort than a low NA employee.**

Empathy

The second antecedent is empathy. Although empathy has been studied for several decades, it has been conceptualized differently by different researchers, and there has been much controversy about its nature (Kerem, Fishman & Josselson, 2001). Empathy has been conceived of as a mode of perceiving (Kohut, 1984), a mode of knowing (Greenson, 1960), a mode of feeling (Strayer, 1987), a mode of relating (Jordan et al., 1991), and a mode of interpersonal process (Barrett-Lennard, 1981).

In the psychology literature, some researchers have defined empathy as a cognitive process (e.g., Deutsch & Madle, 1975); others have defined it as an affective process (e.g., Hoffman, 1984). From the cognitive side, empathy is conceptualized as a process of perspective-taking or of inferring another person's thoughts and feelings from various cues (Strayer, 1987). From the affective side, empathy is conceptualized as an affective reaction of one person to the experience of another (Feshbach & Roe, 1968).

More recently, researchers proposed that empathy is, indeed, a multidimensional construct, which consists of both cognitive and affective processes that lead to both affective and non-affective outcomes (e.g., Davis, 1994). The cognitive aspect of empathy is the process of understand others' feelings, whereas the affective aspect is the outcome of empathy—knowing others' feelings. This multidimensional integrative approach to empathy has become the leading perspective in recent research (Kerem, Fishman & Josselson, 2001).

Although empathy involves an affective process, it is different from an individual's dispositional affectivity. Whereas affectivity is one's general tendency to experience certain moods, empathy is one's ability to know how others feel. The former involves more "self-oriented" feelings, and the latter involves more "other-oriented" feelings (Davis, 1994).

In brief, empathy—the ability to know how another feels—is a competence that builds on emotional self-awareness which, in turn, is the fundamental "people skill" (Goleman, 1995). According to Goleman (1995), people who are empathic are "more attuned to the subtle social signals that indicate what others need or want" (p. 43). People with greater empathic ability are more sensitive to the nonverbal cues of emotional expression such as tone of voice, gesture, facial expression and the like (Goleman, 1995).

Further, researchers in the area of service management have suggested that employees with greater empathy are in better positions to perform emotional labor since they are more sensitive to others' needs. Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry (1988) identified empathy as one of the dimensions of service quality. They asserted that the ability to know how to relate to people is often considered as an asset to service companies because people with greater empathetic ability can perform emotional labor better by knowing others' needs. Hochschild's (1983) also confirmed the importance of employees' empathetic ability to the company. She found that flight attendants were hired, in part, for their empathetic ability.

Two of the most widely discussed empathy variables are "emotional contagion" and "empathic concern." These two variables seem especially important in the context of service behavior, and are the focus of the present study.

Emotional contagion refers to sharing or taking-on the emotion of another person. Hatfield, et al. (1994) defined emotional contagion as "a tendency to automatically mimic and synchronize expressions, vocalizations, postures, and movements with those of another person and, consequently, to converge emotionally" (Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1994; p.5). Simply stated, it is a person's innate sensitivity that makes their autonomic nervous system more easily triggered by another's emotions. In other words, people who respond with emotional contagion tend to "feel with" another and are more easily aroused (Miller, Still, & Ellis, 1988). This characteristic makes people with high

emotional contagion more susceptible, and susceptible people are more likely to make the target person (i.e., service receiver) feel relaxed and at ease. Consequently, rapport-building with others may come more easily (Verbeke, 1997).

Research has demonstrated that the emotional contagion component of empathy evokes altruistic actions toward the target person (Batson, et al., 1988). In addition, Verbeke (1997) found that people with greater emotional contagion—those who are able to send emotions or catch emotions—are better salespeople. However, emotional contagion is a double-edge sword. Researchers have documented that emotional contagion is a liability for service providers, since this characteristic (high emotional contagion) leads to greater risks for burnout (Omdahl & O'Donnell, 1999; Verbeke, 1997).

In relation to emotional labor, Kruml and Geddes (2000a) hypothesized that the more emotional contagion workers experience, the less emotive dissonance they will experience. They found support for this hypothesis in their empirical study on health care providers. Because people who can “feel with” others or be more susceptible to others’ emotions should be more likely to express their true feelings, it is predicted that emotional contagion will be negatively associated with emotional dissonance. Likewise, people who can “feel with” others will be more likely to exert effort to display the appropriate emotion and response.

The second variable of empathy is empathic concern. Empathic concern refers to a concern for the well-being of another that does not require sharing emotions. It has been defined as one’s experience of a particular affective response to a distressed target (Davis, 1994). For example, instead of sharing others’ emotion (i.e., grief), an individual experiences a particular affective response (i.e., feelings sympathy and compassion for the target person). In other words, when employees respond with empathic concern, their feelings are not parallel or aroused by those of customers. Employees “feel for” customers, but do not “feel with” them (Kruml & Geddes, 2000a).

Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) have argued that emotive dissonance is associated with how deeply a service provider is concerned about the welfare of his or her customers. As deep acting requires a greater degree of effort, when a service provider is concerned about his or her customers, then he or she may use a deep acting technique to

generate the appropriate emotions and provide sincere service. In contrast, if a service provider is not particularly concerned with his or her customers, then he or she may use surface acting to mechanically greet customers. As a result, when individuals have a high level of empathic concern, they will utilize genuine acting to perform emotional labor. Even when a simultaneous genuine response is sometimes difficult to achieve, individuals with high empathic concern will use deep acting to generate situationally appropriate emotions and responses. In either situation, it is very unlikely for such an individual to experience high emotive dissonance.

In sum, it is expected that there is a negative correlation between empathic concern and emotive dissonance. It is also expected that there is a positive relationship between empathic concern and emotive effort.

Four hypotheses were developed for empirical testing:

- H5: The more emotional contagion employees experience, the less emotive dissonance they will experience.**
- H6: The more emotional contagion employees experience, the more emotive effort they will exert.**
- H7: The more empathic concern employees experience, the less emotive dissonance they will experience.**
- H8: The more empathic concern employees experience, the more emotive effort they will exert.**

2-4 EMOTIONAL LABOR CONSEQUENCES

Much of the literature on emotional labor has proposed the potentially negative consequences of emotional labor for the psychological well-being of employees. Albrecht and Zemke (1985) cautioned that “contact overload is a recognizable syndrome in interactive work,” whose symptoms include becoming “robotic, detached, and unempathetic” (p. 114). Hochschild (1983) pointed out that performing emotional labor eventually causes estrangement from one’s genuine feelings, and therefore has detrimental consequences for one’s psychological well-being. However, as substantial case studies have indicated the detrimental effects of emotional labor, empirical studies tend to find contrasting results (Wharton, 1993; Erickson & Wharton, 1997).

Wharton (1993) found that workers find jobs involving emotional labor more satisfying than do other workers not involved in emotional labor. She suggested that jobs involving emotional labor attract workers whose personal qualities are especially suited to working with the public and, subsequently, these workers have a better fit between job demands and personal qualities. This fit leads to higher job satisfaction. However, very few empirical studies have tried to test this assumption empirically.

The present study is an attempt to solve the confusing consequences of emotional labor by considering individual characteristics in the proposed emotional labor model. The section below discusses how the two emotional labor factors relate to the proposed consequences: job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion. Specific hypotheses for empirical testing were also proposed.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is a frequently cited result of emotional labor. It is defined as “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of the job” (Locke, 1976). Researchers on emotional labor do not have a definitive conclusion about how performing emotional labor increases or decreases job satisfaction. While researchers historically infer that emotional labor leads to job dissatisfaction (Hochschild, 1983; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987; Morris & Feldman, 1996), empirical studies have not provided support for that contention (Wharton, 1993).

As suggested earlier, one possible reason for the contradictory conclusions about emotional labor’s consequences is that researchers have failed to take into account the

importance of individual factors. Researchers have suggested the possibility that some employees may not find performing organizationally-sanctioned emotion particularly unpleasant. This different level of endurance of emotional labor may be due to the fact that employees who have inherently different personality traits will adopt different types of acting when performing emotional labor. This variation in acting thus leads to different outcomes of emotional labor.

Hochschild (1983) indicated that working to manage something as personal as emotions for commercial purposes would be inherently unsatisfying. In this case, employees who are required to regulate their emotions will experience a lower level of job satisfaction, and it does not matter what types of acting techniques are involved when performing emotional labor. Grandey (1999) therefore hypothesized that surface and deep acting both relate to job satisfaction negatively. She found that job satisfaction is significantly related in a negative direction to surface acting ($r = -.50$) and deep acting ($r = -.23$). Even though the direction of this relationship remains the same, the magnitude is different.

Morris and Feldman (1997) found that an increase in emotive dissonance was negatively related to job satisfaction. In other words, when employees adopt surface acting (thus more emotive dissonance), their satisfaction level decreases. Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) suggested that it may be the false and hypocritical feeling caused by faking emotions (surface acting) that leads to lowered satisfaction (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). Therefore, it is predicted that an increase in emotive dissonance will decrease job satisfaction.

In terms of the relationship between deep acting (emotive effort) and job satisfaction, there seems to be less empirical support. Grandey (1999) found a negative relationship between job satisfaction and deep acting. However, she did not provide further explanation for this relationship.

Rafaeli and Sutton (1987) indicated that employees who fake in good faith utilize a deep acting skill to generate appropriate emotions. Even though it is not as spontaneously genuine a response as genuine acting, deep acting alters one's emotions by some artificial skills such as images or memories to produce situational appropriate emotions that comply with occupational norms or organizational display rules. As

employees who exert effort (deep acting) when performing emotional labor will not experience emotive dissonance as strongly as those who adopt surface acting, an increase in emotive effort will lead to a decrease in emotive dissonance. As emotive dissonance is negatively associated with job satisfaction, it is predicted that an increase in emotive effort will increase job satisfaction. Two hypotheses are proposed for empirical testing.

H 9: Increased emotive dissonance will lead to decreased job satisfaction.

H 10: Increased emotive effort will lead to increased job satisfaction.

Emotional Exhaustion

Emotional exhaustion is a specific stress-related reaction that refers to a state of depleted energy caused by the excessive psychological and emotional demands that occur among individuals who work with people in some capacity (Jackson, Turner, & Brief, 1987). It describes feelings of being emotionally overextended and exhausted by one's work, since emotions are not an inexhaustible resource (Frijda, 1994). Emotional exhaustion is manifested by both physical fatigue and a sense of feeling psychologically and emotionally "drained" (Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Wright & Cropanzano, 1998). It is considered the core characteristic of burnout (Maslach, 1982).

Maslach (1982) claimed that emotionally exhausted individuals are those engaging in emotionally charged situations on a regular basis. She further indicated that as it is a general belief that service providers alone are responsible for ensuring the future well-being of their customers and clients, it is also this belief that constitutes an awesome and exhausting burden to service providers (Maslach, 1982). Her view was supported by empirical research that has shown that employees who interact with customers on a frequent and continuous basis (a form of role overload) were found to suffer higher levels of emotional exhaustion (Maslach, 1982; Saxton, Phillips, & Blakeney, 1991).

Emotional exhaustion is one of the most-often-cited consequences of emotional labor (Hochschild, 1983; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987; Wharton, 1993; Morris & Feldman, 1996; Jones, 1998; Grandey, 1999; Kruml & Geddes, 2000a). Kruml and Geddes (2000a) suggested that the degree of exhaustion which workers experience varies

according to acting types (Kruml & Geddes, 2000b). According to Hochschild's (1983) research, employees who cannot separate their "true self" and "acted self" are more vulnerable to emotional exhaustion. They cannot maintain an emotional distance from their customers. This view corresponds to Maslach (1982), who found that individuals are most susceptible to emotional exhaustion when they invest more emotion in the enactment of their helping roles (Maslach, 1982).

However, other researchers have found different results. Morris and Feldman (1997) found that dissonance and emotional exhaustion are positively related. In other words, when employees "fake" emotions (surface acting), they feel emotionally exhausted. Morris and Feldman (1997) further suggested that emotional labor is dysfunctional for individuals only to the extent that expressed emotions violate felt emotions (Morris & Feldman, 1997). Although their results do not confirm Hochschild's view that surface acting protects employees from becoming emotionally worn-out, similar results were found in other empirical studies (i.e., Grandey, 1999; Kruml & Geddes, 2000b).

To answer the question of whether or not faking emotions increases or decreases emotional exhaustion, researchers have suggested investigating this issue from the standpoint of role conflict theory (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987; Morris & Feldman, 1996).

Role conflict involves conflict between the needs and values of a person and the demands of others in his or her role set (Kahn, 1964; Morris & Feldman, 1997). For example, organizational display rules that require an employee to smile may generate two possible reactions. If the individual has a natural inclination to smile, this demand is not likely to have any adverse consequences. On the other hand, if the individual's experienced emotional displays do not include smiling, a conflict between the expected and experienced emotions may result (Abraham, 1998).

Previous research on stress management suggests that a key antecedent of emotional exhaustion is the above-mentioned role conflict (Jackson, Schwab, & Schuler, 1986). Therefore, based on the role conflict theory, it is assumed that there is a positive correlation between emotive dissonance and emotional exhaustion. That is, people who display "fake" emotion (surface acting) experience a higher level of emotional exhaustion

and people who display genuine emotion (deep acting) experience a lower level of emotional exhaustion. Based on the above literature, two hypotheses were proposed.

H 11: Increased emotive dissonance will lead to increased emotional exhaustion.

H 12: Increased emotive effort will lead to decreased emotional exhaustion.

2-5 EMOTIONAL LABOR MODERATORS

The above literature focuses on the antecedents and consequences of emotional labor, specifically, how individual characteristics influence the acting mechanism employees choose to perform emotional labor and its associated consequences. This study further examines how job characteristics and organizational characteristics will have some moderating effects on emotional labor and its consequences. Based on the literature on emotion management and stress management, job autonomy and social support are proposed as two major moderators. Job autonomy represents a job characteristic, whereas social support represents an organizational characteristic. These two variables serve as moderators to buffer (protect) individuals from the potential negative effects of requirements to express or suppress emotion.

Social Support

It is proposed that social support as an organizational characteristic buffers the negative effects of emotional labor. Social support is defined as feedback focusing on “action,” “identity,” and “guidance” as a supporter tries to help a supportee understand and/or identify ways to cope with a stressor (Caplan, 1974). For example, Hochschild (1983) found that flight attendants utilize informal meetings with other flight attendants to release the negative emotions they have about difficult passengers.

In general, social support can be categorized into four typologies: emotional support, informational support, social companionship, and instrumental support (Cohen & Willis, 1985). Emotional support focuses on empathic messages demonstrating an understanding of an individual’s stress situation and serves as an outlet to release stress (House, 1981). Informational support focuses on help in defining, understanding, and

coping with problematic situations. Social companionship is spending time with others in leisure and recreational activities as a means of distracting persons from worrying about problems. Lastly, instrumental support releases stress by providing financial aid or material resources (Cohen & Wills, 1985; House, 1981).

Although these four types of support are conceptually independent from each other, Cohen and Willis (1985) argued that these four functions are not usually independent in a natural setting. Therefore, the four types of social support can be operationalized as some combination of these four (House, 1981).

Social support has a beneficial effect on individual well-being through two mechanisms (House, 1981). One focuses on the direct effect of social support on employee well-being regardless of the presence of stress. Individuals who experience higher levels of social support are expected to experience more positive work outcomes (i.e., better health, more job satisfaction). The higher levels of social support may have a direct effect on perceived stress, so that when social support is present, the level of perceived stress is reduced or alleviated. Another mechanism of social support is a buffering, moderating, or an interactive one (Cohen & Wills, 1985). The key notion of this moderating effect of social support is that social support interacts with stress so that the negative consequences of stress become less pronounced when individuals receive more support from their supervisors or co-workers. These types of support provide protection from the harmful effects of stressful conditions (Abraham, 1998; Jones, 1998).

This buffering mechanism is adopted in the present study to investigate how social support buffers the potential negative consequences resulting from performing emotional labor. Previous research has documented theoretical arguments, as well as providing empirical evidence that social support helps to buffer the negative consequences of emotional labor (Abraham, 1998; Grandey, 1999). Social support from supervisors and co-workers provides companionship, and emotional functions may create a supportive and conducive work atmosphere in the organization. Further, supervisors and co-workers may help individuals re-evaluate the outcomes of emotional labor so that it becomes more manageable and less aversive. Therefore, social support can buffer the negative consequences of performing emotional labor by mitigating emotional exhaustion and job dissatisfaction.

From the preceding discussion, this study predicts that social support is a moderator to the relationship between emotional labor and its associated consequences. The key notion of this moderating effect is that the magnitude of the negative relationship between emotional labor and its consequences varies across different levels of social support. For example, the negative relationship between emotive dissonance and job satisfaction will be moderated by different levels of social support. In other words, keeping emotive dissonance constant, job satisfaction increases when an individual receives more support from his or her supervisor or coworkers. That is, job satisfaction decreases when an individual receives less support from his or her supervisor or coworkers. From the preceding discussion, the following hypotheses are suggested.

H 13: Social support moderates the impact of emotional labor (emotive effort and emotive dissonance) on job satisfaction; individuals with high levels of social support are less likely than those with low social support to experience negative effects of emotional labor on job satisfaction.

H 13 a: Social support moderates the relationship between emotive dissonance and job satisfaction. The relationship becomes weaker when employees receive more social support. The relationship becomes stronger when employees receive less social support.

H13 b Social support moderates the relationship between emotive effort and job satisfaction. The relationship becomes stronger when employees receive more social support. The relationship becomes weaker when employees receive less social support.

H 14: Social support moderates the impact of emotional labor (emotive effort and emotive dissonance) on emotional exhaustion; individuals with high levels of social support are less likely than those with low social support to experience negative effects of emotional labor on emotional exhaustion.

H 14 a: Social support moderates the relationship between emotive dissonance and emotional exhaustion. The relationship becomes stronger when employees receive less social support. The relationship becomes weaker when employees receive more social support.

H 14 b: Social support moderates the relationship between emotive effort and emotional exhaustion. The relationship becomes stronger when employees receive more social support. The relationship becomes weaker when employees receive less social support.

Job Autonomy

Researchers have believed that the effect of emotional labor on its consequences also depends on other variables, including job characteristics (Wharton, 1993). The present study focuses on the job autonomy aspect of job characteristics.

Most service industries in general, and the hospitality industry in particular, have specific scripts of what and how emotions should be displayed during service transactions. For example, in Disney World, employees are trained to follow specific organizational display rules, particularly when they are “onstage” with Disney guests, no matter how unpleasant the guests happen to be and how angry the employees feel (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1989). This specific script and rigorous control over employee behavior can, on the one hand, ensure the quality of interactions between guests and employees. But, on the other hand, it has negative effects on employees’ psychological well-being.

The latitude of control (or job autonomy) employees have over their own emotional display is a critical factor in determining employees’ perceptions about

performing emotional labor. Job autonomy has been defined as the degree to which an employee has freedom, independence, and discretion in fulfilling the tasks of the job (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). Research has shown that job autonomy is positively correlated to job satisfaction and other work attitudes (Hackman & Oldman, 1975; Morris & Feldman, 1996). A lack of control can pose psychological problems for all types of workers (Karasek & Theorell, 1990).

Previous studies on emotional labor have suggested that emotional labor is significantly less aversive among workers who have greater job autonomy (Adelmann, 1989; Wharton, 1993; Erickson, 1991). Greater job autonomy provides employees the opportunities to “personalize” the service episode so it can reflect one’s identity, and therefore, they feel less exhausted (Wharton, 1999). Additionally, more autonomy allows employees to have latitude to violate display rules when these rules conflict with their own genuinely felt emotions. Wharton (1993) found that job autonomy decreases the likelihood of emotional exhaustion for all workers, including emotional laborers and non-emotional laborers. However, the effect is greater among emotional laborers. In addition, job autonomy positively affects job satisfaction for both performers and nonperformers of emotional labor. Again, this effect is significantly greater among employees who perform emotional labor (Wharton, 1993).

Wharton’s (1993) findings correspond to the literature on emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction. In the area of emotional exhaustion, researchers have confirmed that job autonomy can moderate the negative consequence of emotional labor. In this study, it is predicted that job autonomy is a moderator to the relationship between emotional labor and its associated consequences. The magnitude of the negative relationship between emotional labor and its consequences varies across different levels of job autonomy. For example, the negative relationship between emotive dissonance and job satisfaction will be moderated by different levels of job autonomy. In other words, keeping emotive dissonance constant, job satisfaction increases when an individual has more autonomy over his or her job duties. On the other hand, job satisfaction decreases when an individual is given less autonomy. Based on the previous literature, it is expected that granting employees job autonomy would buffer the negative impact of emotional labor

on increased emotional exhaustion and decreased job satisfaction. The following hypotheses were developed for empirical testing.

H 15: Job autonomy moderates the impact of emotional labor (emotive effort and emotive dissonance) on job satisfaction; individuals with high levels of job autonomy are less likely than those with low job autonomy to experience negative effects of emotional labor on job satisfaction.

H 15 a: Job autonomy moderates the relationship between emotive dissonance and job satisfaction. The relationship becomes weaker when employees receive more job autonomy. The relationship becomes stronger when employees receive less job autonomy.

H 15 b: Job autonomy moderates the relationship between emotive effort and job satisfaction. The relationship becomes stronger when employees receive more job autonomy. The relationship becomes weaker when employees receive less job autonomy.

H 16: Job autonomy moderates the impact of emotional labor (emotive effort and emotive dissonance) on emotional exhaustion; individuals with high levels of job autonomy are less likely than those with low job autonomy to experience negative effects of emotional labor on emotional exhaustion.

H 16 a: Job autonomy moderates the relationship between emotive dissonance and emotional exhaustion. The relationship becomes stronger when employees receive less job autonomy. The relationship becomes weaker when employees receive more job autonomy.

H 16 b: Job autonomy moderates the relationship between emotive effort and emotional exhaustion. The relationship becomes stronger when employees receive more job autonomy. The relationship becomes weaker when employees receive less job autonomy.

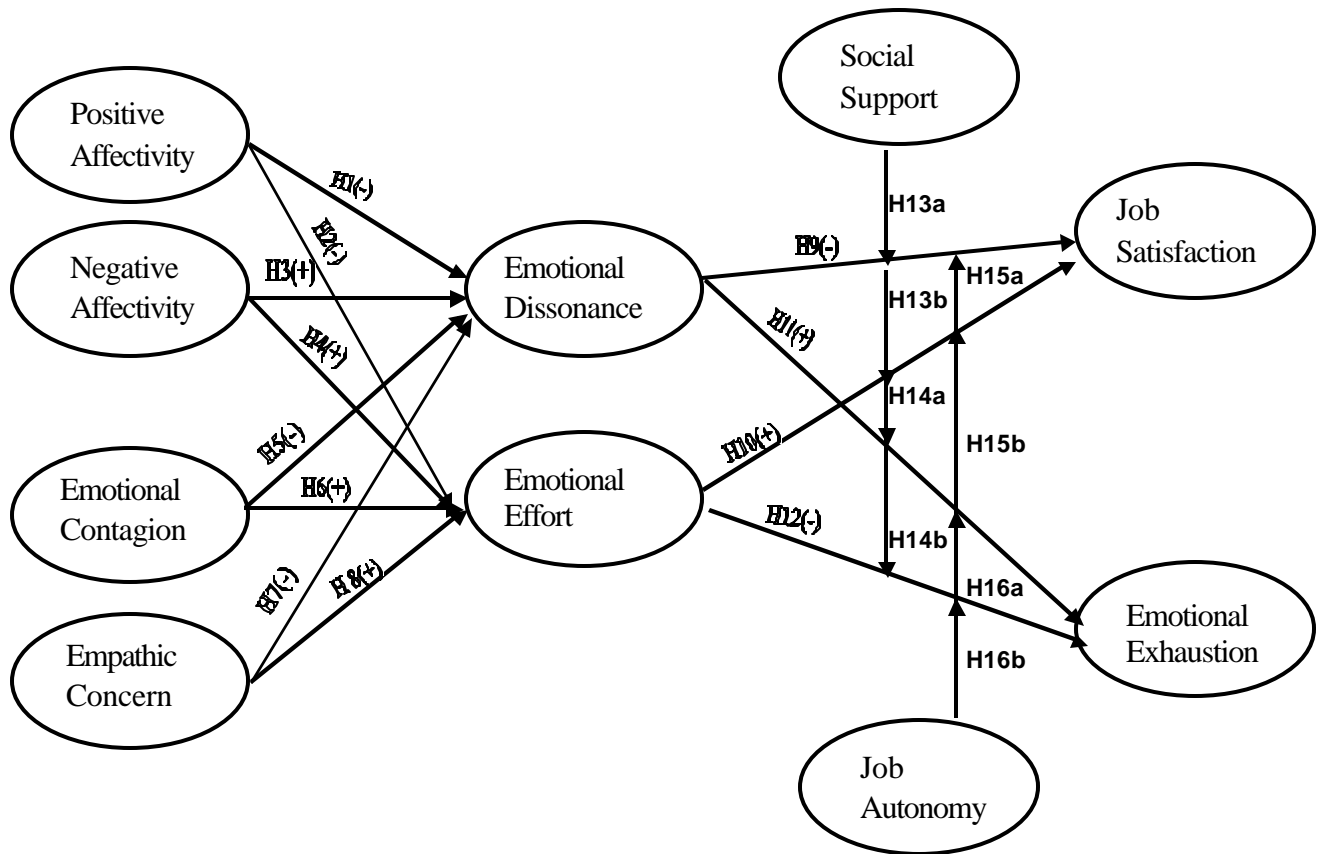


Figure 3. Proposed Testing Model

2-6 SUMMARY

This chapter presented a review of the literature regarding the constructs of the proposed model. It began with a discussion of emotional labor, display rules, the acting paradigm, the research framework, and the consequences of emotional labor. Issues concerning the quantitative approach to studying emotional labor were also discussed.

Based on the proposed theoretical model, this chapter presented the antecedents, consequences, and moderators of emotional labor in detail. Based on the relationships among the constructs, research hypotheses were formulated and discussed.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3-1 INTRODUCTION

This study is a causal study in nature, which proposes to answer questions of “how”—how individual differences influence the choice of acting mechanisms when performing emotional labor? How are different types of acting associated with different emotional labor consequences? How do job characteristic and organizational characteristics buffer the negative effects, if any, of emotional labor?

This chapter presents the research methodology adopted to answer the above questions and to test the hypotheses proposed in Chapter Two. This chapter also presents the research design of the sampling plan, the instrument development, and data collection procedures. The statistical analysis that is to be used is also discussed.

3-2 MEASURES

Emotional Labor

Perceptions of emotional labor were measured with the emotional labor scale developed by Kruml and Geddes (2000a). Grandey (1999) suggested that Hochschild’s (1983) acting perspective seems to be the most useful way of measuring the concept of emotional labor when the research purpose is to understand the individual and organizational outcomes (Grandey, 1999). Originating in this acting perspective, Kruml and Geddes (2000a) developed a six-item emotional labor scale (Table 3.1). This six-item scale measures the underlying mechanisms of performing emotional labor. In their study, they identified two dimensions for emotional labor: emotive effort, and emotive dissonance. Four items measure emotional effort ($\alpha = .66$), which represent deep acting. Another two items measure emotional dissonance ($\alpha = .68$), which place surface acting and genuine acting at opposite ends of a continuum (Kruml & Geddes, 2000a). According to Kruml and Geddes (2000a), this scale can help in “understanding how various personal and job-related characteristics contribute to emotional labor but also

provide insights regarding emotional labor consequences” (Kruml & Geddes, 2000a, p.37).

Table 3.1 Emotional Labor Scale

Emotive Effort

I try to talk myself out of feeling what I really feel when helping customers.

I work at conjuring up the feelings I need to show to customers.

I try to change my actual feelings to match those that I must express to customers.

When working with customers, I attempt to create certain emotions in myself that present the image my company desires.

Emotive Dissonance

I show the same feelings to customers that I feel inside

The emotions I show the customer match what I truly feel.

Source: Kruml and Geddes (2000a).

Emotional labor is measured on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from (1)=”not at all” to (7) = “almost always,” with no verbal labels for scale points 2 through 6.

However, Kruml and Geddes’s (2000a) scale needed to be improved and refined for two reasons. First, the reliabilities of their scale were not particularly high. As suggested by Kruml and Geddes (2000a), the Emotional Labor scale needed to be improved in reliability by expanding its item numbers. It is expected that increasing item numbers can increase reliability coefficients to a more acceptable level. Second, as this study focuses solely on guest-contact employees in the lodging industry, it is necessary for the researcher to develop an emotional labor scale which can more closely tap the emotional labor that hotel employees perform.

To develop a Hospitality Emotional Labor Scale, this study followed the scale development guideline provided by Hinkin et al. (1997) (Figure 4), with some modification. The section below describes the process used to construct the Hospitality Emotional Labor Scale for this study.

Step 1: Item Generation

Create Items

Step 2: Content Adequacy Assessment

Test for conceptual consistency of items

Step 3: Questionnaire Administration

Determine the scale for items

Determine an adequate sample size

Administer questions with other established measures

Step 4: Factor Analysis

Exploratory to reduce the set of items

Confirmatory to test the significance of the scale

Step 5: Internal Consistency Assessment

Determine the reliability of the scale

Step 6: Construct Validity

Determine the convergent and criterion-related validity

Step 7: Replication

Repeat the scale-testing process with a new data set

Source: Hinkin, Tracey, & Enz (1997)

Figure 4. Guideline for scale development and analysis

Affectivity

In this study, service employees' affectivity was measured using the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) developed by Watson, Clark, and Tellegen (1988) (Table 3.2). Researchers have indicated that PANAS is probably the most widely used scale to measure PA and NA (Wright & Cropanzano, 1998). Watson, et al. (1988) conceptualized positive affect (PA) and negative affect (NA) as two separate constructs. Watson et al. (1988) asserted that PANAS can detect a subjects' general emotional state. Research has evidenced the sound reliability of PANAS (i.e., Morris & Feldman, 1996; Jones, 1998; Wright & Cropanzano, 1998; Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000). For example, Cronbach's alphas of .86 and .91 for PA and .85 and .83 for NA in successive studies (Morris, 1995; Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000) supported internal consistency reliability.

PANAS is composed of two ten-item mood scales, one to measure positive affectivity and the other to measure negativity affectivity. For PA, the higher the score indicates the greater tendency to experience a positive mood. For NA, the higher the score, the greater tendency to experience a negative mood.

Table 3.2 Positive Affect/ Negative Affect Scale

Positive Affectivity	Negative Affectivity
Excited	Afraid
Strong	Scared
Enthusiastic	Irritable
Attentive	Ashamed
Active	Nervous
Proud	Distressed
Inspired	Upset
Determined	Guilty
Interested	Hostile
Alert	Jittery

Source: Watson, Clark, and Tellegen (1988).

Affect is measured on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from (1) = “not at all” to (7) = “almost always,” with no verbal labels for scale points 2 through 6.

Emotional Contagion

Emotional contagion, which is the extent to which respondents have a tendency to “feel with” others, was measured using seven items reflecting emotional contagion derived from the Emotional Empathy Scale (EES; Mehrabian & Epstein, 1972) (Table 3.3). Mehrabian and Epstein’s (1972) subscale of emotional contagion measures the tendency of one’s emotions to be aroused by others’ emotions.

Dillard and Hunter (1989) reviewed the EES and suggested that the subscale of EES, particularly the emotional contagion scale, has demonstrated appropriate construct validity. In terms of scale reliability, the emotional contagion scale has been shown to have moderately good reliability. Cronbach’s alphas of .72 and .69 in successive studies (Kruml & Geddes, 2000a; Omdahl & O’Donnell, 1999) supported internal consistency reliability. Responses were scored according to a seven-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. The higher the score indicates the greater emotional contagion.

Table 3.3 Emotional Contagion Scale

I often find that I can remain cool in spite of the excitement around me. *

I am able to remain calm even though those around me worry. *

I tend to lose control when I am bringing bad news to people.

I cannot continue to feel OK if people around me are depressed.

I don’t get upset just because a friend is acting upset.*

I become nervous if others around me seem to be nervous.

The people around me have a great influence on my moods.

* This item is negatively phrased and requires reflection.

Source: Adapted from Mehrabian and Epstein (1972).

Emotional contagion is measured on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from (1) = “strongly disagree” to (7) = “strongly agree.”

Empathic Concern

Empathic concern, which is the extent to which respondents have a tendency to “feel for” others, was measured using seven items reflecting empathic concern derived from the Individual Reactivity Index (IRI; Davis, 1983) (Table 3.4). The empathic concern subscale measures the tendency to experience feelings of warmth, compassion, and concern for other people.

Davis’ (1983) IRI scale has been widely adopted and has been suggested as a more valid scale measuring empathy (Dillard & Hunter, 1989). The empathic concern subscale has demonstrated moderately good reliability. Cronbach’s alphas of .72 and .79 in previous studies (Omdahl & O’Donnell, 1999; Davis, et al., 1999) supported acceptable internal consistency reliability. Responses were scored according to a seven-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. The higher the score indicates the greater empathic concern.

Table 3.4 Empathic Concern Scale

I often have tender, concerned feelings for people less fortunate than myself.

Sometimes I don’t feel very sorry for other people when they are having problems.*

When I see someone being taken advantage of, I feel kind of protective toward them.

Other people’s misfortunes do not usually disturb me a great deal.*

When I see someone being treated unfairly, I sometimes don’t feel very much pity for them

I am often quite touched by things that I see happen.

I would describe myself as a pretty soft-hearted person.

*This item is negatively phrased and requires reflection.

Source: Davis (1983).

Empathic concern is measured on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from (1) = “strongly disagree” to (7) = “strongly agree,” with no verbal labels for scale points 2 through 6.

Social Support

Social support was measured by eight items pertaining to support and understanding from supervisors and coworkers from the Social Support Scale developed by Caplan, Cobb, French, Harrison, and Pinneau (1980) (Table 3.5). Four supervisor support statements and four coworker support statements form the indicators of social support at work. Each item asks for the degree of support the respondent receives from their supervisor or coworkers.

Previous studies have evidenced the internal consistency of this scale (i.e., Miller, Ellis, Zook & Lyles, 1990; Jones, 1998). Cronbach's alphas ranged from .76 to .87 in past studies (Jones, 1998; Abraham, 1998), and demonstrated internal consistency reliability for Caplan, et al.'s (1980) Social Support Scale. In addition, this scale was selected over other social support scales, such as The Inventory of Socially Supportive Behaviors (ISSB), in that it is short and easy to administer. Responses were scored according to a seven-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. The higher the score indicates the greater social support.

Table 3.5 Social Support Scale

My supervisor goes out of his or her way to make my life easier for me.

It is easy to talk with my supervisor.

My supervisor can be relied on when things get tough at work.

My supervisor is willing to listen to my personal problems.

My coworkers go out of their ways to make my life easier for me.

It is easy to talk with my coworkers.

My coworkers can be relied on when things get tough at work.

My coworkers are willing to listen to my personal problems.

Source: Caplan, Cobb, French, Harrison, and Pinneau (1980).

Social support is measured on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from (1) = "strongly disagree" to (7) = "strongly agree," with no verbal labels for scale points 2 through 6.

Job Autonomy

Job autonomy has been operationalized in the literature as the ability to control various aspects of the job. In this study, job autonomy was measured using Hackman and Oldham's (1975) three-item job autonomy subscale (Table 3.6) of the 21-item Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS). This job autonomy subscale measures the degree to which an employee has freedom, independence, and discretion in performing job tasks (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). This scale consists of three items on a seven-point rating scale, ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree. This measurement is widely used in the literature and is reported to have an acceptable level of reliability. For example, Cronbach's alphas of .73 and .74 in successive studies (Dunhan, 1976; Abraham, 1998) indicated acceptable reliability.

The job autonomy scale was re-worded to emphasize the employee-guest interaction. Responses were scored according to a seven-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. The higher the score indicates the greater job autonomy.

Table 3.6 Job Autonomy Scale

When I interact with guests, I have the freedom and independence to speak and act in ways I think fit the situation.

I have a lot of freedom to decide how I should deal with guests.

My job denies me much chance to use my personal initiative or judgement when interacting with guests.

Source: Hackman and Oldham (1975).

Job autonomy is measured on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from (1) = "strongly disagree" to (7) = "strongly agree," with no verbal labels for scale points 2 through 6.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is generally viewed as an emotional response, and represents the degree to which a person likes his or her job. In this study, service employee job satisfaction was measured using five items derived from the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS; Hackman & Oldham, 1975) (Table 3.7). As this study investigates how performing emotional labor affects one's satisfaction with the job, assessing individuals' overall job satisfaction is more appropriate than measuring their satisfaction with different aspects of their jobs (i.e., pay). Five items employed from JDS (Hackman & Oldham, 1975) ask respondents attitudes about their jobs, specifically, how satisfied they are with their jobs and how often they think about quitting.

Previous studies have evidenced the internal consistency of this scale (i.e., Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Morris, 1995; Morris & Feldman, 1997; Jones, 1999). Cronbach's alphas ranged from .71 to .87 in successive studies (Abraham, 1998; Morris, 1995) supported a moderately good reliability of this scale. The format for the five job satisfaction items is a seven-point scale ranging from "extremely dissatisfied" to "extremely satisfied." The higher the score indicates a greater satisfaction level.

Table 3.7 Job Satisfaction Scale

People on this job often think of quitting.

I am satisfied with the kind of work I do in this job.

I frequently think of quitting this job.

Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with this job.

Most people on this job are very satisfied with their jobs.

Source: Hackman and Oldham (1975).

Job satisfaction is measured on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from (1) = "strongly disagree" to (7) = "strongly agree," with no verbal labels for scale points 2 through 6.

Emotional Exhaustion

Emotional exhaustion was measured using Maslach and Jackson's (1981) nine-item emotional exhaustion subscale (Table 3.8) of the 22-item Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI). A high degree of burnout is reflected in high scores on the emotional exhaustion subscale. Evidence of the construct validity of the emotional exhaustion subscale has been provided by correlations between emotional exhaustion and various job attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction and turnover intention). Previous studies have supported the significant relationship between emotional exhaustion and turnover intention, and therefore evidenced the construct validity of the emotional exhaustion scale (i.e., Maslach & Jackson, 1981).

Previous studies have evidenced the internal consistency of the emotional exhaustion scale (i.e., Abraham, 1998; Jackson, Schwab, & Schuler, 1986). Cronbach's alphas .87, .89, and .90 in successive studies (Wharton, 1993; Jackson, Schwab, & Schuler, 1986; Abraham, 1998) demonstrated the internal consistency reliability of the emotional exhaustion subscale.

Table 3.8 Emotional Exhaustion Scale

I feel emotionally drained from my work.

I feel used up at the end of the workday.

I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.

Working with people all day is really a strain for me.

I feel burned out from my work.

I feel frustrated by my job.

I feel I'm working too hard on my job

Working with people directly puts too much stress on me.

I feel like I'm at the end of my rope.

Source: Maslach and Jackson (1981).

Emotional exhaustion is measured on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from (1) = "strongly disagree" to (7) = "strongly agree," with no verbal labels for scale points 2 through 6.

3-3 SAMPLE

The boundary of this study is limited to the hospitality industry, and the target population was employees who work in the lodging area of the hospitality industry. Further, as this study focuses on emotional labor, the sampling frame was narrowed to focus on those guest-contact (face-to-face or voice-to-voice) employees who perform emotional labor on a daily basis. For example, the guest-contact employees included in this study were those work at front-desk, concierge, reservations, room service, food service, catering service, housekeeping, and other positions that require guest-contact in their work. Entry-level employees and middle managers were included in the sample.

In brief, to be selected in the final sample, the subjects needed to qualify according to the criteria below:

- (1) Subjects need to be guest-contact employees (face-to-face or voice-to-voice).
- (2) Subjects need to have worked in the same positions for at least six months.
- (3) Subjects can be either entry-level employees or middle-level managers.

3-4 DATA COLLECTION

Data was collected via a self-administered survey. The questionnaire was constructed based on an extensive literature review. Previously established scales on affectivity, emotional contagion, empathetic concern, job satisfaction, emotional exhaustion, job autonomy, and social support were utilized in the questionnaire to measure the study's constructs. The Hospitality Emotional Labor Scale was developed specifically for hospitality service employees, who are the research subjects of this study. Demographic information questions (i.e., gender, age, race, job title, and job tenure) were included.

The questionnaire was pretested on hotel employees in Blacksburg, Virginia. One purpose of conducting a pretest is to discover ambiguous questions. This procedure provides the researcher with the opportunity to minimize errors due to improper design or unclear wording (Zikmund, 1997). Another purpose of conducting a pretest is to confirm the uni-dimensionality of each construct

To conduct the survey, the researcher contacted hotels to solicit their participation in this research. Once hotel human resource directors agreed to participate in this survey,

the researcher sent them questionnaires. The human resource directors then handed the questionnaires out to their employees when they came to pick up their paychecks on the paycheck pick-up day. A cover letter accompanied the questionnaire to induce the respondents to complete the questionnaire.

There are some constraints in terms of this study's sample requirements and the results' generalizability. The minimum number of respondents required for this study was 250, in order to fulfill the statistical sample size requirement. In addition, since the researcher used a convenient employee sample approach to collect data, the generalizability of this study's findings are addressed in a later stage of this study.

3-5 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

This study used different statistical techniques to analyze the data. Exploratory factor analysis was used in the emotional labor scale development stage. It was used to reduce the number of items and to identify the underlying factor structure.

The proposed model (Figure 5) was statistically tested using different multivariate data analysis techniques. The data analysis of this study was divided into two phases. The first phase focuses (part A in Figure 5) on testing the hypotheses among proposed antecedents and consequences of emotional labor using structural equation modeling (SEM). The second phase (part B in Figure 5) focuses on examining the proposed moderating effects of social support and job autonomy on emotional labor and its associated consequences. The detailed analysis procedures are discussed below.

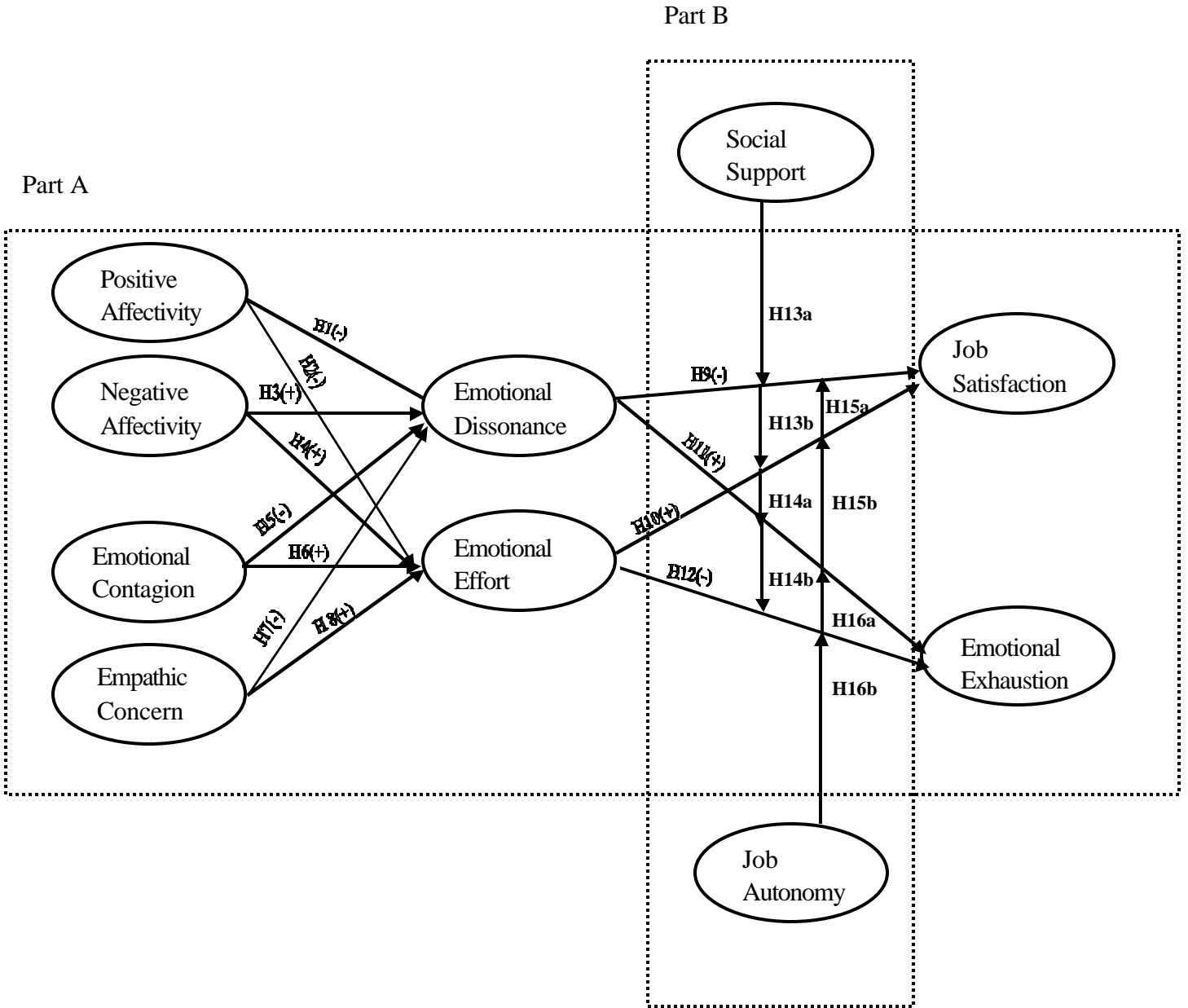


Figure 5. Statistical Testing Model

Phase I

The relationships between antecedents (positive affectivity, negative affectivity, emotional contagion, and empathic concern), emotional labor (emotive dissonance and emotive effort), and consequences (job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion) (part A in Figure 4) were tested using structural equation modeling (SEM). SEM is a multivariate technique that can be used to assess relationships among latent or observed variables (Hoyle, 1995; Pedhazur, 1997). Compared with other multivariate techniques, SEM is more flexible in terms of its relaxed statistical assumptions. First of all, the assumption of no measurement error is bypassed by explicitly accounting for measurement error in the model and by the use of multiple indicators. Secondly, errors can be correlated. Thirdly, paths may be nonrecursive. Nonrecursive paths allow researchers to hypothesize bidirectional relations among variables (Bollen, 1989; Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998).

As stated earlier, the major advantage of SEM is its ability to estimate a series of separate, but interdependent equations simultaneously. In this case, SEM allows a system of equations to be derived so that some constructs that are initially dependent can subsequently act as independent constructs to influence other constructs. That is, in the case of the present study, emotional labor can act as a dependent variable, which is influenced by an individual affectivity trait. It also can act as an independent variable to influence emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction.

Anderson and Gerbing (1988) suggested a two-stage process of SEM: a measurement model and a structural model. The measurement model specifies how the latent constructs are measured in terms of the indicators. The researcher needs to examine each latent construct (i.e., emotional contagion) in relation to its associated indicators (i.e., I become nervous if others around me seem to be nervous). Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to test the measurement model separately for each construct prior to simultaneous estimation of the structural model.

The structural model estimates the relationships among the latent variables (i.e., emotive dissonance, emotional exhaustion). The structural model specifies which latent variables (i.e., affectivity) directly or indirectly influence the other latent variables (i.e., emotive effort). In this study, the proposed model consists of four exogenous constructs

(positive affectivity, negative affectivity, emotional contagion, and empathic concern) and four endogenous constructs (emotive dissonance, emotive effort, emotional exhaustion, and job satisfaction). The relationships among these latent variables were specified in the structural model. The proposed conceptual model (part A in Figure 4) was tested by comparing the pattern of relationships stated in the structural model to the pattern of relationships expressed by the data (Hair, et al., 1998). If there is a high degree of correspondence between the specified relationships and those indicated by the data, the model exhibits a “good-fit” to the data. The proposed model will be confirmed and supported. The most common fit indices are chi-square, goodness-of-fit index (GFI), adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI), comparative fit index (CFI), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). After the proposed model achieved good fit, each hypothesis was examined. A summary of hypotheses testing in this phase is listed in Appendix I.

Phase II

The second phase focuses on examining the moderating effects of social support and job autonomy on the relationship between emotional labor and its consequences (part B in Figure 5). The basic premise of these moderating effects is that responses to variations in emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction resulting from emotional labor depend on the perceived level of social support and job autonomy.

Zedeck (1971) described the moderating effect by stating that Z is a moderator of the relationship between variables X and Y when the nature (i.e., magnitude) of this relationship varies across levels of Z. The most widely used statistical procedure to estimate moderating effects is moderated multiple regression (MMR). MMR can detect the moderating effects for moderator variables that are measured on both continuous and dichotomous scales (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). MMR is favored by researchers over other statistical techniques, such as the comparison of sub-group based correlation coefficients for two or more sub-groups, MMR analysis provides researchers with important information about slope differences for various sub-groups (Aguinis & Stone-Romero, 1997). Therefore, MMR was used to examine the presence of moderating effects in this study.

Following the procedure articulated by Cohen and Cohen (1983), the dependent variables (i.e., emotional exhaustion) were regressed on independent variables (i.e., emotive effort) and moderator (i.e., social support). Next, the cross-product vector of the independent variable and the moderator were computed and added to the equations. A significant beta weight for the interaction term indicates that the moderator moderates the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable. A negative regression coefficient for the interaction term signals that the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable is stronger at lower levels of the moderator than at higher levels of the moderator. A summary of moderating hypotheses testing is listed in Appendix I.

3-6 SCALE DEVELOPMENT

This section of the chapter presents the Hospitality Emotional Labor Scale development process. It begins with item generation, scale purification, and ends at reliability and validity analysis.

Item Generation

The first step in the scale development is to generate an item pool. According to DeVellis (1991), the ideal size of the item pool should be four times larger than the final scale, or as small as 50% larger than the final scale. For example, a 10-item scale should evolve from a 40-item pool or a 20-item scale. In this study, the ideal size of the final Hospitality Emotional Labor Scale was expected to have 20 items in order to secure good reliability. It was expected to generate at least 80 items for the initial item pool.

The items were generated via two sources: from existing literature, and from focus groups. To begin with, the researcher surveyed all scales in the literature that related to emotional labor in general, the three acting mechanisms in particular, and then formulated an item pool. Specifically, these items were drawn from the studies of Kruml and Geddes (2000a), Grandey (1999), and DeLay (1999) (Table 3.9). The items were reworded to fit the context of the hospitality industry. A total of 31 items were drawn from the literature, with seventeen deep acting items, ten surface acting items, two genuine acting items, and two emotive dissonance items. These items were used in the focus groups to facilitate the discussion.

Table 3.9 Scale Items Drawn from the Literature Review

Researcher(s)	Construct	Items
Kruml & Geddes (2000a)	Deep acting	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I try to talk myself out of feeling what I really feel when helping customers. 2. I work at conjuring up the feelings I need to show to customers. 3. I try to change my actual feelings to match those that I must express to customers. 4. When working with customers, I attempt to create certain emotions in myself that present the image my company desires.
	Emotive dissonance	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I show the same feelings to customers that I feel inside. 2. The emotions I show the customers match what I truly feel.
Grandey (1999)	Surface acting	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I fake a good mood when interacting with guests. 2. I put on a “show” or “performance.” 3. I just pretend to have the emotions I need to display for my job. 4. I put on an act in order to deal with customers in an appropriate way. 5. I put on a “mask” in order to express the right emotions for the job.
	Deep acting	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I make an effort to actually feel the emotions that I need to display toward others. 2. I work hard to feel the emotions that I need to show to others. 3. I try to actually experience the emotions that I must show. 4. I pump myself up so I feel the emotions expected of me. 5. I try to be a good actor by showing the right “face” at work. 6. I show an emotion that I don’t really feel. 7. I control my feelings to do my job well.

Researcher(s)	Construct	Items
	Genuine acting	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I easily express positive emotions to customers as expected for my job. 2. I react to customers' emotions naturally and easily.
DeLay (1999)	Surface acting	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Even when I am in a bad mood, I automatically smile when I see a patient. 2. Even if I am in a bad mood, I automatically smile at patients. 3. Even if I am in a bad mood, I automatically act friendly when I see a patient. 4. Even when I feel frustrated with patients, I try to act calm. 5. Even when I am in a bad mood, I automatically greet a patient cheerfully.
	Deep acting	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I need to make an effort to actually feel the emotions that I need to display toward others. 2. I need to concentrate more on how I am behaving if I feel one emotion but I have to display another emotion. 3. I have to focus more on my behavior when I display an emotion that I don't actually feel. 4. It takes practice to display one emotion when you really feel another emotion. 5. If I am frustrated with a customer and I am trying to act calm, I will think about something calm in my life. 6. In order to display empathy for a customer, I think about how I might feel in his or her situation.

To achieve the goal of an 80-item item pool, the researcher generated more items from focus group interviews with hospitality students and hotel employees. The participants in the two student focus groups were hospitality students who were enrolled in two senior level classes. Students with at least six months front-line experience in the lodging industry were selected. Seven students attended the first student focus group, and eight students attended the second student focus group. To ensure that the focus group participants would closely reflect the population of hotel employees, four service

employees were recruited to attend the employee focus group. These four attendees represented four different function areas in the lodging sector: front desk, food and beverage, sales, and conference service. For each focus group interview, the researcher recorded the discussions and transcribed them immediately following the interview.

The information collected from the focus groups was used to expand the initial item pool. Fifty-one items were generated in the focus groups. The items generated from three focus groups were somewhat redundant. However, DeVellis (1991) indicated that by using multiple and seemingly redundant items, the content that is common to the items will summate across items while “their irrelevant idiosyncracies will cancel out” (p.56). Therefore, considerable redundancy in the item pool is desired. Taken together, 82 items were generated from the literature review and from the focus groups. These 82 items tap the entire spectrum of surface acting, deep acting, genuine acting, and emotive dissonance.

Pilot Study of the Survey Instrument

The initial items were incorporated into a questionnaire for a pilot study. The purpose of this process was to “confirm expectations regarding the psychometric properties of the new measure” (Hinkin, et al., 1997, p. 105). A seven-point scale ranging from “Strongly Disagree” (1) to “Strongly Agree” (7), with no verbal labels for scale points 2 through 6, accompanied each item. This questionnaire was administered to hospitality students who were registered in senior level classes at two universities. A total of 122 students participated in this pilot study. The data was subjected to exploratory factor analysis (EFA) to reduce the number of items. The minimum sample size requirement for performing EFA is at least 100 (Hair, et al., 1998). After disregarded cases with missing values, a total of 117 responses were retained in the analysis. Table 3.10 presents the demographics of the students who participated in this pilot study.

Table 3.10 Demographic Profile of the Pilot Study Sample (N=117)

Category	%	N
Gender		
Male	48.7	57
Female	51.3	60
Industry experience		
Yes	91.5	107
No	8.5	10
If yes, length of industry experience (n=107)		
Less than one year	22.3	24
1-less than 2 years	32.8	35
2-less than 3 years	35.5	38
more than 3 years	9.3	10

The demographics of the pilot study sample indicated that about 51% of the respondents were female. Most of the respondents had industry experience (91.5%), and most of them had one to three years experience (68.3%). The average length of work experience was 2.3 years.

Scale Purification

According to Churchill (1979), purification of one measurement instrument begins with the computation of the coefficient alpha. As the items were generated based on three acting mechanisms, the coefficient alpha was computed separately for these three types of acting. The value of the coefficient alpha ranged from .62 to .77 for the three acting dimensions and suggested that it was necessary to remove some items from each dimension to improve the alpha value. The criterion used in deciding whether to delete an item was the item's corrected item-to-total correlation. Items with correlations lower than .30 were discarded (Churchill, 1979). As a result, 19 items were removed from the analysis. A total of 63 items were retained for further unidimensionality examination.

Exploratory Factor Analysis

As the primary purpose of exploratory factor analysis is summarization and data reduction, this study used it to identify and to confirm the underlying structure of the items and to reduce the item numbers. Principal components analysis with VARIMAX rotation was used to extract factors. Eigenvalue and scree plot were used to determine factor number(s). It was expected to identify two factors: emotive effort and emotive dissonance (Kruml & Geddes, 2000a). While all the items related to deep acting were expected to load on emotive effort, items regarding surface acting and genuine acting were expected to load on emotive dissonance, with surface acting representing the upper end of emotive dissonance and genuine acting representing the lower end of emotive dissonance. Items loading simultaneously on more than one factor and/or items with factor loadings less than 0.5 were deleted (Hair, et al., 1998). The remaining items were used to construct a refined hospitality emotional labor scale. The section below describes the process of exploratory factor analysis and how items were chosen and how they were determined to be valid.

The first step prior to performing exploratory factor analysis was to examine the data matrix. In general, the statistical assumptions in factor analysis are that the data need to satisfy the following three criteria: normality, homosecedasticity, and linearity (Hair, et al., 1998). However, the critical assumptions underlying factor analysis are more conceptual than statistical (Hair, et al., 1998). Unlike other statistical techniques in which multicollinearity among the data matrix is a violation of the assumptions, some degree of multicollinearity is desirable in the case of factor analysis, because the objective is to identify interrelated sets of variables. Therefore, it is important to examine the data matrix for sufficient correlations to justify the application of factor analysis.

There are basic guidelines to help to check the correlations. First, a substantial number of correlations need to be greater than .30. Second, the partial correlation should be small to evidence that “true” factors exist in the data. Third, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy needs to be as large as possible. The KMO index ranges from 0 to 1, where 1 indicates that each variable is perfectly predicted without error by the other variables. If the index is lower than .50, it is inappropriate to perform factor analysis. Lastly, another measure to quantify the degree of intercorrelations among

the variables is the Bartlett test of sphericity. The Bartlett test of sphericity is a statistical test for the presence of correlations among the variables. A significant Bartlett's test of sphericity is required to perform factor analysis.

Following the above guidelines, the data matrix was examined. Through a visual inspection, it appeared that a substantial number of correlations was greater than .30. However, seven items failed to correlate higher than .30 with at least one other item and therefore were removed. A total of 56 items were retained for further analysis.

The iterative sequence of the deletion of items resulted in a set of 56 items. Factor analysis was re-run on the remaining 56 items to examine their correlations. This time, the correlation coefficients were increased and partial correlation coefficients decreased. In addition, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin index increased to .80, which denotes "meritorious" for the appropriateness of performing factor analysis (Hair, et al., 1998). Lastly, the Bartlett's test of sphericity was also found to be significant at a level of .00.

The number of factors was determined by 1) eigenvalue, 2) scree plot, and 3) percentage of variance. The first factor analysis result showed a 13-factor solution, which explained 70% of variance. Most items were loaded on the first three factors, which make these three factors meaningful and interpretable. The rest of the factors contained less than two items. It was necessary to delete some items and to rerun the analysis. To achieve a more meaningful solution, items were deleted if: 1) they loaded equally heavily on more than one factor; and 2) their loadings were smaller than .55. In general, to be considered meaningful, factor loading needs to be greater than .40, which is the most frequently used criterion (Ford, MacCallum & Tait, 1986). However, considering the sample size of 116, factor loadings needed to exceed .55 in order to establish significance at the .05 level (Hair, et al., 1998). Thus, items with loadings smaller than .55 were removed from the analysis. Every time item(s) were removed from the analysis, the factor analysis was re-run until a satisfactory result was achieved.

After a series of deletions of items with loadings of less than .55 and items loaded on more than one factor, a more satisfactory result was achieved. Table 3.11 presents the result of the factor analysis.

Table 3.11 Factor Analysis Results of the Hospitality Emotional Labor Scale

Attribute	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
My smile is often not sincere (S).	.775		
I fake the emotions I show when dealing with customers (S).	.765		
I feel as if I have a split personality when interacting with guests because I act not like myself at all (S).	.750		
I put on an act in order to deal with guests in an appropriate way (S).	.739		
I put on a mask in order to express the right emotions for the job (S).	.690		
I display emotions that I am not actually feeling (S).	.686		
I behave in a manner that differs from how I really feel (Di).	-.682		
I fake a good mood when interacting with guests (S).	.674		
I believe that I display very genuine hospitality when dealing with guests (G).	.669		
I look forward to chance interactions with guests at work (G).	.634		
I actually feel the emotions that I need to show to do my job well (G).	.625		
I display sincere hospitality when interacting with guests (G).	.623		
I think my interactions with guests are very robotic (S).	.611		
I am usually a happy worker (G).	.596		
I have to cover up my true feelings when dealing with guests (Di).	-.574		
When helping guests, if I pretend I am happy, I can actually start to feel it (D).		.721	
When getting ready for work I tell myself that I am going to have a good day (D).		.692	
I try to actually experience the emotions that I must show when interacting with guests (D).		.614	
I have to focus more on my behavior when I display an emotion that I don't actually feel (D).		.561	
I usually think of pleasant images when I am getting ready for work (D).			.653
Variance explained	56.79%		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy	.89		
The Bartlett's test of sphericity (significant level)	.000		

Note. S=surface acting; G=genuine acting, D=deep acting, Di=Emotive dissonance.

The final factor analysis extracted three factors among 20 items. These three factors explained 56.79% of the variance. All items had loadings that exceeded .55. Fifteen items loaded on the first factor, which explained 38.86% of the variance. Four items loaded on the second factor which, additionally, explained 14.65% of the variance. The last factor had only one item. This item explained 5.27% of the variance.

As stated earlier, the development of the Hospitality Emotional Labor Scale was based on Kruml and Geddes' emotional labor scale (2000a). This study included Kruml and Geddes' six emotional labor items in the item pool. However, these six items were dropped on the early stage of the analysis due to small factor loadings. The possible reason for the low loadings for these items was the sample bias. Similar to much scale development research, this study used a student sample. Students' responses to emotional labor questions may be varied or biased due to lack of emotional labor experience. Although Kruml and Geddes' (2000a) emotional labor items were removed from the analysis, it was advised by experienced researchers to retain these items in the final questionnaire for the purpose of the theoretical validity.

As can be seen in Table 3.11, factor one was comprised of fifteen items with factor loadings greater than .55. Among these 15 items, eight items measured surface acting; five items measured genuine acting, and two items measured emotive dissonance. Kruml and Geddes (2000a) claimed that surface acting and genuine acting are the two opposite ends of one continuum which denotes the concept of emotive dissonance. As a result, this factor was labeled "emotive dissonance."

Four deep acting items were loaded on the second factor, and one deep acting item was loaded on the third factor. The second factor explained 14.65% of the variance, and the third factor explained 5.27% of the variance. The researcher had tried to remove the item loaded on the third factor ("I usually think of pleasant images when I am getting ready for work.") from the analysis, but the total variance explained by the factors slipped to 52.63%. As emotional labor is a very abstract concept and the nature of using a student sample may bias the results of factor analysis to some degree, it was advised by experienced researchers that this item should be retained in the questionnaire. The second and third factors were conceptually merged. As items on these two factors were

measuring the concept of deep acting, which is a type of emotional labor that requires more effort to achieve, these two factors were together termed as “emotive effort.”

In sum, the process of scale purification reduced the number of items from 82 to 20. Among these 20 items, the factor analysis extracted three factors, with the first factor capturing the concept of emotive dissonance and the second and the third factors capturing the concept of emotive effort. This result corresponded to previous studies conducted by Kruml and Geddes (2000a, b). Based on the results of factor analysis, the Hospitality Emotional Labor Scale was comprised of 20 items. The adequacy of this scale is assessed by measures of reliability and validity.

Reliability: Internal Consistency Assessment

Reliability is one of the major criteria for evaluating research instruments. One of the most commonly used types of reliability analysis in scale development is internal consistency (Zikmund, 1997). Internal consistency concerns the homogeneity of the measure. The most popular test to examine a scale’s internal consistency is Cronbach’s Alpha. Cronbach’s alpha value ranges from 0 to 1.0, with the higher value indicating better reliability. A Cronbach’s Alpha value of .70 or higher indicates an acceptable reliability and thus, the scale is reliable. Reliability coefficients of the Hospitality Emotional Labor Scale were calculated to examine the internal consistency of the factors (Table 3.12). The results of the reliability analysis revealed a Cronbach’s Alpha of .80 for the first factor (emotive dissonance), and .69 for another factor (emotive effort). The alpha value of .80 for the first factor suggested that the emotive dissonance factor had a very good internal consistency. The reliability coefficient for the emotive effort factor was very close to .70, which indicated an acceptable internal consistency. The results of the reliability analysis showed that the Hospitality Emotional Labor Scale exhibits good internal consistency and therefore it is reliable.

Table 3.12 Cronbach's Alpha Scores for the Hospitality Emotional Labor Scale

Factor	Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Emotive Dissonance	My smile is often not sincere (S). I fake the emotions I show when dealing with customers (S). I feel as if I have a split personality when interacting with guests because I act not like myself at all (S). I put on an act in order to deal with guests in an appropriate way (S). I put on a mask in order to express the right emotions for the job (S). I display emotions that I am not actually feeling (S). I behave in a manner that differs from how I really feel (Di). I fake a good mood when interacting with guests (S). I believe that I display very genuine hospitality when dealing with guests (G). I look forward to chance interactions with guests at work (G). I actually feel the emotions that I need to show to do my job well (G). I display sincere hospitality when interacting with guests (G). I think my interactions with guests are very robotic (S). I am usually a happy worker (G). I have to cover up my true feelings when dealing with guests (Di).	.80
Emotive Effort	When helping guests, if I pretend I am happy, I can actually start to feel it (D). When getting ready for work I tell myself that I am going to have a good day (D). I try to actually experience the emotions that I must show when interacting with guests (D). I have to focus more on my behavior when I display an emotion that I don't actually feel (D). I usually think of pleasant images when I am getting ready for work (D).	.69

Note. S=surface acting; G=genuine acting, D=deep acting, Di=Emotive dissonance.

Construct Validity

Validity is the extent to which the items accurately measure what they are supposed to measure (Hair, et al., 1998). Having high reliability is a necessary but not sufficient condition for a valid scale. The scale also needs to satisfy other conceptual and empirical criteria to be considered as a valid scale. The most basic type of validity is face or content validity (Zikmund, 1997). Face validity refers to the agreement among professionals that the scale is measuring what it is supposed to measure.

This study used a two-step approach to secure the face validity of the Hospitality Emotional Labor Scale. The first step was to allow experts to examine items and provide feedback for greater clarity and alignment with construct dimensions. Afterward, the second step was to conduct a content adequacy assessment on the items to further verify that the items represent a reasonable measure of the construct (Hinkin, et al., 1997).

Faculty in the Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management at Virginia Polytechnic and State University were asked to review all the items and their matched dimensions. It was suggested that two items did not strongly exhibit the face validity of the emotive dissonance construct. One item was, “I feel as if I have a split personality when interacting with guests because I act not like myself at all.” This item’s wording was too lengthy and may be exceedingly difficult for the respondents to interpret. Another item was, “I am usually a happy worker.” It was thought that this item did not closely tap the concept of “genuine acting,” and therefore, did not have strong face validity for the emotive dissonance dimension. One genuine acting item “I believe I display genuine hospitality when dealing with guest” was removed because its wording was very similar to another genuine acting item (I display sincere hospitality). A total of three items were removed from the questionnaire. In addition, some items were reworded based on faculty’ feedback. Some negative items were reworded to positive items. For example, “My smile is often not sincere” was reworded to “My smile is sincere.” These changes gave the Hospitality Emotional Labor Scale a more positive tone. Some perception oriented items were reworded to behavior oriented items. For example, the item “I think my interactions with guests are very robotic” was reworded to “My interactions with guests are very robotic.” Behavior items made it easier for hotel employees to respond by indicating how often they behave as the items describe.

The second step of face validity examination was a content adequacy assessment. The purpose of assessing content adequacy was to determine the conceptual consistency of the items and the pre-determined dimensions. This assessment process requires respondents to match items with construct definitions (Hinkin, et al., 1997; Clemenz, 2000). To begin with, a group of 25 graduate students who major in different areas (i.e., Hospitality Management, Education, and Psychology) were invited to evaluate item relevance by matching scale items with emotional labor dimensions (emotive dissonance and emotive effort). Scale items and the definitions of factors were incorporated into a survey format. If more than 60% of respondents agree on the item's relevance, it is determined that this item exhibits face validity. Reviewers were also asked to evaluate the item's clarity and conciseness and to provide feedback for revision.

The results of the content adequacy assessment are presented in Table 3.13. Using the criteria of at least 60% of respondents having matched an item to the same dimension, 16 out of 17 items were found to meet this criterion. The item that received the highest agreement (96%) was, "I display sincere hospitality." This item represents the concept of genuine acting and therefore, adequately represents the lower end of emotive dissonance. One item (When helping guests, if I pretend I am happy, I can actually start to feel it) failed to have 60% of agreement among all respondents. Some respondents reported to the researcher that they had difficulty matching this item with either the emotive dissonance factor or the emotive effort factor. Due to this ambiguity, this item was removed from the questionnaire.

After the two-step face validity examination, the number of items dropped from 20 to 16. Some items were reworded to achieve greater clarity. The retaining 16 items all exhibit satisfactory face/content validity for the Hospitality Emotional Labor Scale.

Table 3.13 Results of the Content Adequacy Assessment (N=24)

Items	Frequency	%	Matched Dimension ^a	Assigned Dimension ^b
My smile is sincere.	21	88	Dissonance	Dissonance
I fake the emotions I show when dealing with customers.	18	75	Dissonance	Dissonance
I put on an act in order to deal with guests in an appropriate way.	22	92	Dissonance	Dissonance
I put on a mask in order to express the right emotions for the job.	20	83	Dissonance	Dissonance
I display emotions that I am not actually feeling.	19	79	Dissonance	Dissonance
I behave in a manner that differs from how I really feel.	20	83	Dissonance	Dissonance
I fake a good mood when interacting with guests.	17	71	Dissonance	Dissonance
I look forward to chance interactions with guests at work.	18	75	Dissonance	Dissonance
My interactions with guests are very robotic.	22	92	Dissonance	Dissonance
I display sincere hospitality when interacting with guests.	23	96	Dissonance	Dissonance
I actually feel the emotions that I need to show to do my job well.	19	79	Dissonance	Dissonance
I have to cover up my true feelings when dealing with guests.	17	71	Dissonance	Dissonance
When helping guests, if I pretend I am happy, I can actually start to feel it.	9	38	Dissonance	Effort
When getting ready for work I tell myself that I am going to have a good day.	22	92	Effort	Effort
I try to actually experience the emotions that I must show when interacting with guests.	19	79	Effort	Effort
I have to concentrate more on my behavior when I display an emotion that I don't actually feel.	19	79	Effort	Effort
I usually think of pleasant images when I am getting ready for work.	21	88	Effort	Effort

Note. ^a dimension matched by the respondents

^b dimension predetermined in previous scale development stage.

3-7 QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGN

The scales measuring different constructs in the testing model (Figure 5) were put together in a survey format (Appendix II), with items on the left-hand side and a seven-point Likert-type scale on the right-hand side. There were six sections. The first section was the Hospitality Emotional Labor Scale, with anchors of “rarely” to “always” in response to each statement. Based on the results of exploratory factor analysis and the reliability and face/content validity examination, a total of 16 items were retained from the previous step. However, as discussed earlier, it was advised by experienced researchers to retain Kruml and Geddes’ (2000a) six emotional labor items in the final questionnaire because this study was based upon their theoretical framework. Even though these six items demonstrated low factor loadings and were dropped from the exploratory factor analysis, the researcher still included these six items in the survey because of the theoretical validity concern. Therefore, the total number of emotional labor items was 22, with 14 questions measuring emotive dissonance and 8 questions measuring emotive effort.

The second section included questions regarding the concept of emotional contagion (7 items) (Mehrabian & Epstein, 1972) and empathic concern (7 items) (Davis, 1983). These empathy questions were accompanied by anchors of “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree.” The third section was comprised of questions regarding social support (8 items) (Caplan, et al., 1980) and job autonomy (3 items) (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). These questions were accompanied by anchors of “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree.” The fourth section was an affect scale (20 items) (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988), with anchors of “rarely” to “always.” Questions measuring respondents’ emotional exhaustion level (9 items) (Maslach & Jackson, 1981) and job satisfaction level (5 items) (Hackman & Oldham, 1975) were listed in section five. Finally, the last section contains demographic questions such as gender, race, and job titles.

3-8 SUMMARY

The chapter outlined the research design for this study. It included the descriptions of the survey population, the method of data collection, and the statistical methods that were employed to analyze the data. Special attention was given to the

development of the Hospitality Emotional Labor Scale. The results of the scale purification derived a 22-item scale, with fourteen items measuring emotive dissonance, and eight items measuring emotive effort.

CHAPTER FOUR

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

4-1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the results of data analysis and hypothesis testing. In the first section of this chapter, the pretest of the scale items is presented, including a description of the pretest sample. The second section of this chapter provides a description of the survey method employed in this study. A profile of the respondents is given. The third section of the chapter presents the results of the confirmatory factor analysis for each construct. The fourth section of the chapter presents the results of the structural model in relation to the hypothesis testing. Finally, the last section presents the analysis of moderating effects. A detailed discussion was provided for each hypothesis testing.

4-2 PRETEST

A pretest serves two purposes in this study. One purpose is to discover ambiguous questions. This procedure provides the researcher the opportunity to minimize errors due to improper design or unclear wording (Zikmund, 1997). Another purpose is to confirm the dimensionality of each construct. The section below describes the pretest sample and the results of the uni-dimensionality test.

Pretest sample

The questionnaire was pretested on hotel employees in Blacksburg, Virginia. A total of 100 questionnaires were collected. The recommended minimum sample size for exploratory factor analysis is at least 50 responses. The preferred sample size is a ratio of 5 responses for every 1 variable in each scale being measured (Hair, et al., 1998). The pretest sample size exceeded the minimum requirement of 50 respondents. Table 4.1 presents the demographics of the pretest sample.

As can be seen in Table 4.1, the majority of the respondents were females (57.4%), white (56.0%), and between 21 to 29 years old (48.2%). Most of the sample

employees worked in the food service area (24.7%) or the front desk (16.9%). The average tenure at all customer-contact positions was almost 10 years ($\mu = 9.7$). The longest tenure was 37 years, and the shortest tenure was six months. A majority of the employees had tenure between one to less than four years (26.4%) or four to less than eight years (21.8%).

Table 4.1 Demographic Profile of the Pretest Sample (N=100)

Category	%	N*
Gender		
Male	42.6	40
Female	57.4	54
<i>Total</i>	<i>100</i>	<i>94</i>
Age		
Under 20	0	0
21-29	47.1	40
30-39	23.5	20
40-49	18.8	16
50-59	8.2	7
Above 59	2.4	2
<i>Total</i>	<i>100</i>	<i>85</i>
Race		
White	56.0	51
Black	17.6	16
Hispanic/Latino	11.0	10
Asian	9.9	9
Native American	0	0
Other	5.5	5
<i>Total</i>	<i>100</i>	<i>91</i>
Job title		
Food service	24.7	22
Front desk	16.9	15
Room service	4.5	4
Manager	16.9	15
Office	9.0	8
Banquet/conference	4.5	4
Security/maintenance	4.5	4
Housekeeping	2.2	2
Sales	5.6	5
Other	11.2	10
<i>Total</i>	<i>100</i>	<i>89</i>
Tenure at all customer contact positions		
Less than 1 year	8.0	7
1- less than 4 years	26.4	23
4- less than 8 years	21.8	19
8- less than 12 years	18.4	16
12- less than 16 years	6.9	6
16- less than 20 years	4.6	4
More than 20 years	13.8	12
<i>Total</i>	<i>100</i>	<i>87</i>

* Missing data accounts for the discrepancies among the total Ns.

Respondents were invited to provide feedback on this survey. Some respondents mentioned the length of the survey. In response to this feedback, two questions regarding emotional exhaustion were dropped from the survey. As the emotional exhaustion scale is a well-established scale and has demonstrated its reliability and validity in previous studies, dropping two items from this scale would not affect the results dramatically. The dropped items were: “I feel like I’m at the end of my rope,” and “I feel used up at the end of the workday.”

Uni-dimensionality Test

Another purpose of conducting a pretest is to examine the uni-dimensionality of each construct in the testing model (Figure 5). Since the factor structure for each variable was pre-determined, a separate factor analysis was conducted for each construct. The section below presents and discusses the results of each analysis.

Emotive Dissonance

The construct of emotive dissonance consists of 14 items which were developed in the early scale development stage. In order to determine the scale items, a principal component factor analysis was performed. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and the Bartlett’s test of sphericity were examined to decide the appropriateness of factor analysis. The KMO score was .84, which indicated that a factor analysis was appropriate. The Bartlett’s test of sphericity was significant at a level of .000 (Table 4.2), which suggested that the data matrix was not an identity matrix.

The principal component factor analysis extracted two factors, with the first factor explaining 43.8% of the variance, and the second factor explaining 17.8% of the variance. Together, these two factors explained 61.6 % of the variance. The first factor comprised 12 items, and the second factor comprised three items (Table 4.2). As the purpose of the pretest was to establish a uni-dimensional scale for the measurement of the construct, only the items that loaded on the first factor were selected in the final scale. The Cronbach’s reliability score was .89, which indicated that the emotive dissonance scale has good internal consistency.

Table 4.2 Factor Analysis Results of Emotive Dissonance (N=97)

Items	Factor 1	Factor 2
I fake a good mood when interacting with guests.*	.775	
I fake the emotions I show when dealing with customers.*	.744	
I put on a mask in order to express the right emotions for the job.*	.731	
The emotions I show to customers match what I truly feel.	.725	
I behave in a way that differs from how I really feel.*	.716	
I put on an act in order to deal with guests in an appropriate way.*	.686	
My interactions with customers are very robotic.*	.638	
I display emotions that I am not actually feeling.*	.616	
I have to cover up my true feelings when dealing with guests.*	.567	
I actually feel the emotions that I need to show to do my job well.	.563	
I show the same feelings to customers that I feel inside.	.531	
My smile is sincere.		.635
I look forward to chance interactions with guests at work.		.583
I display sincere hospitality when interacting with guests.		.527
Variance Explained	43.75	17.77
Eigenvalue	4.08	2.31
Reliability coefficient (Cronbach's Alpha)	.89	
The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy	.839	
The Bartlett's test of sphericity (significance level)	.000	

Note.

* Reverse coded

Only factor loadings > .50 are shown.

Only those items that loaded on the factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 are shown.

Emotive Effort

The construct of emotive effort consists of eight items. To determine the unidimensionality of the scale, a principal component factor analysis was performed. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and the Bartlett's test of sphericity were examined to decide if the data were performing the factor analysis appropriately. The KMO score was .76, and the Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant at a level of .000 (Table 4.3). Both tests indicated that the data was appropriate for factor analysis.

The principal component factor analysis extracted one factor, with all items loaded on this factor. This factor explained 54.96 % of the variance (Table 4.3). The

Cronbach's reliability test score was .77, which indicated that the emotive effort scale has an acceptable internal consistency.

Table 4.3 Factor Analysis Results of Emotive Effort (N=97)

Items	Factor 1
I try to change my actual feelings to match those that I must express to customers.	.746
When working with customers, I attempt to create certain emotions in myself that present the image my company desires.	.729
I think of pleasant things when I am getting ready for work.	.707
I try to talk myself out of feeling what I really feel when helping customers.	.698
When getting ready for work, I tell myself that I am going to have a good day.	.592
I try to actually experience the emotions that I must show when interacting with guests.	.587
I work at calling up the feelings I need to show to customers.	.573
I have to concentrate more on my behavior when I display an emotion that I don't actually feel.	.563
Variance Explained	54.96
Eigenvalue	3.84
Reliability coefficient (Cronbach's Alpha)	.77
The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy	.76
The Bartlett's test of sphericity (significance level)	.00

Note.

Only factor loadings > .50 are shown.

Only those items that loaded on the factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 are shown.

Positive Affectivity

Hotel employees' positive affect was measured using the positive affect items in the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) developed by Watson, Clark, and Tellegen (1988). Principal component factor analysis was used to examine the unidimensionality of the positive affect scale. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .83, which indicated that factor analysis was appropriate. The Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant at a level of .000 (Table 4.4).

The principal component factor analysis extracted one factor with ten items. Each item with a factor loading exceeded .50 (Table 4.4). This single factor explained 51.8%

of the variance. The Cronbach's reliability test indicated that the reliability score was .89. Therefore, the uni-dimensionality of positive affectivity was confirmed and its internal consistency was supported.

Table 4.4 Factor Analysis Results of Positive Affectivity (N=97)

Items	Factor 1
Alert	.818
Strong	.810
Inspired	.810
Proud	.777
Excited	.728
Enthusiastic	.707
Active	.688
Interested	.637
Attentive	.598
Determined	.574
Variance Explained	51.8%
Eigenvalue	4.681
Reliability coefficient (Cronbach's Alpha)	.89
The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy	.83
The Bartlett's test of sphericity (significance level)	.00

Note.

Only factor loadings > .50 are shown.

Only those items that loaded on the only factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 are shown.

Negative Affectivity

Hotel employees' negative affect was measured using the negative affect items in the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) developed by Watson, Clark, and Tellegen (1988). Principal component factor analysis was used to examine the uni-dimensionality of the negative affect scale. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .87, which indicated that factor analysis was appropriate for factor analysis. The Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant at a level of .000 (Table 4.5).

Principal component factor analysis extracted one factor with ten items. Each item with a factor loading exceeded .50 (Table 4.5). This single factor explained 51.4%

of the total variance. Therefore, the uni-dimensionality of negative affectivity was confirmed. The Cronbach's reliability test indicated that the reliability score was .89, which indicated a good internal consistency of the negative affect scale.

Table 4.5 Factor Analysis Results of Negative Affectivity (N=97)

Items	Factor 1
Jittery	.818
Guilty	.814
Nervous	.741
Irritable	.727
Upset	.720
Hostile	.714
Scared	.709
Afraid	.687
Ashamed	.635
Distressed	.569
Variance Explained	51.4%
Eigenvalue	4.740
Reliability coefficient (Cronbach's Alpha)	.89
The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy	.87
The Bartlett's test of sphericity (significance level)	.00

Note.

Only factor loadings > .50 are shown.

Only those items that loaded on the factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 are shown.

Emotional Contagion

Emotional contagion was measured using seven emotional contagion items derived from the emotional empathy scale (EES; Mehrabian and Epstein, 1972). Principal component analysis was used to examine the uni-dimensionality of the emotional contagion scale. The KMO score was .74, which indicated that factor analysis was acceptable. The Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant at a level of .000 (Table 4.6).

Principal component factor analysis extracted two factors, with the first factor explaining 48.25% of the variance, and the second factor explaining 5.83% of the variance. Together, these two factors explained 54.1 % of the variance (Table 4.6). The first factor was comprised of five items. They were: (1) I become nervous if others around me seem to be nervous; (2) I am able to remain calm even though those around me worry; (3) I tend to lose control when I am bringing bad news to people; (4) I cannot continue to feel OK if people around me are depressed; and (5) The people around me have a great influence on my moods. The second factor had two items. They were: (1) I often find that I can remain cool in spite of the excitement around me; and (2) I don't get upset just because a friend is acting upset. As the purpose of the pretest was to establish a uni-dimensional scale for the measurement of the construct, only the items that loaded on the first factor were selected in the final scale.

The Cronbach's reliability test indicated that the reliability score was .75, which exceeded the recommended guideline of .70 (Hair, et al., 1998). This indicated that the selected items of the emotional contagion scale have an acceptable internal consistency.

Table 4.6 Factor Analysis Results of Emotional Contagion (N=97)

Items	Factor 1	Factor 2
I become nervous if others around me seem to be nervous.	.792	
I am able to remain calm even though those around me worry.*	.778	
I tend to lose control when I am bringing bad news to people.	.749	
I cannot continue to feel OK if people around me are depressed.	.629	
The people around me have a great influence on my moods.	.554	
I don't get upset just because a friend is acting upset.*		.624
I often find that I can remain cool in spite of the excitement around me.*		.602
Variance Explained	48.25	5.83
Eigenvalue	2.68	1.11
Reliability coefficient (Cronbach's Alpha)	.75	
The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy	.74	
The Bartlett's test of sphericity (significance level)	.00	

Note.

* Reverse coded

Only factor loadings > .50 are shown.

Only those items that loaded on the only factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 are shown.

Empathic Concern

Empathic concern was measured using seven empathic concern items derived from the Individual Reactivity Index (IRI; Davis, 1983). The empathic concern subscale measures the tendency to experience feelings of warmth, compassion, and concern for other people. To check the uni-dimensionality of the empathic scale, a principal component analysis was utilized. Results of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .61, and the Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p=.000$) indicated that data were acceptable for factor analysis (Table 4.7).

Principal component factor analysis extracted two factors, with the first factor explaining 38.97% of the variance, and the second factor explaining 15.14% of the variance. Together, these two factors explained 54.1 % of the total variance. The first factor was comprised of five items. They were: (1) I would describe myself as a pretty soft-hearted person; (2) When I see someone being taken advantage of, I feel kind of protective toward them; (3) When I see someone being treated unfairly, I sometimes

don't feel very much pity for them; (4) I am often quite touched by things that I see happen; and (5) I often have tender, concerned feelings for people less fortunate than myself.

The second factor was comprised of two items. These were: (1) Other people's misfortunes do not usually disturb me a great deal; and (2) Sometimes I don't feel very sorry for other people when they are having problems. As the purpose of the pretest was to establish a uni-dimensional scale for the measurement of the construct, only the items that loaded on the first factor were selected in the scale.

The Cronbach's reliability test indicated that the reliability score was .71, which exceeded the recommended guideline of .70 (Hair, et al., 1998). This indicated that the selected items of the empathic concern scale have an acceptable internal consistency.

Table 4.7 Factor Analysis Results of Empathy Concern (N=97)

Items	Factor 1	Factor 2
I would describe myself as a pretty soft-hearted person.	.697	
When I see someone being taken advantage of, I feel kind of protective toward them.	.686	
When I see someone being treated unfairly, I sometimes don't feel very much pity for them.*	.674	
I am often quite touched by things that I see happen.	.613	
I often have tender, concerned feelings for people less fortunate than myself.	.566	
Other people's misfortunes do not usually disturb me a great deal.*		.646
Sometimes I don't feel very sorry for other people when they are having problems.*		.614
Variance Explained	38.97	15.14
Eigenvalue	2.57	1.12
Reliability coefficient (Cronbach's Alpha)	.71	
The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy	.61	
The Bartlett's test of sphericity (significance level)	.00	

Note.

* Reserve coded

Only factor loadings > .50 are shown.

Only those items that loaded on the factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 are shown.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is generally viewed as an emotional response, and represents the degree to which a person likes his or her job. In this study, service employee job satisfaction was measured using five items derived from the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS; Hackman & Oldham, 1975). Five items employed from the JDS (Hackman & Oldham, 1975) ask respondents' attitudes about their jobs, specifically, how satisfied are they with their jobs and how often do they think about quitting. These five items were: (1) People on this job often think of quitting; (2) I am satisfied with the kind of work I do in this job; (3) I frequently think of quitting this job; (4) Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with this job; and (5) Most people on this job are very satisfied with their jobs.

Using component factor analysis to examine the uni-dimensionality of this scale, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .64, and the Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($p=.000$) (Table 4.8). These two tests indicated that the data were acceptable for performing factor analysis. One factor was extracted, with 55.5% of the total variance explained. This result supported the uni-dimensionality of the job satisfaction scale. The internal consistency test with a Cronbach's alpha value of .80 suggested that the job satisfaction scale was reliable.

Table 4.8 Factor Analysis Results of Job Satisfaction (N=97)

Items	Factor 1
Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with this job.	.790
Most people on this job are very satisfied with their jobs.	.778
People on this job often think of quitting.*	.768
I frequently think of quitting this job.*	.720
I am satisfied with the kind of work I do in this job.	.661
Variance Explained	55.5%
Eigenvalue	2.775
Reliability coefficient (Cronbach's Alpha)	.80
The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy	.64
The Bartlett's test of sphericity (significance level)	.00

Note.

* Reverse coded

Only factor loadings > .50 are shown.

Only those items that loaded on the factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 are shown.

Emotional Exhaustion

Emotional exhaustion was measured using Maslach and Jackson's (1981) emotional exhaustion subscale of the 22-item Maslach Burnout Inventory. The original scale has nine items. The emotional exhaustion subscale assesses feelings of being emotionally overextended and exhausted by one's work. As this scale has been widely used in different areas and has been reported to have very good internal consistency, this study decided to use seven of the nine items on the emotional exhaustion subscale. These items were: (1) I feel emotionally drained from my work; (2) I feel frustrated by my job; (3) Working with people all day is really a strain for me; (4) I feel burned out from my work; (5) I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job; (6) I feel I'm working too hard on my job; and (7) Working with people directly puts too much stress on me.

To check the uni-dimensionality of the emotional exhaustion scale, a principal component analysis was utilized. Results of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .83, and the Barlett's test of sphericity ($p=.000$) was significant. These two tests indicated that data were appropriate for factor analysis (Table 4.9).

The principal component factor analysis extracted one factor, which explained 59.4% of the total variance. All items have factor loadings exceeding .50. The Cronbach's reliability test indicated that the reliability score was .87, which exceeded the recommended guideline of .70 (Hair, et al., 1998). This suggested that, similarly to the original nine-item scale, the seven-item emotional exhaustion scale demonstrated a very good internal consistency.

Table 4.9 Factor Analysis Results of Emotional Exhaustion (N=97)

Items	Factor 1
I feel burned out from my work.	.877
Working with people all day is really a strain for me.	.833
I feel frustrated by my job.	.812
I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.	.804
Working with people directly puts too much stress on me.	.787
I feel emotionally drained from my work.	.658
I feel I am working too hard on my job.	.578
Variance Explained	59.4%
Eigenvalue	4.155
Reliability coefficient (Cronbach's Alpha)	.87
The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy	.83
The Bartlett's test of sphericity (significance level)	.00

Note.

Only factor loadings > .50 are shown.

Only those items that loaded on the factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 are shown.

Social Support

Social support was measured by eight items pertaining to support and understanding from supervisors and coworkers from the Social Support Scale developed by Caplan, Cobb, French, Harrison, and Pinneau (1980). Four supervisor support statements and four coworker support statements form the indicators of social support at work. Each item asks for the degree of support the respondent receives from their supervisor or coworkers.

Principal component analysis was used to check the uni-dimensionality of the social support scale. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .78, and the Bartlett's test of sphericity had a significant result. These two tests indicated that factor analysis was suitable for the data (Table 4.10).

Instead of one factor, the principal component factor analysis extracted two factors, with the first factor explaining 48.8% of variance and the second factor explaining 20.8 % of variance. These two factors explained 69.6% of the total variance. The first factor was comprised of four items which relate to social support from the supervisor. They were: (1) My supervisor goes out of his or her way to make my life

easier for me; (2) It is easy to talk with my supervisor; (3) My supervisor can be relied on when things get tough at work; and (4) My supervisor is willing to listen to my personal problems.

The second factor was comprised items relating to social support from coworkers. These items were: (1) My coworkers go out of their way to make life easier for me; (2) It is easy to talk with my coworkers; (3) My coworkers can be relied on when things get tough at work; and (4) My coworkers are willing to listen to my personal problems.

As the purpose of the pretest was to establish a uni-dimensional scale for the measurement of the construct, only the items that loaded on the first factor were selected in the scale. The Cronbach's alpha was .85, which demonstrates an internal consistency reliability for the social support scale.

Table 4.10 Factor Analysis Results of Social Support (N=97)

Items	Factor 1	Factor 2
It is easy to talk with my supervisor.	.868	
My supervisor can be relied on when things get tough at work.	.854	
My supervisor is willing to listen to my personal problems.	.854	
My supervisor goes out of his or her way to make my life easier for me.	.685	
My coworkers can be relied on when things get tough at work.		.876
It is easy to talk with my coworkers.		.860
My coworkers are willing to listen to my personal problems.		.745
My coworkers go out of their ways to make my life easier for me.		.744
Variance Explained	48.82	20.79
Eigenvalue	3.90	1.66
Reliability coefficient (Cronbach's Alpha)	.85	
The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy	.78	
The Bartlett's test of sphericity (significance level)	.00	

Note.

Only factor loadings > .50 are shown.

Only those items that loaded on the factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 are shown.

Job Autonomy

Job autonomy is employees' ability to control various aspects of their jobs. In this study, job autonomy was measured using Hackman and Oldham's (1975) three-item job autonomy subscale (Table 4.11) of the 21-item Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS). This job autonomy subscale measures the degree to which an employee has freedom, independence, and discretion in performing job tasks (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). The job autonomy scale was re-worded to emphasize employee-guest interactions. After re-wording, the three job autonomy items were: (1) When I interact with customers, I have the freedom and independence to speak and act in ways I think fit the situation; (2) I have a lot of freedom to decide how I should deal with customers; and (3) My job denies me much chance to use my personal initiative or judgement when interacting with customers.

Using component factor analysis to examine the uni-dimensionality of this scale, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .76, and the Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($p=.000$) (Table 4.11). These two tests indicated that the data were acceptable for performing factor analysis. One factor was extracted, with 62.9% of the total variance explained. This result supported the uni-dimensionality of the job autonomy scale. The internal consistency test with a Cronbach's alpha value of .69 did not exceed the recommended guideline of .70 (Hair, et al., 1998). However, it was determined to be close enough to consider, due to the fact that reliability scores that are between .60 and .70 represent the lower limit of acceptability (Hair, et al., 1998).

Table 4.11 Factor Analysis Results of Job Autonomy (N=97)

Items	Factor 1
I have a lot of freedom to decide how I should deal with guests.	.887
When I interact with guests, I have the freedom and independence to speak and act in ways I think fit the situation.	.860
My job denies me much chance to use my personal initiative or judgement when interacting with guests.	.599
Variance Explained	62.85%
Eigenvalue	1.88
Reliability coefficient (Cronbach's Alpha)	.69
The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy	.76
The Bartlett's test of sphericity (significance level)	.00

Note.

Only factor loadings > .50 are shown.

Only those items that loaded on the factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 are shown.

4-3 FINAL SURVEYSurvey Method

The final version of this study questionnaire is presented in Appendix III. Based on the results of the pretest, a total of 68 questions were included in the questionnaire, with eleven questions measuring emotive dissonance, eight questions measuring emotive effort, twenty questions measuring both positive and negative affect, ten questions measuring emotional contagion and empathic concern, seven questions measuring emotional exhaustion, five questions measuring job satisfaction, four questions measuring social support, and finally, three questions measuring job autonomy. A self-administered survey was used to collect data. To conduct the survey, the researcher contacted hotels located in major cities on the East Coast (i.e., Washington D.C., New York City, Atlanta). The researcher called hotel general managers or human resource directors to solicit their participation in this study. To give general managers or human resource directors a better understanding of this study, the researcher further sent a letter to them to explain the purposes of the study and how they could participate. The researcher contacted a total of 144 hotels. Twenty-four hotels agreed to participate. Seventeen hotels actually returned completed questionnaires to the researcher by the deadline. The returned response is 285. Based on the Mobil Travel Guide (2002), among

the seventeen participating hotels, four are rated as four-star hotels, five are three-star hotels, and eight are two-star hotels. As can be seen in Table 4.12, Fifty-one responses (18%) were from four-star hotels; 82 responses (29%) were from three-star hotels, and 152 were from two-star hotels (53%). Thirty-two responses were eliminated due to excessive missing data. Therefore, the sample size for testing the hypotheses was 253.

Table 4.12 Hotel Ratings of Participating Hotels

Hotel	Rating	Number of returned questionnaires	%
1.	4 star	10	3.5
2.	4 star	15	5.3
3.	4 star	22	7.8
4.	4 star	4	1.4
5.	3 star	15	5.3
6.	3 star	27	9.5
7.	3 star	20	7.0
8.	3 star	15	5.3
9.	3 star	5	1.8
10.	2 star	17	6.0
11.	2 star	69	24.2
12.	2 star	29	10.2
13.	2 star	11	3.9
14.	2 star	5	1.8
15.	2 star	7	2.5
16.	2 star	9	3.2
17.	2 star	5	1.8
Total		285	100

Profile of the Respondents

The demographic characteristics of the respondents (i.e., gender, age, race, job title, and tenure) are presented in Table 4.13 to provide a rich descriptive profile of the sample.

Gender. As can be seen in Table 4.13, the majority of the respondents were females (62.5%). This statistic corresponds to the hotel employee population where females are the majority workers.

Race. In terms of race, the majority of the sample (58%) identified themselves as white (those of primarily European descent). The second largest racial group was black (28.5%).

Age. Most of the respondents were under 40 years old (70%). Specifically, about 40% of the respondents were between 21 and 29 years old. About 30% of the respondents were between 30 and 39 years old.

Position. About 28% of the sample employees work at the front desk. This also includes entry-level positions in areas such as the front desk, concierge, and the customer service center. In addition to the front desk, 17.4% of the respondents work in entry-level positions in the food service area, and nearly 16% of the respondents work in entry-level positions in the banquet or convention service area. About 15% of the respondents work in management positions in various areas.

Work History. This study also obtained detailed information about employees' work history, such as tenure in their current position, tenure in their present hotel, how many positions they have held in the present hotel, and their total tenure in all customer-contact positions. When being asked about their tenure in their current position, the shortest tenure was one month, and the longest tenure was 28 years. The average tenure was 2.7 years. When being asked about their tenure in the present hotel, correspondent to the above information, the shortest tenure was one month, and the longest tenure was 28 years. Most employees have had just one position in the same hotel (mode=1). In terms of their total tenure in all customer-contact positions, the average response was almost ten years ($\mu=10$). The majority of employees have worked in direct contact with customers in various fields for either one to less than four years (26.4%), or four to less

than eight years (26.5%). About 16% of the respondents have worked in customer contact positions for more than 20 years. The longest one was 42 years.

Table 4.13 Demographic Profile of the Final Survey Sample (N=253)

Category	%	N*
Gender		
Male	37.5	95
Female	62.5	158
<i>Total</i>	<i>100</i>	<i>253</i>
Age		
Under 20	2.0	5
20-29	39.5	100
30-39	30.0	76
40-49	17.4	44
50-59	7.9	20
60 and above	3.2	8
<i>Total</i>	<i>100</i>	<i>253</i>
Race		
White	58.1	147
Black	28.5	72
Hispanic/Latino	5.5	14
Asian	4.7	12
Native American	0	0
Other	3.2	8
<i>Total</i>	<i>100</i>	<i>253</i>
Job title		
Food service	17.4	44
Front desk	27.7	70
Room service	2.8	7
Manager	15.4	39
Banquet/conference	15.8	40
Housekeeping	6.7	17
Other front line positions	6.3	16
Other back office positions	7.9	20
<i>Total</i>	<i>100</i>	<i>253</i>

Category	%	N
Number of Positions		
1	53.8	136
2	23.3	59
3	14.6	37
4	4.7	12
5	2.4	6
More than 5 positions	1.2	3
<i>Total</i>	<i>100</i>	<i>253</i>
Tenure at current position		
Less than 1 year	18.6	47
1- less than 4 years	66.8	154
4- less than 8 years	13.5	34
8- less than 12 years	3.1	8
12- less than 16 years	2.0	5
16 years and above	2.0	5
<i>Total</i>	<i>100</i>	<i>253</i>
Tenure at present hotel		
Less than 1 year	15.9	36
1- less than 4 years	56.8	129
4- less than 8 years	17.2	39
8- less than 12 years	4.4	10
12- less than 16 years	3.9	9
16 years and above	1.8	4
<i>Total</i>	<i>100</i>	<i>253</i>
Tenure at all customer contact positions		
Less than 1 year	2.8	7
1- less than 4 years	26.4	67
4- less than 8 years	26.5	67
8- less than 12 years	9.9	25
12- less than 16 years	11.9	30
16- less than 20 years	6.7	17
20 years and above	15.8	40
<i>Total</i>	<i>100</i>	<i>253</i>

4-4 DATA ANALYSIS

This section of the chapter presents the results of the statistical analysis. The data analysis of this study was divided into two phases (Figure 5). The first phase examined the hypotheses among the proposed antecedents and consequences of emotional labor using structural equation modeling (SEM). The second phase examined the proposed moderating effects of social support and job autonomy on emotional labor and its associated consequences, using moderated multiple regression (MMR). The detailed analysis procedures and results are discussed below.

The relationships among antecedents (positive affect, negative affect, emotional contagion, and empathic concern), emotional labor (emotive dissonance and emotive effort), and consequences (job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion) (part A in Figure 5) were tested using structural equation modeling (SEM). This study adopted the two-stage process of SEM: a measurement model, and a structural model (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). As mentioned in Chapter Three, the ideal sample size is to have five observations for each estimated parameter (Hair, et al., 1998). The recommended sample size for performing SEM is 250 (Hair, et al., 1998). The sample size of 253 exceeds the recommended size.

Using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), the below section presents the results of the measurement model. After the relationships among indicators and the latent variables were confirmed, the following section then presents the results of the structural model for hypothesis testing proposes.

4-5 MEASUREMENT MODEL

The purpose of the measurement model is to specify the posited relationships of the observed variables to the latent variables. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was utilized to examine the factor structure of each construct in the proposed testing model (Part A in Figure 5). In building measurement models, it is important to use CFA to examine the unidimensionality of each construct, which is crucial in theory development and testing (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Therefore, before testing the overall measurement model, the measurement unidimensionality of each construct was assessed individually.

Chi-square is the most commonly used index to assess how well the model fits the data. An insignificant chi-square value denotes a good fit between the data and the model. However, as the sample size increases, the chi-square tends to be large and significant, which signals a poor fit. Even if the discrepancy between the estimated model and the data is very small, if the sample size is large enough, almost any model will be rejected because the discrepancy is not statistically equal to zero due to the excess power of the large sample size (Gursoy, 2001). Therefore, it is suggested that other fit indices available in LISREL 8.3 be checked to determine the model fit. The most commonly seen fit indices are: Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (RMR), Goodness-of-fit Index (GFI), Adjust Goodness-of-fit Index (AGFI), and Comparative Fit Index (CFI). If the measurement model fails to achieve a good fit, further model re-specification would be needed to improve the model fit by deleting the indicators that had large residuals and/or tended to load on other constructs.

CFA for Positive Affectivity

The original measurement model of positive affectivity (PA) is a single factor model comprised of ten indicators. The results of the initial estimation of PA did not produce a satisfactory result. The chi-square value of 227.04 with 35 degrees of freedom was significant at $p < .05$. This indicated a poor fit between the sample data and the model. Other fit indices also revealed a poor fit (RMSEA=.154, Standardized RMR=.077, CFI=.83, GFI=.84, AGFI=.74). According to the modification indices (MIs), this model would achieve a better fit by deleting some highly correlated indicators. As a result, six indicators were removed from the analysis and the CFA was re-run. Table 4.14 presents the final results of confirmatory factor analysis for PA. The final CFA for PA has four indicators with a chi-square value of 1.15, which was not significant at $p < 0.05$. The retained items were enthusiastic, interested, inspired, and proud (with loadings of .74, .75, .83, and .68 respectively). Other fit indices all showed a very good fit between the model and the data (RMSEA=.00, CFI=1.00, GFI=.99, and AGFI=.99).

The second step in assessing model fit is to examine the extent to which the measurement model is adequately represented by the observed indicators (Byrne, 1998). This can be determined by examining the squared multiple correlations (R^2), which also

serves as indicator reliability (Bollen, 1989). The squared multiple correlation (R^2) ranges from .00 to 1.00. Table 4.14 lists the squared multiple correlation of each indicator. The four positive affectivity indicators had moderate indicator reliability. However, the composite reliability of positive affectivity revealed a value of .84, which exceeds the recommended .70 (Hair, et al., 1998). The composite reliability was calculated by the formula provided by Fornell and Larcker (1981). With a composite reliability score of .84, it was determined that the positive affect scale is reliable.

Table 4.14 CFA for Positive Affectivity (N=253)

Construct and Indicators	Completely Standardized Loadings*	Construct/ Indicator Reliability	Error Variance
Positive Affectivity		.84	.16
1. Enthusiastic	.74	.55	.45
2. Interested	.75	.56	.44
3. Inspired	.83	.69	.31
4. Proud	.68	.47	.53

Fit Statistics

Chi-square = 1.15 (df = 2 , p-value = .56)

RMSEA = .00

Standardized RMR = .01

CFI = 1.00

GFI = .99

AGFI = .99

Note. * All *t*-values were significant at $p < .05$

CFA for Negative Affectivity

The original measurement model of negative affectivity (NA) is a single factor model comprised of ten indicators. The results of the initial estimation did not produce a satisfactory result. The chi-square value of 238.64 with 35 degrees of freedom was significant at $p < .05$. This indicated an inappropriate fit between the sample data and the model. Other fit indices also evidenced this poor fit (RMSEA=.159, Standardized RMR=.076, CFI=.83, GFI=.83, AGFI=.73). According to the modification indices (MIs), this model could achieve a better fit by deleting some highly correlated indicators. Five indicators were removed from the analysis and the CFA was re-run. Table 4.15 presents the final result of confirmatory factor analysis for negative affectivity. The final CFA for negative affectivity has five indicators with a chi-square value of 7.17, which was not significant at $p < .05$. These five indicators were “afraid, guilty, jittery, nervous, and scared” (with loadings of .71, .73, .69, .78, .55 respectively). This insignificant chi-square value suggested a very good fit between the model and the data. Other fit indices all indicated this good fit (RMSEA=.040, CFI=.99, GFI=.99, and AGFI=.97).

The results of the indicator as well as the construct reliability analysis are listed in Table 4.15. Similarly to positive affectivity, negative affectivity has an indicator reliabilities range from .30 to .62. The composite reliability was .82. Therefore, it was determined that the negative affect scale is reliable.

Table 4.15 CFA for Negative Affectivity (N=253)

Construct and Indicators	Completely Standardized Loadings*	Construct/ Indicator Reliability	Error Variance
Negative Affectivity		.82	.18
1. Afraid	.71	.50	.50
2. Guilty	.73	.53	.47
3. Jittery	.69	.48	.52
4. Nervous	.79	.62	.38
5. Scared	.55	.30	.70

Fit Statistics

Chi-square = 7.17 (df = 5, p-value = .21)
 RMSEA = .040
 Standardized RMR = .021
 CFI = .99
 GFI = .99
 AGFI = .97

Note. * All *t*-values were significant at $p < .05$

CFA for Emotional Contagion

Emotional contagion is an exogenous variable in this study. Initially, the measurement model of emotional contagion had seven items. Two items were dropped after performing the uni-dimensionality test in the pretest. In confirmatory factor analysis, the results of the estimation of emotional contagion on these five items did not achieve a good fit. The chi-square value of 70.68 with 14 degrees of freedom was significant at $p < 0.05$. Other fit indices also revealed this poor fit (RMSEA=.13, Standardized RMR=.085, CFI=.76, GFI=.92, AGFI=.84).

Based on the recommendation of the modification indices (MIs), this model could achieve a better fit by deleting one indicator, which was “I am able to remain calm even though those around me worry.” After this indicator was removed, the chi-square value dropped to 3.29, which was not significant at $p < 0.05$. Table 4.16 presents the final results of confirmatory factor analysis for emotional contagion. Other fit indices all

showed a very good fit between the model and the data (RMSEA=.049, CFI=.99, GFI=.99, and AGFI=.97).

The results of the indicator as well as construct reliability analysis were listed in Table 4.16. The indicator reliability scores range from .17 to .71. Compared with other indicators, the item “I become nervous if others around me seem to be nervous” had the highest reliability score of .71, which indicated that 71% of its variance could be explained by the latent factor of Emotional Contagion. Overall, the construct reliability was .67, which suggested a moderately strong internal consistency of the emotional contagion.

Table 4.16 CFA for Emotional Contagion (N=253)

Construct and Indicators	Completely Standardized Loadings*	Construct/ Indicator Reliability	Error Variance
Emotional Contagion		.67	.33
1. I tend to lose control when I am bringing bad news to people.	.52	.27	.73
2. I cannot continue to feel OK if people around me are depressed.	.41	.17	.83
3. I become nervous if others around me seem to be nervous.	.84	.71	.29
4. The people around me have great influence on my mood.	.53	.28	.72

Fit Statistics

Chi-square = 3.29 (df = 2, p-value = .19)

RMSEA = .049

Standardized RMR = .025

CFI = .99

GFI = .99

AGFI = .97

Note. * All *t*-values were significant at $p < .05$

CFA for Empathic Concern

The number of empathic concern items were decreased from seven to five in the pretest. Confirmatory factor analysis of these five indicators on the latent factor of empathic concern failed to generate a satisfactory result. The chi-square value of 90.33 with 14 degrees of freedom was significant at $p < .05$. Other fit indices also showed a poor fit between the model and the data (RMSEA=.17, Standardized RMR=.11, CFI=.59, GFI=.89, AGFI=.77).

Based on the recommendation of the modification indices (MIs), one indicator was removed from the analysis. This item was “I am often quite touched by things that I see happen.” After this indicator was removed, the chi-square value dropped to 5.54, with a p-value of .06. This insignificant chi-square value signaled a very good fit between the model and the data. Table 4.17 presents the final results of confirmatory factor analysis for empathic concern. Other fit indices also evidenced a good fit (CFI=.95, GFI=.99, and AGFI=.95).

The results of indicator as well as construct reliability analysis were listed in Table 4.17. The composite reliability score is .54. This result did not indicate a strong internal consistency (that is, 0.06 or greater). By examining the indicator reliability, it was found that two items had lower indicator reliabilities. These items were, “When I see someone being treated unfairly, I sometimes don’t feel very much pity for them,” and “I would describe myself as a pretty soft-hearted person.” Dropping these two items did not increase composite reliability to an acceptable level. This information suggested that the empathic concern scale does not demonstrate acceptable internal consistency. Therefore, any results related to the empathic concern construct should be interpreted with caution.

Table 4.17 CFA for Empathic Concern (N=253)

Construct and Indicators	Completely Standardized Loadings*	Construct/Indicator Reliability	Error Variance
Empathic Concern		.54	.46
1. I often have tender, concerned feelings for people less fortunate than myself.	.53	.28	.72
2. When I see someone being taken advantage of, I feel kind of protective toward them.	.64	.41	.59
3. When I see someone being treated unfairly, I sometimes don't feel very much pity for them. ^a	.32	.10	.90
4. I would describe myself as a pretty soft-hearted person.	.37	.14	.86

Fit Statistics

Chi-square = 5.54 (df = 2, p-value = .06)

RMSEA = .081

Standardized RMR = .038

CFI = .95

GFI = .99

AGFI = .95

Note. ^a reverse coded

* All *t*-values were significant at $p < .05$.

CFA for Emotive Dissonance

The measurement model for emotive dissonance had eleven indicators, which capture the concept of surface acting, genuine acting and emotive dissonance. The results of the initial estimation of the emotive dissonance measurement model did not produce a satisfactory result. The chi-square value of 624.74 with 90 degrees of freedom was significant at $p < .05$. This indicated a poor fit between the sample data and the model. Other fit indices also revealed a poor fit (RMSEA=.16, Standardized RMR=.058, CFI=.73, GFI=.74, AGFI=.65). Some indicators were deleted due to large residuals. Some indicators were removed from the analysis because their errors highly correlated with other indicators'. Four indicators were removed based on Modification Indices. Table 4.18 presents the final results of confirmatory factor analysis for the emotive dissonance dimension. The final CFA for emotive dissonance has seven indicators, with a chi-square value of 20.37, and a p-value of 0.12. This insignificant chi-square value and other fit indices all supported a very good fit between the model and the data (RMSEA=.041, CFI=.99, GFI=.98, and AGFI=.96).

Table 4.18 lists the construct and indicator reliability scores. The seven emotive dissonance indicators with scores ranging from .30 to .62 demonstrate that measures were moderately strong. In addition, the composite reliability of the latent construct had a value of .86, which exceeds the recommended .70 (Hair, et al., 1998). The above information indicates that the emotive dissonance scale has very good internal consistency.

Table 4.18 CFA for Emotive Dissonance (N=253)

Indicators	Completely Standardized Loadings*	Indicator Reliability	Error Variance
Emotive Dissonance		.86	.14
1. I put on a mask in order to express the right emotions for my job.	.68	.46	.54
2. The emotions I show to customers match what I truly feel.	.55	.30	.70
3. I have to cover up my true feelings when dealing with customers.	.63	.39	.61
4. I display emotions that I am not actually feeling.	.59	.35	.65
5. I fake the emotions I show when dealing with customers.	.78	.62	.38
6. I put on an act in order to deal with customers in an appropriate way.	.76	.58	.42
7. I behave in a way that differs from how I really feel.	.77	.59	.41

Fit Statistics

Chi-square = 20.37 (df = 14, p-value = .12)

RMSEA = .041

Standardized RMR = .026

CFI = .99

GFI = .98

AGFI = .96

Note. * All *t*-values were significant at $p < .05$.

CFA for Emotive Effort

Emotive effort, which represents the concept of deep acting, was examined using confirmatory factor analysis. The measurement model for emotive effort has eight indicators. The results of the measurement model for these eight indicators failed to produce a satisfactory result. The chi-square value of 111.00 with 27 degrees of freedom was significant at $p < .05$. This indicated a poor fit between the sample data and the model. Other fit indices also revealed a poor fit (RMSEA=.12, Standardized RMR=.30, CFI=.81, GFI=.90, AGFI=.84). Based on the recommendation of the modification indices, some indicators were deleted due to high correlations with other indicators. A total of three indicators were removed from the analysis and the CFA was re-run. These were: (1) “When getting ready for work, I tell myself that I am going to have a good day”; (2) “I think of pleasant things when I am getting ready for work”; and (3) “When working with customers, I attempt to create certain emotions in myself that present the image my company desires.” Table 4.19 presents the final results of confirmatory factor analysis for emotive effort.

The final CFA for emotive effort has five indicators with a chi-square value of 4.49, which was not significant at $p < 0.05$. Other fit indices all showed a very good fit between the model and the data (RMSEA=.00, CFI=1.00, GFI=.99, and AGFI=.98). In terms of scale reliability, the five emotive effort items with scores ranging from .27 to .48 demonstrate that measures were moderate in internal consistency. The composite reliability of emotive effort was .77, which exceeds the recommended .70 (Hair, et al., 1998). Therefore, it was determined that the emotive effort scale exhibits good internal consistency. In sum, the results of the reliability analysis of the emotive dissonance and emotive effort scales all demonstrated good internal consistency. As a result, it was then determined that the Hospitality Emotional Labor Scale is a reliable scale.

Table 4.19 CFA for Emotive Effort (N=253)

Construct and Indicators	Completely Standardized Loadings*	Construct/Indicator Reliability	Error Variance
Emotive Effort		.77	.23
1. I work at calling up the feelings I need to show to customers.	.65	.42	.58
2. I have to concentrate more on my behavior when I display an emotion that I don't actually feel.	.52	.27	.73
3. I try to actually experience the emotions that I must show when interacting with customers.	.62	.38	.62
4. I try to talk myself out of feeling what I really feel when helping customers	.70	.48	.52
5. I try to change my actual feelings to match those that I must express to customers.	.68	.46	.54

Fit Statistics

Chi-square = 4.49 (df = 5, p-value = .48)

RMSEA = .00

Standardized RMR = .02

CFI = 1.00

GFI = .99

AGFI = .98

Note. * All *t*-values were significant at $p < .05$.

CFA for Job Satisfaction

In this study, job satisfaction has five indicators. In the measurement model of job satisfaction, the initial estimation did not achieve a good fit. The chi-square value of 63.07 with 5 degrees of freedom was significant at $p < .05$. Other fit indices also indicated a poor fit between the model and the data (RMSEA=.224, Standardized RMR=.086, CFI=.88, GFI=.90, AGFI=.70).

Based on the recommendation of the modification indices (MIs), this model could achieve a better fit by deleting one indicator, which was “People on this job often think of quitting.” After this indicator was removed, the chi-square value dropped to .89 with a p -value of .64, which was not significant (Table 4.20). This insignificant result signaled a very good fit between the model and the data. Other fit indices also supported a very good fit between the data and the model (RMSEA=.00, CFI=1.00, GFI=1.00, and AGFI=.99). The reliability measures for both indicators and the construct all revealed an acceptable internal consistency of the Job Satisfaction Scale.

Table 4.20 CFA for Job Satisfaction (N=253)

Construct and Indicators	Completely Standardized Loadings*	Construct/Indicator Reliability	Error Variance
Job Satisfaction		.77	.23
1. I am satisfied with the kind of work I do in this job.	.52	.27	.73
2. I frequently think of quitting this job.	.50	.25	.75
3. Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with this job.	.95	.91	.09
4. Most people on this job are very satisfied with their job.	.67	.45	.55

Fit Statistics

Chi-square = .89 (df = 2, p -value = .64)

RMSEA = .00

Standardized RMR = .012

CFI = 1.00

GFI = 1.00

AGFI = .99

Note. * All t -values were significant at $p < .05$.

CFA for Emotional Exhaustion

In the measurement model for the emotional exhaustion scale, the results of the initial estimation on seven emotional exhaustion items failed to achieve a good fit. The chi-square value of 68.24 with 4 degrees of freedom was significant at $p < 0.05$. Other fit indices also showed a poor fit between the model and the data (RMSEA=.13, Standardized RMR=.54, CFI=.91, GFI=.92, AGFI=.84).

Based on the recommendation of the modification indices (MIs), this model could achieve a better fit by deleting indicators whose error variances were highly correlated. Modification indices suggested removing indicators from the analysis, including, “I feel emotionally drained from my work,” “Working with people all day is really a strain for me,” and “I feel I’m working too hard on my job.” After these indicators were removed, the chi-square value decreased to 4.61 with a p-value of .10. This insignificant chi-square value exemplified a very good fit between the model and the data. Table 4.21 presents the final results of confirmatory factor analysis for emotional exhaustion. Other fit indices also evidenced a very good fit (CFI=1.00, GFI=.99, and AGFI=.96). Each indicator had a significant loading. In addition, as emotional exhaustion is a well established scale and has been widely used, the indicator and construct reliability scores all further documented the good internal consistency of this scale.

Table 4.21 CFA for Emotional Exhaustion (N=253)

Construct and Indicators	Completely Standardized Loadings*	Construct/Indicator Reliability	Error Variance
Emotional Exhaustion		.83	.17
1. I feel frustrated by my job.	.75	.56	.46
2. I feel burned out from my work.	.83	.70	.30
3. I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.	.74	.55	.46
4. Working with people directly puts too much stress on me.	.63	.40	.60

Fit Statistics

Chi-square = 4.61 (df = 2, p-value = .10)
 RMSEA = .07
 Standardized RMR = .02
 CFI = 1.00
 GFI = .99
 AGFI = .96

Note. * All *t*-values were significant at $p < .05$.

4-6 CONSTRUCT VALIDITY

Validity is the extent to which the indicators accurately measure what they are supposed to measure (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998). Construct validity focuses on the extent to which data exhibit evidence of discriminant validity and convergent validity.

Discriminant validity deals with the concept that dissimilar constructs should differ (Burns & Bush, 1995). If two constructs are distinct in their nature, the instruments used to measure these two constructs should share a minimal correlation. Unlike discriminant validity, convergent validity is the overlap between alternative measures that are intended to tap the same construct but that have different sources of irrelevant, undesired variation (Judd, Smith, & Kidder, 1991). It means that indicators designed to tap the same construct should overlap with each other or share a good deal of variance.

The following sections describe the discriminant validity and convergent validity of the measures in this study.

Discriminant Validity

In this study, discriminant validity for each construct in the measurement model was secured by examining the constructs in sets of two (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Constructs were paired to test against each other. For example, the “positive affect” construct was tested against the “negative affect” construct to ensure that these two constructs were not measuring the same concept. Then, the positive affect was tested against another construct, and so forth, until every possible pair of constructs was tested.

When testing each pair of constructs, two models were utilized: a constrained model and an unconstrained model. In the constrained model, the correlation between two constructs was set to 1.00 (the fixed model). In the unconstrained model (the free model), the correlation parameter was freely calculated (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). A chi-square difference test was performed for these two models. Discriminant validity was achieved if the chi-square values were significantly different for these two models (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Gursoy, 2001). Table 4.22 lists the results of the chi-square difference tests for all possible pairs of constructs.

In Table 4.22, the chi-square values were generated for both constrained and unconstrained models with respective degrees of freedom. As all chi-square differences were significant at $p < .00$, it was concluded that all constructs possess discriminant validity.

Table 4.22 also shows the correlation coefficients of all pairs of constructs. A closer examination of the table reveals that many of the model’s constructs are correlated. The lowest correlation was $-.05$ (emotional contagion and emotive effort). The highest correlation was $.85$ (emotive dissonance and emotive effort). Although emotive dissonance and emotive effort are highly correlated, the chi-square difference test showed that these two constructs are statistically different and can be discriminated against each other, as can any other two highly correlated constructs.

Table 4.22 Results of Discriminant Validity Tests (N=253)

	Corr.	<u>Fixed Model</u>		<u>Free Model</u>		$\Delta\chi^2$	Δ d.f.	Sig.
		χ^2	d.f.	χ^2	d.f.			
1-2	-.32	224.14	14	23.33	13	200.81	1	0.00
1-3	-.37	94.42	14	17.38	13	77.04	1	0.00
1-4	.22	65.18	14	17.59	13	47.59	1	0.00
1-5	-.37	493.49	44	47.78	43	443.71	1	0.00
1-6	-.22	391.28	27	35.71	26	355.57	1	0.00
1-7	-.42	112.24	9	19.41	8	92.83	1	0.00
1-8	.42	53.5	9	10.66	8	42.84	1	0.00
2-3	.34	86.31	9	8.57	8	77.74	1	0.00
2-4	-.18	54.7	9	7.22	8	47.48	1	0.00
2-5	-.32	236.11	35	29.96	34	206.15	1	0.00
2-6	.25	53.41	20	31.23	19	22.18	1	0.00
2-7	.55	86.18	5	6.39	4	79.79	1	0.00
2-8	-.15	61.30	5	6.99	4	54.31	1	0.00
3-4	-.13	56.36	9	11.71	8	44.65	1	0.00
3-5	-.32	124.5	35	42.85	34	81.65	1	0.00
3-6	.30	104.73	20	23.67	19	81.06	1	0.00
3-7	.48	59.97	5	2.32	4	57.65	1	0.00
3-8	-.13	57.42	5	3.58	4	53.84	1	0.00
4-5	.17	86.33	35	39.45	34	46.88	1	0.00
4-6	-.05	72.51	20	29.46	19	43.05	1	0.00
4-7	-.25	46.47	5	6.47	4	40.00	1	0.00
4-8	.05	52.34	5	12.22	4	40.12	1	0.00
5-6	.85	164.13	54	121.48	53	42.65	1	0.00
5-7	-.56	113.53	27	34.27	26	79.26	1	0.00
5-8	.43	84.52	27	36.32	26	48.20	1	0.00
6-7	-.40	107.95	14	14.14	13	93.81	1	0.00
6-8	.33	68.05	14	22.78	13	45.27	1	0.00
7-8	-.41	45.76	2	.54	1	45.22	1	0.00

Note. 1=positive affect; 2=negative affect; 3=emotional contagion; 4=empathic concern; 5=emotive dissonance; 6=emotive effort; 7=emotional exhaustion; 8=job satisfaction.

Convergent Validity

Anderson and Gerbing (1988) suggest that evidence of convergent validity for a measurement model is present if all observable indicators load significantly on their respective latent factors. In this study, all observable indicators loaded significantly on their latent variables (Table 4.14 to Table 4.21) at the 0.05 significance level. Therefore, the results of confirmatory factor analysis provide evidence of convergent validity for the constructs.

4-7 OVERALL MEASUREMENT MODEL

After each construct was examined for its uni-dimensionality using maximum likelihood (ML) confirmatory factor analysis, the overall measurement model fit was tested (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Using LISREL 8.3, the covariance matrix was used as the input data to examine the overall model fit. The proposed measurement model postulates a priori that the measurement model is an eight-factor structure composed of: (1) positive affectivity, (2) negative affectivity, (3) emotional contagion, (4) empathic concern, (5) emotive dissonance, (6) emotive effort, (7) emotional exhaustion, and (8) job satisfaction. These eight factors are correlated. The confirmatory factor analyses retained a total number of 37 observed variables for these eight factors in the final measurement model.

The fit of the measurement model was tested using the LISREL 8.3 structural equation package. The primary interest in this stage is to examine how well the model describes the sample data (Gursoy, 2001). A model achieves a good fit if the covariance matrix it implies is equivalent to the observed covariance matrix (Hoyle, 1995), and therefore, the elements of the residual matrix are near zero. The most commonly used fit index is the chi-square goodness-of-fit index, which is derived directly from the value of the fitting function. The initial estimation of the model fit did not generate a satisfactory result. The chi-square value was 1032.22 (df=637), which was significant at the 0.05 level. Other fit indices also showed a similar result (CFI=.87; GFI=.82; REMSE=.05; Standardized RMR=.20). Although each construct was confirmed in its unidimensional measurement, when putting all the constructs together in one inclusive model, the fit indices became weaker due to the very complex factor structure.

Based on modification indices, the overall model needs to be re-specified to improve the model fit by deleting mis-specified indicators or indicators that correlated highly with other indicators. Every time an indicator was deleted, the model was re-estimated. As a result, the number of indicators was decreased from 37 to 24. The remaining twenty-four indicators and their loadings are listed in Table 4.23.

The model fit statistics achieved a satisfactory fit. Although the chi-square value was significant at the 0.05 level, other fit indices indicated a good fit between the model and the data. As mentioned earlier in this chapter, the value of the chi-square test is very sensitive to the sample size. The chi-square value tends to be large and significant when the sample size increases. As a result, most researchers suggest examining other fit indices to determine the model fit (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Other fit indices indicated a good fit between the data and the model. The RMSEA was .031; the CFI was .96; the IFI was .96; the NNFI was .96, and the GFI was .91. Therefore, the overall model was accepted.

Table 4.23 Fit Statistics and Measurement Scale Properties (N=253)

Construct and Indicators	Completely Standardized Loadings*	Construct/Indicator Reliability	Error Variance
Positive Affectivity		.71	.29
Enthusiastic	.76	.58	.42
Interested	.76	.58	.42
Inspired	.81	.66	.34
Negative Affectivity		.66	.34
Guilty	.73	.53	.47
Jittery	.72	.51	.49
Nervous	.77	.59	.41
Emotional Contagion		.65	.35
I cannot continue to feel OK if people around me are depressed.	.42	.18	.82
I become nervous if others around me seem to be nervous.	.74	.55	.45
The people around me have great influence on my mood.	.59	.35	.65
Empathic Concern		.63	.39
I often have tender, concerned feelings for people less fortunate than myself.	.52	.27	.73
When I see someone being taken advantage of, I feel kind of protective toward them.	.64	.40	.60
I would describe myself as a pretty soft-hearted person.	.36	.13	.87
Emotive Effort		.70	.30
I work at calling up the feelings I need to show to customers.	.63	.40	.60
I try to talk myself out of feeling what I really feel when helping customers	.67	.45	.55
I try to change my actual feelings to match those that I must express to customers.	.68	.47	.53

Construct and Indicators	Completely Standardized Loadings*	Construct/Indicator Reliability	Error Variance
Emotive Dissonance		.82	.28
I put on a mask in order to express the right emotions for my job.	.68	.46	.54
I have to cover up my true feelings when dealing with customers.	.62	.39	.61
I display emotions that I am not actually feeling.	.58	.34	.66
I fake the emotions I show when dealing with customers.	.76	.57	.43
I put on an act in order to deal with customers in an appropriate way.	.77	.59	.41
Job Satisfaction		.65	.35
I am satisfied with the kind of work I do in this job.	.60	.35	.65
Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with this job.	.79	.62	.38
Emotional Exhaustion		.77	.23
I feel frustrated by my job.	.82	.68	.32
Working with people directly puts too much stress on me.	.77	.60	.40

Fit Statistics

Chi-square = 336.18 (df = 269, p-value = .0033)

RMSEA = .031

CFI = .96

GFI = .91

NNFI = .96

IFI = .96

A closer examination of the composite reliability value for each construct revealed that construct reliability decreased as the number of indicators decreased. All constructs had reliability scores within an acceptable range (between .60 to .80). The

construct that received the highest reliability was emotive dissonance. The construct that received the lowest reliability was empathic concern.

4-8 STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODEL

The second step in structural equation modeling is to examine the relationships among the proposed constructs. Structural equation modeling is a multivariate statistical technique that takes a confirmatory (i.e., hypothesis testing) approach to the analysis of a structural theory (Gursoy, 2001). It estimates a series of separate, but interdependent, multiple regression equations simultaneously by specifying the structural (causal) relationships suggested in a hypothesized structural model. The structural model defines the pattern of relationships among the unobserved (latent) factors. These latent factors are connected by one-way arrows, the directionality of which reflects hypotheses bearing on the causal structure of factors in the model. Therefore, structural equation modeling also serves as a means of hypothesis testing.

Figure 5 (part A) represents the model being tested in this study. The model proposes that employee work outcomes (job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion) are influenced by two emotional labor dimensions (emotive dissonance and emotive effort). In other words, the way employees enact emotional labor leads to different work outcomes. Further, the way employees enact emotional labor is influenced by individual characteristics (positive affect, negative affect, emotional contagion, and empathic concern). The details of each construct were discussed and the validity and reliability of the measurement of the measurement scales were confirmed in the measurement model section. In this section, the proposed structural model was assessed.

Testing the Hypothesized (Theoretical) Structural Model

Figure 6 presents the hypothesized antecedents and consequences of emotional labor. As can be seen in Figure 6, there were eight constructs in the model. Four of them are independent (exogenous) and the other four constructs are dependent (endogenous) variables. The independent latent exogenous variables are positive affect, negative affect, emotional contagion, and empathic concern. Each of these variables comprises three observed indicator variables (X1-X12). The dependent variables are emotive dissonance,

emotive effort, job satisfaction, and emotional exhaustion. A total of 12 observed indicators (Y1-Y12) were used to measure these four dependent variables.

The main interest in structural equation modeling is to identify the relationships among independent variables and dependent variables. These relationships can be represented by two types of matrices: a Gamma matrix and a Beta matrix. The Gamma matrix specifies the regression coefficients that link independent variables and dependent variables. The Beta matrix specifies the regression coefficients that link dependent variables. As can be seen in Figure 6, there are eight parameters to be estimated in the Gamma matrix and four parameters to be estimated in the Beta matrix. Each of these matrices represents one of the hypotheses proposed in this study. Table 4.24 presents the hypothesized paths for Gamma (γ) and Beta (β) matrices. For example, γ_{12} represents hypothesis 3 (A high negative affect employee will experience more emotive dissonance than a low negative affect employee). Similarly, β_{41} in the Beta matrix represents hypothesis 9 (increased emotive dissonance will lead to decreased emotional exhaustion).

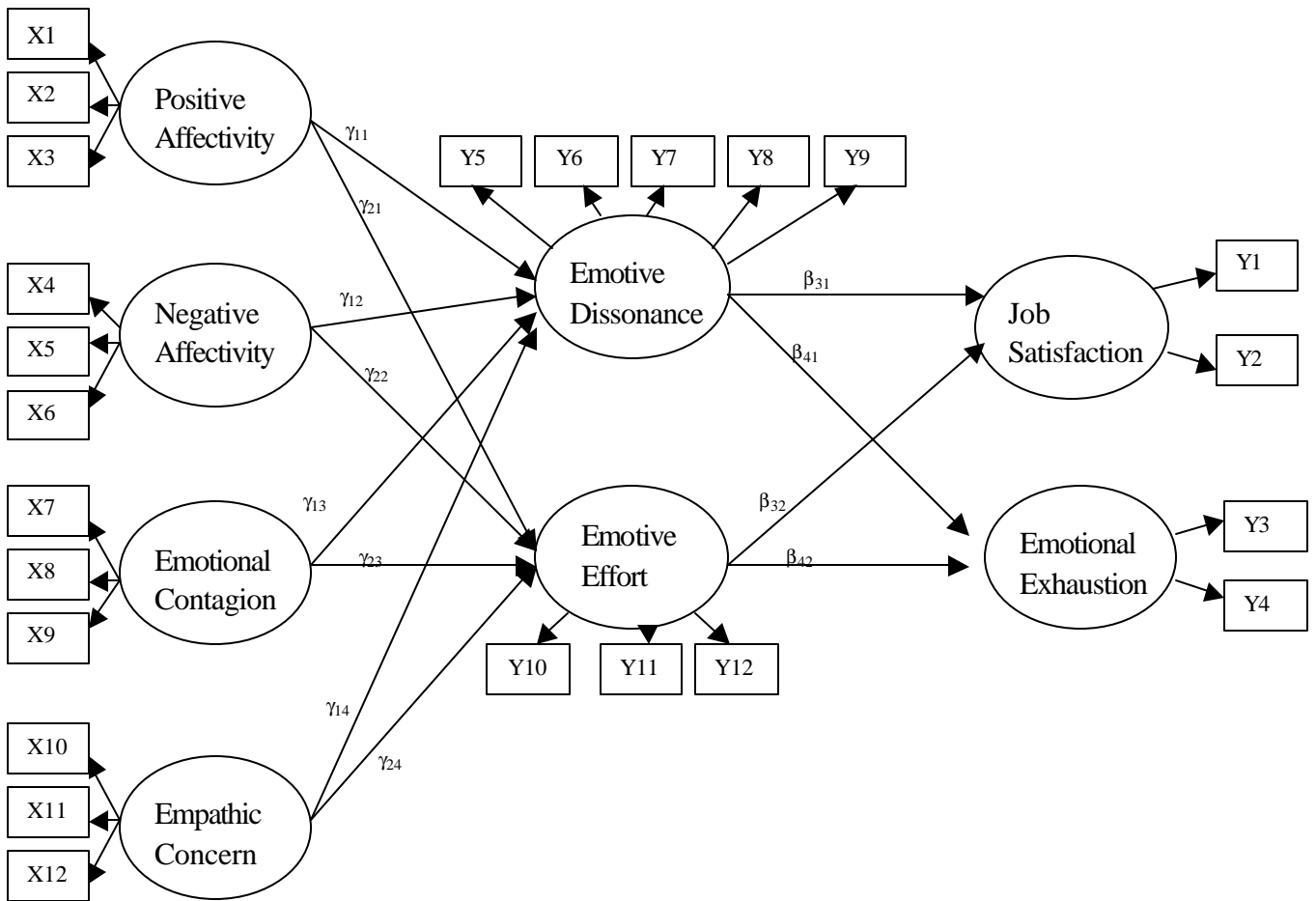


Figure 6. Theoretical Structural Model

Table 4.24 Pattern of Estimated Parameters in the Gamma and Beta Matrices

Gamma matrices				
	Positive Affectivity	Negative Affectivity	Emotional Contagion	Empathic Concern
Emotive Dissonance	γ_{11}	γ_{12}	γ_{13}	γ_{14}
Emotive Effort	γ_{21}	γ_{22}	γ_{23}	γ_{24}
Job Satisfaction	0	0	0	0
Emotional Exhaustion	0	0	0	0
Beta matrices				
	Emotive Dissonance	Emotive Effort	Job Satisfaction	Emotional Exhaustion
Emotive Dissonance	0	0	0	0
Emotive Effort	0	0	0	0
Job Satisfaction	β_{31}	β_{32}	0	0
Emotional Exhaustion	β_{41}	β_{42}	0	0

Note. γ = Gamma; β = Beta

The first subscript number represents the row number and the second subscript number represents the column number.

Selected goodness-of-fit statistics are presented in Table 4.25. As can be seen in the initial model in Table 4.25, with a degree of freedom of 234, the chi-square value was 400.71, which was significant at the 0.05 level. However, as mentioned earlier, chi-square is very sensitive to the sample size and therefore, it provides little guidance in determining the extent to which the model does not fit (Byrne, 1998). Thus, it is more beneficial to rely on another fit index as represented by the CFI, which, in this instance, provides evidence of a fairly well-fitting model (CFI=.91). Other fit indices show a moderate fit (GFI=.90, RMSEA=.049).

Table 4.25 Summary of Specifications and Fit Statistics for the Hypothesized Model

Model	Parameter Added	Parameters Deleted	X ²	df	RMSEA	CFI	GFI	ΔX ²	Δdf
1. Initial			400.71	234	.049	.91	.90		
2.	B21	--	366.99	233	.041	.94	.91	33.72	1
3.	G43	--	347.70	232	.040	.94	.91	19.29	1
4.	G42	--	333.71	231	.038	.94	.92	13.99	1
5. Final		G12 G13 G14 G24	250.76	175	.038	.96	.93	82.95	56

A review of the modification indices reveals some evidence of misfit in the model. According to the modification indices, the maximum modification index is associated with Beta (2, 1), which represents a path flowing from emotive dissonance to emotive effort. From a substantive perspective, it would be reasonable to assume that an increase in emotive dissonance may lead to an increase in emotive effort. When someone experiences a higher level of emotive dissonance, then this individual is more likely to experience “fake in good faith” (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987), which means that employees blame themselves for being phony. In this case, they will try to exert more effort to be more sincere when serving customers. As a result, it would seem reasonable to add one more path from emotive dissonance to emotive effort (β_{21}).

After the model was re-specified to add one path from emotive dissonance to emotive effort, the chi-square value dropped to 366.99, with a degree of freedom of 233 (Model 2 in Table 4.25). This chi-square value was significant at the 0.05 level. Although this significant value suggested an inappropriate fit, other fit indices all showed an improved fit between the model and the data (CFI=.94; GFI=.91; RMSEA=.041) (Model 2 in Table 4.25). The chi-square difference between Models 1 and 2 was statistically significant ($\Delta X^2_{(1)} = 33.72$).

In a review of the modification indices, it was found that the model could have a better fit if more paths were added. The maximum modification index was associated with Gamma (4,3), which was a link between emotional exhaustion and emotional

contagion. Specifically, the modification indices suggest that emotional contagion was associated more closely with emotional exhaustion. From a theoretical standpoint, the level of emotional exhaustion is strongly associated with too much public contact (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). If one's emotions can be easily influenced by other's emotions (high emotional contagion), and one's position requires intensive public contact, it is very likely that this individual will be exhausted more easily than an individual whose emotions can't be easily influenced by others' emotions (low emotional contagion). Therefore, it is reasonable to draw a link between emotional contagion and emotional exhaustion.

Model 3 in Table 4.25 presents the results of adding one more parameter (γ_{43}). The chi-square was 347.70, which was significant at the 0.05 level. The RMSEA was .040. The CFI and GFI were .94 and .91, respectively. The revised model had a better fit and the chi-square difference between Model 2 and 3 was statistically significant ($\Delta X^2_{(1)} = 19.29$).

Although the fit indices were improved after adding one parameter between emotional contagion and emotional exhaustion, the modification indices still indicated that one more path needed to be added. This path was the link between negative affectivity and emotional exhaustion (γ_{42}). This path from negative affectivity to emotional exhaustion suggested that negative affectivity can determine the level of emotional exhaustion one experiences. In the psychology literature, people who experience more negative emotions tend to experience more negative work outcomes, including a higher level of job dissatisfaction, emotional exhaustion, or higher turnover rate (Locke, 1976; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). As a result, it is reasonable to add one path between negative affectivity and emotional exhaustion.

Model 4 in Table 4.25 presents the results of adding one more parameter (γ_{42}). The chi-square was 333.71, which was significant at the 0.05 level. The RMSEA decreased to .038. The CFI was .94, and the GFI increased to .92. The chi-square difference between Models 3 and 4 was statistically significant ($\Delta X^2_{(1)} = 13.99$).

So far, the structural model achieves a satisfactory result. Table 4.26 presents the regression coefficients of Model 4 in Table 4.25. As can be seen in Table 4.26, most of the estimates were significant. However, four estimates failed to achieve a significant

level. These four parameters were: GA (1,2; negative affect→ emotive dissonance); GA (1,3; emotional contagion→ emotive dissonance); GA(1,4; empathic concern→ emotive dissonance); and GA (2,4; empathic concern → emotive effort).

Thus far, the model fit was improved by considering only the addition of parameters to the model. However, another side of the issue of fit was the extent to which certain initially hypothesized paths may be irrelevant to the model (Byrne, 1998). In the interest of parsimony, a final structural model was estimated with these four structural paths deleted from the model (Model 5 in Table 4.25). This deletion resulted in an elimination of one construct, which was empathic concern. Due to the insignificant regression coefficients of empathic concern for both emotive effort and emotive dissonance, this construct was removed from the final structural model.

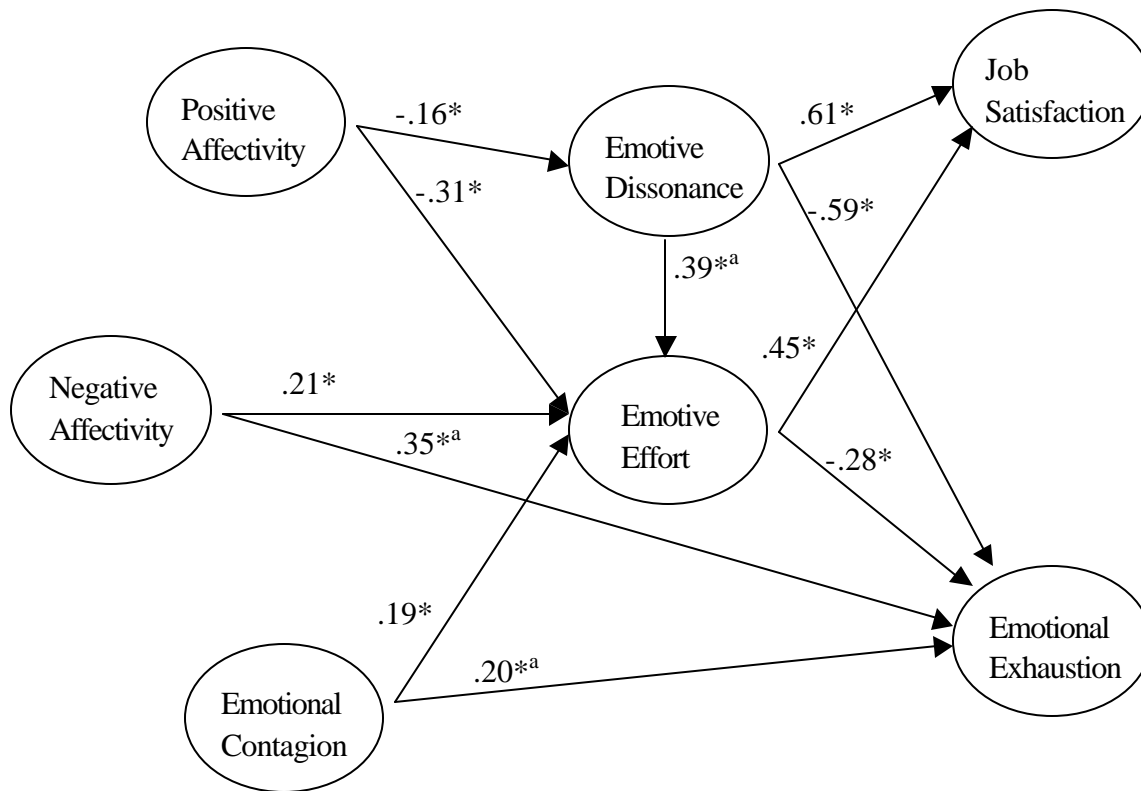
Table 4.26 Structural Parameter Estimates for Model Four.

Gamma matrices				
	Positive Affectivity	Negative Affectivity	Emotional Contagion	Empathic Concern
Emotive Dissonance	-.17 (-2.40)**	.01 (.31)	.03 (.64)	.07 (1.49)
Emotive Effort	-.29 (-2.28)**	.22 (1.90)*	.21 (2.19)**	.00 (.04)
Job Satisfaction	0	0	0	0
Emotional Exhaustion	0	.35 (3.18)**	.24 (2.58)**	0
Beta matrices				
	Emotive Dissonance	Emotive Effort	Job Satisfaction	Emotional Exhaustion
Emotive Dissonance	0	0	0	0
Emotive Effort	.53 (5.45)**	0	0	0
Job Satisfaction	0.47 (3.57)**	0.22 (3.32)**	0	0
Emotional Exhaustion	-0.49 (-3.15)**	-0.64 (-2.75)**	0	0

Note. * denotes a significant t-value at the 0.10 level.

** denotes a significant t-value at the 0.05 level.

The estimation of this final model resulted in an overall $X^2_{(175)}$ value of 250.76, with a CFI value of .96 (Model 5 in Table 4.25). The chi-square difference between Models 5 and 4 was statistically significant ($\Delta X^2_{(56)} = 82.95$). A schematic representation of this final structural model of emotional labor that includes completely standardized solution is displayed in Figure 7. As can be seen in Figure 7, the final structural model was re-specified to achieve a better fit, and therefore was different from the proposed model in Chapter Three. Some hypotheses in the proposed model (Figure 5, part A) were not supported by the data. The section below discusses the results of hypothesis testing.



Note. * significant at $p < 0.05$
^a This path was not hypothesized

Figure 7. A Path Diagram for the Final Structural Model

Analysis of the Hypotheses

The hypothesized theoretical model and proposed hypotheses were tested using LISREL 8.3. The results indicated that some of the paths proposed in the original hypotheses failed to achieve a significant level. The model was then re-specified to have a better fit. Among the 12 proposed hypotheses, six hypotheses were supported. The section below provides a detailed discussion of the hypothesis testing.

H 1: A high PA employee will experience less emotive dissonance than a low PA employee.

In hypothesis one, it was postulated that a high PA employee would experience less emotive dissonance than a low PA employee. The empirical testing supported this hypothesis. The regression coefficient between positive affectivity and emotive dissonance was $-.17$, which was significant at the 0.05 level (Table 4.26). Positive affectivity was found to be significantly associated with emotive dissonance. In other words, the more PA an employee is, the less emotive dissonance she or he may experience when the job requires employees to display positive emotions.

H 2: A high PA employee will exert less emotive effort than a low PA employee.

In hypothesis two, it was postulated that there is a negative relationship between PA and emotive effort. This hypothesis was supported. The regression coefficient between positive affectivity and emotive effort was $-.29$, which was significant at the 0.05 level (Table 4.26). As a result, high PA employees can display more genuine positive emotions without a great deal of effort than low PA employees.

H 3: A high NA employee will experience more emotive dissonance than a low NA employee.

In hypothesis three, it was proposed that a high NA employee will experience more emotive dissonance than a low NA employee. This hypothesis was not supported. The regression coefficient of this hypothesis was very weak and not statistically significant ($\gamma=.01$) (Table 4.26). This path was then removed from the structural model with respect to model parsimony.

H 4: A high NA employee will exert more emotive effort than a low NA employee.

In hypothesis four, it was postulated that an employee with a high negative affectivity would exert more emotive effort than an employee with low negative affectivity. This hypothesis was supported. The regression coefficient between negative affectivity and emotive effort was .22, which was significant at the 0.10 level (Table 4.26). This result suggests that employees who experience more negative moods would try harder to psyche up needed positive emotions for jobs. This is especially true when employees fake in good faith (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). In this case, they will be more likely to engage in deep acting to induce a positive mood.

H 5: The more emotional contagion employees experience, the less emotive dissonance they will experience.

In hypothesis five, it was proposed that an employee with a high level of emotional contagion would experience less emotive dissonance than an employee with a low level of emotional contagion. This hypothesis was not supported. The regression coefficient of this hypothesis was very weak and not statistically significant ($\gamma=.03$) (Table 4.26). This path was then removed from the structural model with respect to model parsimony.

H 6: The more emotional contagion employees experience, the more emotive effort they will exert.

This hypothesis proposed a positive relationship between emotional contagion and emotive effort, and was confirmed by empirical testing. The Gamma was .21, which was significant at the 0.05 level (Table 4.26). This finding is consistent with findings of prior researchers. In the psychology literature, research has demonstrated that the emotional contagion component of empathy evokes altruistic actions toward the target person (Batson, et al., 1988). As an individual with a high level of emotional contagion tends to “feel with” others, he or she will exert more effort to induce a positive mood to meet customer expectations.

H 7: The more empathic concern employees experience, the less emotive dissonance they will experience.

In hypothesis seven, it was proposed that an employee with a high level of empathic concern will experience less emotive dissonance than an employee with a low level of empathic concern. This hypothesis was not supported. The regression coefficient of this hypothesis was very weak and not statistically significant ($\gamma=.07$) (Table 4.26). Therefore, this path was removed from the structural model with respect to model parsimony.

H 8: The more empathic concern employees experience, the more emotive effort they will exert.

In hypothesis eight, it was proposed that a high empathic concern employee would exert more emotive effort than an employee with a low level of empathic concern. Similarly to hypothesis seven, this hypothesis was not supported. The regression coefficient of this hypothesis was very weak and not statistically significant ($\gamma=.00$) (Table 4.26), and suggests that almost no relationship exists. As a result, this path was removed from the structural model with respect to model parsimony.

H 9: Increased emotive dissonance will lead to decreased job satisfaction.

In hypothesis nine, it was postulated that when one experiences more emotive dissonance, which is the outcome of surface acting, one would experience less job satisfaction. This hypothesis was not supported. The regression coefficient from emotive dissonance to job satisfaction was .47, which was significant at the 0.05 level. The result of empirical testing showed that, opposite to the prediction, there is a significant positive relationship between emotive dissonance and job satisfaction. This result suggests that when one adopts more surface acting to enact emotional labor, one would experience more job satisfaction. This result failed to support hypothesis nine.

H 10: Increased emotive effort will lead to increased job satisfaction.

In hypothesis ten, it was postulated that if one exerts more emotive effort (deep acting) during the course of service, one would experience a higher level of job

satisfaction. This hypothesis was supported. The regression coefficient between emotive effort and job satisfaction was .22, which was significant at the 0.05 level (t-value =3.32) (Table 4.26). In other words, employees tend to be more satisfied with their jobs when they put more effort (deep acting) in providing sincere hospitality.

H 11: Increased emotive dissonance will lead to increased emotional exhaustion.

In hypothesis eleven, it was postulated that there is a positive relationship between emotive dissonance and emotional exhaustion. That is, when one experiences more emotive dissonance during the course of service, one would experience more emotional exhaustion. This hypothesis was not supported. The regression coefficient between emotive dissonance and emotional exhaustion was $-.49$, which was significant at the 0.05 level. This result suggests that, opposite to the prediction, there is a negative relationship between emotive dissonance and emotional exhaustion. This hypothesis testing result failed to support hypothesis eleven.

H 12: Increased emotive effort will lead to decreased emotional exhaustion.

In hypothesis twelve, it was postulated that if one exerts more emotive effort in employee-guest interactions, then one would experience less emotional exhaustion. This hypothesis was supported. The regression coefficient of this hypothesis was -0.64 , which was significant at the 0.05 level (t-value=-2.75) (Table 4.26). Therefore, it was concluded that one will experience less emotional exhaustion if one exerts more emotive effort during the course of service.

Total and Indirect Effects of the Exogenous Variable on the Endogenous Variables

The direct effects are the influences of one variable on another that are not mediated by any other variable, while indirect effects are those that are mediated by at least one other variable. The total effects are the sum of the direct and indirect effects. The indirect and total effects can help to answer important questions that are not addressed by examining the direct effects (Bollen, 1989; p. 376). Table 4.27 presents the indirect, direct, and total effects of each construct.

It was found that both emotive dissonance and emotive effort had positive total effects on job satisfaction (.79 and .45 respectively). For emotional exhaustion, the results revealed that emotional exhaustion received positive direct effects from negative affectivity and emotional contagion (.35 and .20 respectively), and negative indirect effects from negative affectivity and emotional contagion through emotive effort (-.07 and -.09 respectively). A closer examination on the indirect effects of negative affectivity and emotional contagion through emotive effort on emotional exhaustion revealed that the presence of emotive effort decreased emotional exhaustion. Because of the indirect effect of emotive effort, the total effect of negative affectivity on emotional exhaustion decreased from .35 (direct effect) to .29 (total effect). Similarly, the total effect of emotional contagion on emotional exhaustion decreased from .20 (direct effect) to .15 (total effect).

These results suggest that, a high NA employee tend to experience a higher level of emotional exhaustion when performing emotional labor on a daily basis. However, when a high NA employee has learned to deep act emotional labor (emotive effort), this deep acting technique will help to reduce his or her exhaustion level. Similarly, a high emotional contagion employee can reduce his or her emotional exhaustion level by using deep acting technique to enact emotional labor. Therefore, the presence of emotive effort (or deep acting) can help to decrease emotional exhaustion and to bring more positive work outcomes for employees.

Table 4.27 Total, Indirect, and Direct Effects among Latent Variables

	DI			EFF			JS			EE		
	DE	IE	TE	DE	IE	TE	DE	IE	TE	DE	IE	TE
PA	-	-	-.16	-.31	-.06	-.37	-	-	-	-	-	-
NA	-	-	-	-	-	.21	-	-	-	.35	-.07	.29
CT	-	-	-	-	-	.19	-	-	-	.20	-.09	.15
DI	-	-	-	-	-	.39	.61	.18	.79	-.59	-.11	-.70
EF	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	.45	-	-	-.28
JS	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
EE	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Note:

PA= Positive Affectivity; NA= Negative Affectivity; CT= Emotional Contagion
 CN= Emotional Concern; DI= Emotional Dissonance; EF= Emotive Effort;
 JS= Job Satisfaction; EE= Emotional Exhaustion; DE= Direct Effect; IE= Indirect Effect;
 TE= Total Effect

4-9 TESTS OF MODERATING EFFECTS

This stage of data analysis deals with the moderating effects of social support and job autonomy on the relationship between emotional labor and its consequences (part B in Figure 5). The basic premise of these moderating effects is that responses to variations in emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction depend on the perceived level of social support and job autonomy. This study used the moderated multiple regression (MMR) to examine these moderating effects.

Following the procedure articulated by Cohen and Cohen (1983), the dependent variables (i.e., emotional exhaustion) were regressed on independent variables (i.e., emotive effort) and a moderator (i.e., social support). Hypotheses 13 to 16 were examined using the MMR. The section below describes the hypothesis testing results.

H 13 a: Social support moderates the relationship between emotive dissonance and job satisfaction.

An examination of the nature of the interaction effects of social support on the relationship between emotive dissonance and job satisfaction indicated that emotive dissonance had a significant positive effect ($\beta=.255$, $p=.000$) on job satisfaction (Table 4.28). As shown, social support also had a significant positive effect on job satisfaction ($\beta=.269$, $p=.000$), which indicated that the more social support employees receive, the more job satisfaction they experience. However, the interaction between emotive dissonance and social support did not add to the prediction of job satisfaction ($\beta=-.008$, $p=.889$, $\Delta R^2=.000$). Social support did not moderate the relationship between emotive dissonance and job satisfaction. Therefore, hypothesis 13a was not supported.

Table 4.28 Results of Moderated Regression Analyses of Emotive Dissonance and Social Support for Job Satisfaction

Variable	Beta	t-value	<i>p</i>	R ²	ΔR^2
Step 1				.069	.069
Emotive dissonance	.262	4.672	.000		
Step 2				.139	.070
Emotive dissonance	.255	4.702	.000		
Social support	.269	4.944	.000		
Step 3				.139	.000
Emotive dissonance	.255	4.692	.000		
Social support	.269	4.929	.000		
Emotive dissonance x social support	-.008	-.139	.889		

H 13 b: Social support moderates the relationship between emotive effort and job satisfaction.

An examination of the nature of the interaction effects of social support on the relationship between emotive effort and job satisfaction indicated that emotive effort had a significant positive effect ($\beta=.194$, $p=.001$) on job satisfaction (Table 4.29). As shown, social support had a significant positive effect on job satisfaction ($\beta=.261$, $p=.000$), which indicated that the more social support employees receive, the more job satisfaction they experience. However, the interaction between emotive effort and social support did not add to the prediction of job satisfaction ($\beta=.002$, $p=.970$, $\Delta R^2= .000$). Social support did not moderate the relationship between emotive effort and job satisfaction. Therefore, hypothesis 13b was not supported.

Table 4.29 Results of Moderated Regression Analyses of Emotive Effort and Social Support for Job Satisfaction

Variable	Beta	t-value	<i>p</i>	R ²	ΔR^2
Step 1				.040	.040
Emotive effort	.201	3.552	.000		
Step 2				.111	.071
Emotive effort	.194	3.532	.000		
Social support	.261	4.750	.000		
Step 3				.111	.000
Emotive effort	.194	3.513	.001		
Social support	.261	4.740	.000		
Emotive effort x social support	.002	.037	.970		

H 14 a: Social support moderates the relationship between emotive dissonance and emotional exhaustion.

An examination of the nature of the interaction effects of social support on the relationship between emotive dissonance and emotional exhaustion indicated that emotive dissonance had a significant negative effect ($\beta = -.426, p = .000$) on emotional exhaustion (Table 4.30). As shown, social support had a significant negative effect ($\beta = -.121, p = .022$) on emotional exhaustion, which indicated that the more social support employees receive, the less emotional exhaustion they experience. However, the interaction between emotive dissonance and social support did not significantly add to the prediction of emotional exhaustion ($\beta = -.090, p = .088, \Delta R^2 = .008$). Social support did not moderate the relationship between emotive dissonance and emotional exhaustion. As a result, hypothesis 14a was not supported.

Table 4.30 Results of Moderated Regression Analyses of Emotive Dissonance and Social Support for Emotional Exhaustion

Variable	Beta	t-value	<i>p</i>	R ²	ΔR^2
Step 1				.183	.183
Emotive dissonance	-.428	-8.105	.000		
Step 2				.195	.012
Emotive dissonance	-.423	-8.024	.000		
Social support	-.119	-2.249	.025		
Step 3				.203	.008
Emotive dissonance	-.426	-8.095	.000		
Social support	-.121	-2.295	.022		
Emotive dissonance x social support	-.090	-1.710	.088		

H 14 b: Social support moderates the relationship between emotive effort and emotional exhaustion.

An examination of the nature of the interaction effects of social support on the relationship between emotive effort and emotional exhaustion indicated that emotive effort had a significant negative effect ($\beta = -.316$, $p = .000$) on emotional exhaustion (Table 4.31). As shown, social support had a significant negative effect ($\beta = -.109$, $p = .047$) on emotional exhaustion, which indicated that the more social support employees receive, the less emotional exhaustion they experience. However, the interaction between emotive effort and social support did not significantly add to the prediction of emotional exhaustion ($\beta = -.096$, $p = .083$, $\Delta R^2 = .009$). Social support did not moderate the relationship between emotive effort and emotional exhaustion. As a result, hypothesis 14b was not supported.

Table 4.31 Results of Moderated Regression Analyses of Emotive Effort and Social Support for Emotional Exhaustion

Variable	Beta	t-value	<i>p</i>	R ²	ΔR^2
Step 1				.108	.108
Emotive effort	-.329	-5.996	.000		
Step 2				.121	.013
Emotive effort	-.325	-5.918	.000		
Social support	-.108	-1.958	.051		
Step 3				.130	.009
Emotive effort	-.316	-5.754	.000		
Social support	-.109	-1.990	.047		
Emotive effort x social support	-.096	-1.740	.083		

H 15 a: Job autonomy moderates the relationship between emotive dissonance and job satisfaction.

An examination of the nature of the interaction effects of job autonomy on the relationship between emotive dissonance and job satisfaction indicated that emotive dissonance had a significant positive effect on job satisfaction ($\beta=.222$, $p=.00$) (Table 4.32). Also, job autonomy had a significant positive effect on job satisfaction ($\beta=.219$, $p=.00$), which indicated that the more job autonomy employees receive, the more job satisfaction they experience. However, the interaction between emotive dissonance and job autonomy did not add to the prediction of job satisfaction ($\beta=.003$, $p=.963$, $\Delta R^2=.000$). Job autonomy did not moderate the relationship between emotive dissonance and job satisfaction. Therefore, hypothesis 15a was not supported.

Table 4.32 Results of Moderated Regression Analyses of Emotive Dissonance and Job Autonomy for Job Satisfaction

Variable	Beta	t-value	<i>p</i>	R ²	ΔR^2
Step 1				.069	.069
Emotive dissonance	.262	4.672	.000		
Step 2				.118	.049
Emotive dissonance	.222	3.936	.000		
Job autonomy	.218	3.876	.000		
Step 3				.118	.000
Emotive dissonance	.222	3.908	.000		
Social support	.219	3.789	.000		
Emotive dissonance x job autonomy	.003	.046	.963		

H 15 b: Job autonomy moderates the relationship between emotive effort and job satisfaction.

An examination of the nature of the interaction effects of job autonomy on the relationship between emotive effort and job satisfaction indicated that emotive effort had a significant positive effect ($\beta=.166$, $p=.004$) on job satisfaction (Table 4.33). Also, job autonomy had a significant positive effect on job satisfaction ($\beta=.234$, $p=.00$), which indicated that the more job autonomy employees receive, the more job satisfaction they experience. However, the interaction between emotive effort and job autonomy did not add to the prediction of job satisfaction ($\beta=.025$, $p=.651$, $\Delta R^2= .000$). Job autonomy did not moderate the relationship between emotive effort and job satisfaction. Therefore, hypothesis 15b was not supported.

Table 4.33 Results of Moderated Regression Analyses of Emotive Effort and Job Autonomy for Job Satisfaction

Variable	Beta	t-value	<i>p</i>	R ²	ΔR^2
Step 1				.040	.040
Emotive effort	.201	3.552	.000		
Step 2				.098	.058
Emotive effort	.168	2.973	.003		
Job autonomy	.230	4.062	.000		
Step 3				.098	.00
Emotive effort	.166	2.905	.004		
Job autonomy	.234	4.076	.000		
Emotive effort x job autonomy	.025	.452	.651		

H 16 a: Job autonomy moderates the relationship between emotive dissonance and emotional exhaustion.

An examination of the nature of the interaction effects of job autonomy on the relationship between emotive dissonance and emotional exhaustion indicated that emotive dissonance had a significant negative effect ($\beta = -.374$, $p = .00$) on emotional exhaustion (Table 4.34). Job autonomy had a significant negative effect on emotional exhaustion ($\beta = -.302$, $p = .00$), which indicated that the more job autonomy employees receive, the less emotional exhaustion they experience. However, the interaction between emotive dissonance and job autonomy did not add to the prediction of emotional exhaustion ($\beta = .018$, $p = .734$, $\Delta R^2 = .000$). Job autonomy did not moderate the relationship between emotive dissonance and emotional exhaustion. Therefore, hypothesis 16a was not supported.

Table 4.34 Results of Moderated Regression Analyses of Emotive Dissonance and Job Autonomy for Emotional Exhaustion

Variable	Beta	t-value	<i>p</i>	R ²	ΔR^2
Step 1				.183	.183
Emotive dissonance	-.428	-8.105	.000		
Step 2				.261	.078
Emotive dissonance	-.349	-6.735	.000		
Job autonomy	-.306	-5.911	.000		
Step 3				.261	.000
Emotive dissonance	-.347	-6.648	.000		
Job autonomy	-.302	-5.712	.000		
Emotive dissonance x job autonomy	.018	.340	.734		

H 16 b: Job autonomy moderates the relationship between emotive effort and emotional exhaustion.

An examination of the nature of the interaction effects of job autonomy on the relationship between emotive effort and emotional exhaustion indicated that emotive effort had a significant negative effect on emotional exhaustion ($\beta = -.250$, $p = .00$) (Table 4.35). Also, job autonomy had a significant negative effect on emotional exhaustion ($\beta = -.322$, $p = .00$), which indicated that the more job autonomy employees receive, the less emotional exhaustion they experience. However, the interaction between emotive effort and job autonomy did not add significantly to the prediction of emotional exhaustion ($\beta = -.061$, $p = .251$, $\Delta R^2 = .004$). Job autonomy did not moderate the relationship between emotive effort and emotional exhaustion. Therefore, hypothesis 16b was not supported.

Table 4.35 Results of Moderated Regression Analyses of Emotive Effort and Job Autonomy for Emotional Exhaustion

Variable	Beta	t-value	<i>p</i>	R ²	ΔR^2
Step 1				.108	.108
Emotive effort	-.329	-5.996	.000		
Step 2				.204	.096
Emotive effort	-.234	-4.541	.000		
Job autonomy	-.332	-6.211	.000		
Step 3				.208	.004
Emotive effort	-.250	-4.642	.000		
Job autonomy	-.322	-5.950	.000		
Emotive effort x job autonomy	-.061	-1.150	.251		

4-10 SUMMARY

This chapter presented the results of the statistical analysis of the hypotheses. Confirmatory factor analysis was performed to test the fit of the measurement model for each construct. Reliability and validity for each construct were examined. The structural model was examined to specify the relationships among constructs. Table 4.36 presents a summary of the hypothesis testing. The analysis supported six hypotheses. Detailed discussions of the hypothesis testing were included in this chapter.

Table 4.36 Summary of Hypotheses Testing

Hypotheses	Results
H 1: A high PA employee will experience less emotive dissonance than a low PA employee.	Supported
H 2: A high PA employee will exert less emotive effort than a low PA employee.	Supported
H 3: A high NA employee will experience more emotive dissonance than a low NA employee.	Supported
H 4: A high NA employee will exert more emotive effort than a low NA employee.	Supported
H 5: The more emotional contagion employees experience, the less emotive dissonance they will experience.	Rejected
H 6: The more emotional contagion employees experience, the more emotive effort they will exert.	Supported
H 7: The more empathic concern employees experience, the less emotive dissonance they will experience.	Rejected
H 8: The more empathic concern employees experience, the more emotive effort they will exert.	Rejected
H 9: Increased emotive dissonance will lead to decreased job satisfaction.	Rejected
H 10: Increased emotive effort will lead to increased job satisfaction.	Rejected
H 11: Increased emotive dissonance will lead to increased emotional exhaustion.	Rejected
H 12: Increased emotive effort will lead to decreased emotional exhaustion.	Supported

Hypotheses	Results
H 13 a: Social support moderates the relationship between emotive dissonance and job satisfaction.	Rejected
H 13 b: Social support moderates the relationship between emotive effort and job satisfaction.	Rejected
H 14 a: Social support moderates the relationship between emotive dissonance and emotional exhaustion.	Rejected
H 14 b: Social support moderates the relationship between emotive effort and emotional exhaustion.	Rejected
H 15 a: Job autonomy moderates the relationship between emotive dissonance and job satisfaction.	Rejected
H 15 b: Job autonomy moderates the relationship between emotive effort and job satisfaction.	Rejected
H 16 a: Job autonomy moderates the relationship between emotive dissonance and emotional exhaustion.	Rejected
H 16 b: Job autonomy moderates the relationship between emotive effort and emotional exhaustion.	Rejected

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5-1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study was to propose a model identifying the antecedents and consequences of emotional labor. Specifically, this study investigated the following questions: (1) Do individual differences affect the way employees perform emotional labor, (2) Do different ways of enacting emotional labor lead to different consequences, and (3) Will organizational characteristics or job characteristics have buffering effects on the perceived negative consequences of emotional labor. This chapter presents a discussion of the findings, and the implications derived from the findings. Research limitations and future research suggestions are also discussed in this chapter.

5-2 DISCUSSION OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

The research findings of this study are presented and discussed in the following order: emotional labor, its consequences, antecedents, and moderators.

(1) Emotional Labor

This study confirmed a two-dimensional structure of emotional labor as Kruml and Geddes (2000a) proposed. These two dimensions are emotive dissonance and emotive effort. While emotive effort taps the concept of a deep acting technique, emotive dissonance captures the concepts of surface acting and genuine acting as two opposite ends of one continuum. This study further developed an emotional labor scale to assess the emotional labor that hospitality employees perform. This scale was termed the Hospitality Emotional Labor Scale. It is a 19-item scale with eleven items measuring emotive dissonance, and eight items measuring emotive effort. Empirical testing evidenced a good internal consistency for both the emotive dissonance dimension and the emotive effort dimension.

(2) Consequences of Emotional Labor

The consequences of emotional labor examined in this study were emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction. These two outcomes associate differently with emotive dissonance and emotive effort. The following section presents the discussions of the outcomes of these two emotional labor dimensions.

Work Outcomes of Emotive Effort

In terms of emotive effort, this study found that emotive effort (deep acting) associates positively with job satisfaction and negatively with emotional exhaustion. In other words, emotive effort (deep acting) leads to positive outcomes (low emotional exhaustion and high job satisfaction). These results confirmed the original hypotheses. When line employees successfully perform deep acting emotional labor, they feel less phony or alien. They are rewarded and satisfied by how personal their service was (Hochschild, 1983), and therefore, they experience more positive work outcomes.

Work Outcomes of Emotive Dissonance

In terms of emotive dissonance, opposite to the proposed hypotheses, this study found that emotive dissonance associates positively with emotional exhaustion and negatively with job satisfaction. In other words, when employees feel more emotive dissonance, which is the outcome of surface acting, they feel less emotionally exhausted and more satisfied with their jobs. On the other hand, when employees experience less emotive dissonance, which is the outcome of genuine acting, they feel more emotionally worn-out and are less happy with their jobs. Taken together, surface acting protects an individual from getting burnout, and genuine acting makes an individual more vulnerable to service encounters. The findings were contradictory to the hypotheses as well as to previous empirical studies (i.e., Morris & Feldman, 1997; Grandey, 1999; Kruml & Geddes, 2000b), but lend support to some qualitative studies (i.e., Paules, 1991; Hochschild, 1993; Leidner, 1993). Why does low emotive dissonance (genuine acting) lead to negative work outcomes? Why does high emotive dissonance (surface acting) lead to positive work outcomes?

Genuine acting is a product of fusing the private self and the public self (work role). To successfully enact emotional labor genuinely, employees need to invest their

true selves in their jobs. Under this circumstance, it is difficult to maintain a safe distance between the private self and the public self. The fusion of the “real” and “acted” self will then be tested by a crucial event. When employees have good interactions with customers, this genuine acting would lead to positive outcomes. However, when things go wrong (as often happens), employees are more often hurt, angered, or distressed. Conversely, surface acting allows employees to cognitively distance themselves from unpleasant service episodes, and therefore, maintain their emotional equilibrium (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993).

Based on her observations of flight attendants, Hochschild (1983) found that recently hired service employees tend to genuinely enact emotional labor to meet customers’ expectations and the organizations’ expectations. However, as time goes by, the intensive public contact or the accumulation of unpleasant experiences with customers have forced them to invest less and less of their true selves with their jobs to salvage a sense of self-esteem (Hochschild, 1983). They learned to use surface acting as “self-protection.” With this protection, service employees feel less emotionally exhausted and more satisfied with their jobs.

Although the results of hypothesis testing on the consequences of emotive dissonance did not confirm the proposed hypotheses and previous research (i.e., Morris & Feldman, 1997; Grandey, 1999; Kruml & Geddes, 2000b), they are congruent with previous qualitative studies (i.e., Paules, 1991; Hochschild, 1983; Leidner, 1993). Although employers and customers prefer that employees demonstrate genuine emotional expression while providing service, employees’ sincerity ultimately increases their risk of burnout (Wharton, 1999).

(3) Antecedents of Emotional Labor

The antecedents of emotional labor focus on individual characteristics. In this study, two individual characteristics were proposed to be influencing how one enacts emotional labor: affectivity and empathy. These two individual characteristics were examined in terms of positive affectivity, negative affectivity, emotional contagion, and empathic concern.

Positive Affectivity

This study found that, as predicted, employees who experience more positive emotions (i.e., cheerfulness, excitement) experience less emotive dissonance than employees who experience less positive emotions. High positive affectivity employees experience less emotive dissonance because there is a good fit between their personalities and job characteristics. This low emotive dissonance is an outcome of a good fit. This result corresponds to what Rafaeli and Sutton (1987) suggested that, if there is a good fit between individual characteristics and job characteristics, employees would experience more emotional harmony than emotional dissonance.

Another finding associated with positive affectivity (PA) was that high PA employees tend to exert less emotive effort (deep acting) to enact positive emotional labor. As high PA employees often experience positive moods, they do not need to put a great deal of effort into expressing a positive emotion, compared to another individual who rarely experiences a positive mood. In other words, high positive affectivity employees do not need to use “deep acting” to have a positive emotional expression. They can enact genuine hospitality naturally and easily. As a result, they are very popular in the hospitality industry.

Thus far, this study’s findings about high positive affectivity employees confirmed what the literature suggested, and corresponded with the traditional notion. However, a closer examination of the consequences of emotional labor on high positive affectivity employees found that high positive affectivity employees suffer higher emotional exhaustion and lower job satisfaction. As discussed earlier, high positive affectivity employees experience low emotive dissonance, and low emotive dissonance leads to negative consequences. High positive affectivity employees exert less emotive effort, and less emotive effort also leads to negative consequences. Therefore, taken together, high positive affectivity employees experience more negative work outcomes, including high emotional exhaustion and low job satisfaction.

Researchers have suggested that when there is a good fit between one’s personality and job characteristics, one would experience more positive work outcomes (Spokane, 1985; Assouline & Meir, 1987). However, this study’s findings on positive affect did not support the person-job fit theory. One possible reason for this

contradictory finding was the presence of emotional labor. As most of the industry/organizational psychology theories were developed in the realm of manufacturing or other areas which require mainly employees' intellectual labor or physical labor, such theories may encounter unexpected results when applied to the service industry which requires more intensive emotional labor than other types of labor. The contradictory findings of this study contribute further evidence that emotional labor is a unique concept and a phenomenon that needed to be explored further.

Negative Affectivity

This study did not find a strong relationship between negative affectivity and emotive dissonance. High negative affectivity employees were found to exert more effort to enact emotional labor than low negative affectivity employees. In other words, high negative affectivity employees tend to use deep acting to call up desired positive emotions. The more emotive effort they put into their jobs, the more positive outcomes occur, such as high job satisfaction and low emotional exhaustion. In this case, emotive effort is a mediator that mediates the relationship between negative affectivity and emotional exhaustion or job satisfaction.

However, if this mediator of emotive effort was removed, it was found that high negative affectivity employees experience more emotional exhaustion. This means that when asked to express positive emotions for commercial purposes, high negative affectivity employees would feel exhausted because they need to express an emotion that they do not often experience. But if they could learn how to deep-act positive emotions, they would experience more positive work outcomes.

In conclusion, emotive effort is an important mediator that would significantly determine what kind of consequences high negative affectivity employees experience. Due to a poor fit between personality and job characteristics, high negative affectivity employees are exhausted by their jobs because they need to show a positive emotion all the time. This can be seen as a result of emotive dissonance, although this study did not find a significant relationship between negative affectivity and emotive dissonance. But, if employees try harder to perform emotional labor using a deep acting technique, surprisingly, they feel less exhausted and more happy with their jobs.

Emotional Contagion

Similarly to negative affectivity, this study found that emotional contagion associates with emotive effort and emotional exhaustion, but not with emotive dissonance. In terms of emotional exhaustion, there is a positive relationship between emotional contagion and emotional exhaustion. In general, high emotional contagion employees are very sensitive and can be easily triggered by another's emotions. This ability to "feel for" another is assumed to be an asset in performing emotional labor because it makes the target person (customer) feel relaxed and at ease (Verbeke, 1997). But, sometimes, this ability sometimes becomes a liability. As people who experience emotional contagion are more susceptible to emotional exhaustion, their interaction with customers becomes important in determining how they feel about their jobs. If there is a good interaction between high emotional contagion employees and customers, employees may feel more positive about their jobs. But, if something goes wrong during the course of service, high emotional contagion employees would get hurt easily, and become frustrated and exhausted very soon.

Emotional contagion was found to associate with emotive effort. Similarly to negative affectivity, emotive effort is an important mediator between emotional contagion and emotional labor work outcomes. If high emotional contagion employees use a deep acting technique to enact emotional labor, they will experience less emotional exhaustion and more job satisfaction. Deep acting works as a protecting zone, which creates a safe distance between an employee's true self and work role (Hochschild, 1983). By exercising a deep acting technique, high emotional contagion employees could learn how to personalize or depersonalize a service encounter at will. Therefore, emotive effort is an important mediator that can determine what consequences high emotional contagion employees will experience. Without the presence of emotive effort, high emotional contagion employees are exhausted by a highly emotionally charged job environment. The presence of emotive effort would change the negative consequences to positive consequences for high emotional contagion employees.

Empathic Concern

Another subconstruct of empathy—empathic concern—was found to associate with neither emotive effort nor emotive dissonance. The degree of employees' concern for customers' welfare can't be a valid predictor of how employees enact emotional labor. This result could be due to a lack of a true relationship between empathic concern and emotional labor, or due to measurement error. As mentioned in Chapter Four, the reliability of the empathic concern scale used in this study was found to be not strong enough to be considered reliable. This low reliability may bias or weaken the relationship between empathic concern and emotive dissonance or emotive effort.

(4) Moderators of Emotional Labor

This study proposed that social support and job autonomy would moderate the relationship between emotional labor and its consequences. However, the empirical testing of this study did not find these buffering effects. None of the four moderating effect hypotheses were supported. The results of the moderated multiple regression (MMR) showed that both social support and job autonomy significantly determine the level of emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction that employees experience. However, the interaction terms did not moderate the relationship between emotional labor and its consequences. This finding did not support previous research (Erickson, 1991; Abraham, 1998). The results of the MMR suggested that social support and job autonomy should be considered as mediators instead of moderators. Or, they may serve as antecedents of emotional labor and indirectly affect the consequences of emotional labor.

(5) A Further Discussion of Genuine Acting, Surface Acting, and Deep Acting

This study found that genuine acting leads to negative consequences, and surface acting and deep acting lead to positive consequences. However, from a service quality perspective, genuine acting provides a more personalized service, followed by deep acting. In genuine acting, employees' feelings were genuine and spontaneous. In deep acting, employees' feelings seemed genuine and spontaneous, but in fact, were covertly managed by their institution. Customers would all be satisfied by these two types of acting, even though the two types lead to opposite work outcomes.

Similarly to deep acting, surface acting leads to positive work outcomes for employees. But, from the customers' perspective, surface acting cannot satisfy what

customers demand in terms of genuine hospitality. Considering both employee work outcomes and service quality, deep acting is one acting technique that is worth companies' attention. Deep acting makes both customers and employees happy. Hospitality companies should develop a series of deep acting training modules to develop their employees' ability to call up the desired positive moods. Once employees master the skills of deep acting, not only will customers be satisfied with their service, employees also will be rewarded and satisfied with their performance (Hochschild, 1983), and therefore, will experience more positive work outcomes.

In sum, the section above briefly presents and discusses the findings of this study. With respect to the research questions, this study found that, first, individual differences do not significantly affect the way employees perform emotional labor. Individuals' affective style or empathic level do not significantly associate with the type of acting one adopts to perform emotional labor. Second, different acting techniques lead to different work outcomes. Specifically, genuine acting leads to negative work outcomes. Deep acting and surface acting lead to positive work outcomes. Lastly, organizational characteristic or job characteristics do not have buffering effects on the perceived negative consequences of emotional labor.

5-3 IMPLICATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

This study examined the antecedents and consequences of emotional labor. The results of this study provide practical implications for the hospitality industry. This section of the chapter provides some management implications. The discussions are in the areas of employee selection, training, team solidarity, and compensation.

Selection

This study found that individual differences do not significantly predict what types of acting employees will use to enact emotional labor. Emotive dissonance associated moderately with positive affectivity, and weakly with negative affectivity, emotional contagion, and empathic concern. In addition, all individual characteristics, except empathic concern, associated positively with emotive effort (deep acting). Therefore, it is difficult to determine what type of person will use what acting techniques to enact emotional labor.

One interesting finding regarding individual differences was positive affectivity. This study found that high positive affectivity employees could perform emotional labor in a genuine and natural way. However, this genuine enactment also makes them vulnerable to the negative consequences of emotional labor. In this case, the hospitality industry faces a dilemma. On the one hand, high positive affectivity people are ideal job candidates that companies want to hire. On the other hand, high positive affectivity people become exhausted faster than other types of people. When companies want to hire high positive affect people for their ability to provide excellent service, companies also take the risk of losing them quickly because they are exhausted very soon. Clearly, there is a trade-off between high service quality and a high employee turnover rate.

This study found that, for jobs that require high levels of emotional labor, training plays a more important role than selection. As more and more workers of all kinds find themselves with few opportunities other than service employment, organizations should shift their attention to create the conditions for satisfying work. Providing training programs to develop necessary skills to perform emotional labor may require more concerted efforts by organizations than reliance upon selection. If companies could provide appropriate training that would help employees learn to deep-act emotional labor, employees could learn how to provide sincere hospitality. They would also gain a sense of satisfaction from their ability to act out emotional labor.

Training for Employees

According to both social norms and occupational norms, service providers need to be courteous to customers. However, customers have no obligation to return empathy or even courtesy. In some situations where customers exercise the privilege of “customers are always right,” service providers face real challenges suppressing their true feelings. It is critical for both employees and organizations to learn how to deal with such situations.

In the hospitality industry, the focal point for most of the training programs is on the customer’s feelings—how to make them feel comfortable and welcomed. These types of training are given intensively to recently hired employees. An important component of orientation programs is to convey appropriate attitudes and display rules to the new employees. Very few training programs are designed to discuss how service

employees feel. However, as employees accumulate different experiences on the job, it is equally important to discuss line employees' feelings.

Openly discussing the frustration on their jobs is a cure to heal employees' wounds when they are hurt or insulted by customers. This type of training has several effects. First, it delivers a message to employees that the company is aware of and acknowledges the emotional contribution that employees put into jobs. This positive feedback can motivate employees to increase their productivity and be more committed to their jobs and organizations. Second, it provides an opportunity to ventilate employees' negative emotions caused by their jobs. Third, by implementing this type of training, companies can develop in their line employees the ability to suppress anger or avoid frustration. Hochschild (1983) recorded the discussion of a trainer in such a training program. This trainer said: "If a passenger snaps at you and you didn't do anything wrong, just remember it's not you he is snapping at. It's your uniform, it's your role as a Delta flight attendant. Don't take it personally" (p.110).

With this type of training, focusing on line employees' feelings, both line employees and managers can talk over the negative emotions and trade tips about the least offensive ways of expressing them. If companies do not provide formal or informal ways to ventilate employees' anger and frustration, sooner or later, line employees will express anger to their customers.

Another focus of employee training is on the deep acting technique. One of the significant findings of this study is that deep acting is a critical factor in determining the consequences of emotional labor that service employees experience. Considering the positive effects that deep acting can bring forth to organizations (i.e., increased customer satisfaction and employee job satisfaction), it is worthwhile for companies to invest in this type of training to teach employees how to "feel" in certain ways that help them reach organizational goals.

Deep acting can be achieved through changing focus and reappraisal of the situation. Changing focus is one way employees can learn to evoke certain feelings. It can be done by actively thinking about events, which call up the desired emotions. This is also known as method acting. For example, employees can think about a funny movie

to evoke cheerful emotions. By learning how to direct one's attention, employees can practice skills to prompt or suppress certain emotions at will.

Another deep acting technique is to cognitively reappraise the unpleasant situation so that the emotional impact is lessened (Grandey, 1999). Researchers have found that the ability to reappraise the situation is an effective way to cope with stress (Folkman & Lazarus, 1991). Employees can learn how to use an "as if" supposition to reevaluate the same incident in a different way. For example, Hochschild (1983) described flight attendants who are trained to think about difficult passengers as hungry children so that they won't get angry with them. By integrating deep acting into employee training programs, the internal processes of emotional management are carefully regulated and external emotional expressions seem to be more genuine and spontaneous.

Training for Managers

Line employees are not the only people performing emotional labor. Managers do a great deal of emotional labor as well. Two major tasks of a manager's job are to deal with customers and to deal with employees. Dealing with customers takes emotional labor. Dealing with employees requires even more emotional labor. Managers' role is similar to that of the director of a show. They monitor, control, and direct the emotional labor their cast members perform for customers. Hochschild (1983) commented on supervisors' role in monitoring emotional labor. She said: "What is offstage for the line employees is on-stage for the supervisor" (p. 118). It is the managers' responsibility to ensure that their cast members are in the best condition to perform.

As a result, an organization needs to train their managers or supervisors how to perform emotional labor when interacting with their employees. Training modules, such as "how to provide emotional support," "how to handle employee complaints," "how to provide feedback," and "constructive opinions," should be integrated into formal management training programs.

Team Solidarity

Quality service is accomplished by more than one individual. It takes the cooperation and coordination of a team. Building a sense of teamwork helps not only in the service delivery process; it also nurtures a positive mood among team players. However, this team solidarity has two effects. On the one hand, it can improve morale

and thus improve service. On the other hand, it can also become the basis for sharing grudges against customers or the company (Hochschild, 1983). In the latter situation, if a frustrated employee goes to blow off steam with another line employee, instead of calming the frustrated one down, the second employee may become an accomplice to the aggrieved worker. Support for anger or a sense of grievance—regardless of what inspires it—can hurt service as well as the company (Hochschild, 1983).

As a result, when building team solidarity, managers need to be aware of the possible negative effects of team solidarity. Supervisors and managers need to educate employees on how to help each other when someone is having a bad day on the job. A pat on the back, a warm eye contact, or bantering back and forth all help to release frustration on the job. Knowing how other employees may feel and learning how to provide emotional support can foster team solidarity in a positive way and further assure positive emotional management.

Compensation

Although emotional labor is crucial in determining customers' satisfaction and significantly affects the bottom line, employees' emotional contribution has not been acknowledged. While the industry pays well for mental and physical labor, most of the emotional labor performers in the hospitality industry receive minimum wages. However, their emotional contribution cannot be denied. If the industry expects its employees to perform quality emotional labor, it needs to compensate them accordingly. In one interview with a hotel employee regarding the issue of compensation, this employee simply made a point: "Minimum wage desires minimum effort." Similarly, a General Manager at a five-star hotel also commented that the compensation structure in the hospitality industry is truly "you get what you pay for." Pay structure needs to be re-designed to attract more quality candidates. When service employees successfully deep act to provide quality service, they need to be not only recognized, but also rewarded.

5-4 LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

As with all empirical research, this study has its limitations. The limitations revolve primarily around sampling issues. First, the samples were from various hotels with different emphases on service quality. More than half of the samples were from two-star hotels. Samples from three-star and four-star hotels account for another fifty percent. As hotels with different ratings have a different emphasis on service quality and emotional labor, these different demands will affect employees' perceptions of emotional labor consequences. For example, an employee who works at a hotel with very detailed display rules may perceive the consequences of emotional labor differently from another employee who works at a hotel that does not have display rules at all. Having more samples from two-star hotels may change the results of this study, as two-star hotel employees perform less emotional labor, compared to five-star hotel employees. This sampling limitation may also contribute to half of the hypotheses not being supported in this study.

Another limitation associated with the sampling issue is that some samples were from employees who were asked by general managers to fill out the questionnaires. This convenient sampling method makes it very difficult to maintain completely anonymity, and therefore, may bias the study results. Finally, as this study is an exploratory type of research and the data analysis results were very data driven, the results need to be further examined by future researchers.

For future research, this study suggests that researchers interested in studying emotional labor apply the Hospitality Emotional Labor Scale in other service industries. Although the Hospitality Emotional Labor Scale has been tested several times on different samples in this study and received good reliability and validity, this scale still needs to be replicated in different contexts to ensure its consistency.

As this study did not find support for the moderating effects of social support and job autonomy on emotional labor, future researchers should examine how social support and job autonomy associate with emotional labor and its consequences.

Hochschild (1983) suggested that there are situational and individual factors that influence the way that individuals perform emotional labor. This study did not find a significant direct relationship among individual characteristics and emotional labor.

Therefore, future researchers should revise the emotional labor model proposed in this study by including some situational factors (i.e., types of emotions or employee-customer interactions) as antecedents of emotional labor. Future research should extend these preliminary efforts to map out the constructs that determine the types of emotional labor found in different kinds of service jobs.

5-5 CONCLUSION

Hospitality employees are paid to be nice. The ability to be consistently nice to strangers requires incredible effort. When such effort succeeds, it is a remarkable accomplishment. Emotional labor should be taken seriously, since it affects customer satisfaction, customer loyalty, and eventually, organizational financial performance. Emotional labor deserves hospitality researchers' attention. People performing emotional labor deserve the public's respect.

It is hoped that this study will provide a better understanding of how employees perform emotional labor, how this labor affects employees' work outcomes, and how this labor should be measured scientifically. Results of this study reveal that the consequences of emotional labor can be either positive or negative, depending on how it is performed. Beyond this, it was hoped that this study could make the hospitality industry aware of their employees' emotional contribution to the organization's performance.

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APPENDIX I Hypothesis summary and hypothesis testing.

Hypotheses	Testing Method	Hypothesis will be supported when
H1: A high PA employee will experience less emotive dissonance than a low PA employee.	SEM	Path coefficient is negative and significant.
H2: A high PA employee will exert less emotive effort than a low PA employee.	SEM	Path coefficient is negative and significant.
H3: A high NA employee will experience more emotive dissonance than a low NA employee.	SEM	Path coefficient is positive and significant.
H4: A high NA employee will exert more emotive effort than a low NA employee.	SEM	Path coefficient is positive and significant.
H5: The more emotional contagion employees experience, the less emotive dissonance they will experience.	SEM	Path coefficient is positive and significant.
H6: The more emotional contagion employees experience, the more emotive effort they will exert.	SEM	Path coefficient is negative and significant.
H7: The more empathic concern employees experience, the less emotive dissonance they will experience.	SEM	Path coefficient is positive and significant.
H8: The more empathic concern employees experience, the more emotive effort they will exert.	SEM	Path coefficient is negative and significant.
H9: Increased emotive dissonance will lead to decreased job satisfaction.	SEM	Path coefficient is negative and significant.
H10: Increased emotive effort will lead to increased job satisfaction.	SEM	Path coefficient is positive and significant.
H11: Increased emotive dissonance will lead to increased emotional exhaustion.	SEM	Path coefficient is positive and significant.
H12: Increased emotive effort will lead to decreased emotional exhaustion.	SEM	Path coefficient is negative and significant.

Hypotheses	Testing Method	Hypothesis will be supported when
H13a: Social support moderates the relationship between emotive dissonance and job satisfaction.	MMR	Interaction effect (emotive dissonance & social support) explains a significant proportion of the variance in job satisfaction beyond that explained by the main effects.
H13b: Social support moderates the relationship between emotive effort and job satisfaction.	MMR	Interaction effect (emotive effort & social support) explains a significant proportion of the variance in job satisfaction beyond that explained by the main effects.
H14a: Social support moderates the relationship between emotive dissonance and emotional exhaustion.	MMR	Interaction effect (emotive dissonance & social support) explains a significant proportion of the variance in emotional exhaustion beyond that explained by the main effects.
H14b: Social support moderates the relationship between emotive effort and emotional exhaustion.	MMR	Interaction effect (emotive effort & social support) explains a significant proportion of the variance in emotional exhaustion beyond that explained by the main effects.
H15a: Job autonomy moderates the relationship between emotive dissonance and job satisfaction.	MMR	Interaction effect (emotive dissonance & job autonomy) explains a significant proportion of the variance in job satisfaction beyond that explained by the main effects.
H15b: Job autonomy moderates the relationship between emotive effort and job satisfaction.	MMR	Interaction effect (emotive effort & job autonomy) explains a significant proportion of the variance in job satisfaction beyond that explained by the main effects.
H16a: Job autonomy moderates the relationship between emotive dissonance and emotional exhaustion.	MMR	Interaction effect (emotive dissonance & job autonomy) explains a significant proportion of the variance in emotional exhaustion beyond that explained by the main effects.
H16b: Job autonomy moderates the relationship between emotive effort and emotional exhaustion.	MMR	Interaction effect (emotive effort & job autonomy) explains a significant proportion of the variance in emotional exhaustion beyond that explained by the main effects.

APPENDIX II Pretest Questionnaire

SECTION I

The following statements describe the way a service-provider might interact with customers. Please indicate how often you engage in each of the following activities by circling the number on the scale where 1 is rarely, and 7 is always.

	Rarely						Always
1. I actually feel the emotions that I need to show to do my job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I look forward to interactions with customers at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I put on a mask in order to express the right emotions for my job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I work at calling up the feelings I need to show to customers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. The emotions I show to customers match what I truly feel.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I have to cover up my true feelings when dealing with customers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I display emotions that I am not actually feeling	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I display sincere hospitality when interacting with customers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. When getting ready for work, I tell myself that I am going to have a good day....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. I fake the emotions I show when dealing with customers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. I try to actually experience the emotions that I must show when interacting with customer.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. I have to concentrate more on my behavior when I display an emotion that I don't actually feel.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. My smile is sincere.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. I try to talk myself out of feeling what I really feel when helping customers.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. I show the same feelings to customers that I feel inside.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. I think of pleasant things when I am getting ready for work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. My interactions with customers are very robotic.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. I put on an act in order to deal with customers in an appropriate way	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. I behave in a way that differs from how I really feel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. I fake a good mood when interacting with customers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. I try to change my actual feelings to match those that I must express to customers..	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. When working with customers, I attempt to create certain emotions in myself that present the image my company desires.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION II

The following statements relate to your ability to experience the emotions of others. Please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with each statement by circling the number on the scale where 1 is strongly disagree, and 7 is strongly agree.

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
1. I often find that I can remain cool in spite of the excitement around me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I am able to remain calm even though those around me worry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I tend to lose control when I am bringing bad news to people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I cannot continue to feel OK if people around me are depressed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I don't get upset just because a friend is acting upset.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I become nervous if others around me seem to be nervous.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. The people around me have great influence on my moods.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I often have tender, concerned feelings for people less fortunate than myself ...	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Sometimes I don't feel very sorry for other people when they are having problems	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. When I see someone being taken advantage of, I feel kind of protective toward them	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Other people's misfortunes do not usually disturb me a great deal	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. When I see someone being treated unfairly, I sometimes don't feel very much pity for them.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. I am often quite touched by things that I see happen.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. I would describe myself as a pretty soft-hearted person.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION III

The following statements describe the support you receive from your supervisor and co-workers and the amount of control you have over your work. Please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with each statement by circling the number on the scale where 1 is strongly disagree, and 7 is strongly agree.

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
1. My supervisor goes out of his or her way to make my life easier for me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. It is easy to talk with my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. My supervisor can be relied on when things get tough at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. My supervisor is willing to listen to my personal problems	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. My coworkers go out of their way to make life easier for me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. It is easy to talk with my coworkers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. My coworkers can be relied on when things get tough at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. My coworkers are willing to listen to my personal problems	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. When I interact with customers, I have the freedom and independence to speak and act in ways I think fit the situation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. I have a lot of freedom to decide how I should deal with customers.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. My job denies me much chance to use my personal initiative or judgment when interacting with customers.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION IV

People experience a number of different emotions in their life. How often would you characterize yourself as experiencing each of the following. For example, if you **always** feel happy about things in your life, you would circle 7.

	Rarely						Always
1. Attentive.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Ashamed.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Active	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Alert	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Afraid	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Distressed.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Determined	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Enthusiastic.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Excited.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Guilty.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Hostile	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Interested.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Inspired.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Irritable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Jittery	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Nervous.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Proud.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Strong	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Scared	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Upset.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION V

The following statements describe your stress and job satisfaction level at work. Please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with each statement by circling the number on the scale where 1 is strongly disagree, and 7 is strongly agree.

	Strongly Disagree							Strongly Agree
1. I feel emotionally drained from my work.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
2. I feel frustrated by my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
3. Working with people all day is really a strain for me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
4. I feel burned out from my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5. I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
6. I feel I'm working too hard on my job.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7. Working with people directly puts too much stress on me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
8. People on this job often think of quitting.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
9. I am satisfied with the kind of work I do in this job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
10. I frequently think of quitting this job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
11. Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with this job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
12. Most people on this job are very satisfied with their job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

SECTION VI

Please tell us a little about yourself and what you do at your job. All information will be held in strict confidence.

Your current position: _____ For how long? Years _____ Months _____

How many positions have you held at this hotel? _____

How long have you been at this hotel? Years _____ Months _____

During your career, how long have you worked, in total,
in **ALL hospitality customer-contact positions**? Years _____ Months _____

Year of birth: _____

Your gender: Male Female

Your race/ethnicity:

- | | |
|---|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Asian (Those of Primarily Asian Descent) | <input type="checkbox"/> Native American |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Black (Those of Primarily African Descent) | <input type="checkbox"/> White (Those of Primarily European Descent) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Hispanic/Latino (Those of Primarily Descent) | <input type="checkbox"/> Other (Please specify _____) |

Thank you, and have a great day!

APPENDIX III Final Questionnaire

SECTION I

The following statements describe the way a service-provider might interact with customers. Please indicate how often you engage in each of the following activities by circling the number on the scale where 1 is rarely, and 7 is always.

	Rarely						Always
1. I actually feel the emotions that I need to show to do my job.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I put on a mask in order to express the right emotions for my job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I work at calling up the feelings I need to show to customers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. The emotions I show to customers match what I truly feel.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I have to cover up my true feelings when dealing with customers.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I display emotions that I am not actually feeling	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. When getting ready for work, I tell myself that I am going to have a good day...	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I fake the emotions I show when dealing with customers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I try to actually experience the emotions that I must show when interacting with customers.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. I have to concentrate more on my behavior when I display an emotion that I don't actually feel	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. I try to talk myself out of feeling what I really feel when helping customers.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. I show the same feelings to customers that I feel inside.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. I think of pleasant things when I am getting ready for work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. My interactions with customers are very robotic.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. I put on an act in order to deal with customers in an appropriate way	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. I behave in a way that differs from how I really feel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. I fake a good mood when interacting with customers.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. I try to change my actual feelings to match those that I must express to customers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. When working with customers, I attempt to create certain emotions in myself that present the image my company desires.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION II

The following statements relate to your ability to experience the emotions of others. Please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with each statement by circling the number on the scale where 1 is strongly disagree, and 7 is strongly agree.

	Strongly Disagree							Strongly Agree
1. I am able to remain calm even though those around me worry.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
2. I tend to lose control when I am bringing bad news to people.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
3. I cannot continue to feel OK if people around me are depressed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
4. I become nervous if others around me seem to be nervous.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5. The people around me have great influence on my moods.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
6. I often have tender, concerned feelings for people less fortunate than myself.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7. When I see someone being taken advantage of, I feel kind of protective toward them.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
8. When I see someone being treated unfairly, I sometimes don't feel very much pity for them.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
9. I am often quite touched by things that I see happen.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
10. I would describe myself as a pretty soft-hearted person.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

SECTION III

The following statements describe the support you receive from your supervisor and co-workers and the amount of control you have over your work. Please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with each statement by circling the number on the scale where 1 is strongly disagree, and 7 is strongly agree.

	Strongly Disagree							Strongly Agree
1. My supervisor goes out of his or her way to make my life easier for me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
2. It is easy to talk with my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
3. My supervisor can be relied on when things get tough at work.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
4. My supervisor is willing to listen to my personal problems	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5. When I interact with customers, I have the freedom and independence to speak and act in ways I think fit the situation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
6. I have a lot of freedom to decide how I should deal with customers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7. My job denies me much chance to use my personal initiative or judgment when interacting with customers.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

SECTION IV

People experience a number of different emotions in their life. How often would you characterize yourself as experiencing each of the following. For example, if you **always** feel happy about things in your life, you would circle 7.

	Rarely				Always		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Attentive.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Ashamed.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Active.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Alert.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Afraid.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Distressed.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Determined.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Enthusiastic.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Excited.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Guilty.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Hostile.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Interested.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Inspired.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Irritable.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Jittery.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Nervous.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Proud.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Strong.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Scared.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Upset.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION V

The following statements describe your stress and job satisfaction level at work. Please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with each statement by circling the number on the scale where 1 is strongly disagree, and 7 is strongly agree.

	Strongly Disagree							Strongly Agree
1. I feel emotionally drained from my work.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
2. I feel frustrated by my job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
3. Working with people all day is really a strain for me.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
4. I feel burned out from my work.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5. I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
6. I feel I'm working too hard on my job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7. Working with people directly puts too much stress on me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
8. People on this job often think of quitting.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
9. I am satisfied with the kind of work I do in this job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
10. I frequently think of quitting this job.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
11. Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with this job.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
12. Most people on this job are very satisfied with their job.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

SECTION VI

Please tell us a little about yourself and what you do at your job. All information will be held in strict confidence.

Your current position: _____ For how long? Years _____ Months _____

How many positions have you held at this hotel? _____

How long have you been at this hotel? Years _____ Months _____

During your career, how long have you worked, in total,
in **ALL hospitality customer-contact positions**? Years _____ Months _____

Year of birth: _____

Your gender: Male Female

Your race/ethnicity:

- Asian (Those of Primarily Asian Descent) Native American
- Black (Those of Primarily African Descent) White (Those of Primarily European Descent)
- Hispanic/Latino (Those of Primarily Descent) Other (Please specify _____)

Thank you, and have a great day!

VITA

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EDUCATION

- | | | |
|-------------|-------|--|
| 1998 - 2002 | Ph.D. | Dept. of Hospitality and Tourism Management
Virginia Tech
<i>Major Area:</i> Human Resource Management
<i>Minor Area:</i> Service Management, Research Methodology and Statistics

Dissertation Title:

The Effects of Emotional Labor on Employee Work Outcomes |
| 1994-1996 | MBA | Dept. of Tourism Management
College of Business
Chinese Culture University, Taipei, Taiwan

Thesis Title:

Work Value Perceptions and Occupational Choice: A Study of Hospitality Students in Taiwan |
| 1986-1991 | AA | Dept. of Dental Technology
Chungtai Junior College, Taichung, Taiwan |

TEACHING EXPERIENCE

Teaching Interests

Human Resource Management, Service Management, Meeting Management, Beverage Management, Lodging Management, and Research Methodology.

Teaching Experience

<u>Institution</u>	<u>Term</u>	<u>Course</u>	<u>Rating</u>
Virginia Tech	Spring, 2001	HTM 4464 Human Resource Management	3.2*
Virginia Tech	Fall, 2000	HTM 4464 Human Resource Management	3.2*

* Scale- 1 (Poor) to 4 (Excellent)

Teaching Assistant Experience

<u>Institution</u>	<u>Term</u>	<u>Course</u>	<u>Instructor</u>
Virginia Tech	Fall, 2001	HTM 4464 Human Resource Management	Dr. Murrmann
Virginia Tech	Fall, 2001	HTM 2474 Meeting and Convention Mgmt	Mr. Feiertag
Virginia Tech	Spring, 2000	HTM 4464 Human Resource Management	Dr. Murrmann
Virginia Tech	Fall, 1999	HTM 3474 Hospitality Facility Planing Mgmt	Mr. Coggins
Virginia Tech	Spring, 1999	HTM 2454 Travel and Tourism Mgmt	Dr. Chen
Chinese Culture U.	Spring, 1997	Research Methodology	Dr. Tse

RESEARCH

Research Interests

Human resource management, cross culture comparison of service quality perceptions, service delivery and recovery, internal service quality control, service marketing, and tourism marketing research.

Journal Publications

Weaver, P., Chu, K. H., and Clemenz, C. (2001). Do Hospitality Programs Provide Restaurant Experiences Commensurate with Local Dining Options? Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Educator, 13 (3/4), 34-40

Chen, J.S., Chu, K. H., and Wu, W. C. (2000). Tourism Students' Perceptions of Work Values: A Case of Taiwanese Universities. International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 12 (6), 360-365.

Conference Proceedings

Chu, K. H. and Murrmann, S. K. (2002). The Effects of Emotional Labor on Employee Work Outcomes, Proceedings of Research and Academic Papers, Graduate Education and Graduate Students Research Conference in Hospitality and Tourism, Volume VII.

Chu, K. H. and Williams, J. (2001). Work Value Structure of Taiwanese Hospitality Students, Proceedings of Research and Academic Papers, The International Hospitality Industry Evolution 2001, Hong Kong.

Chu, K. H., Weaver, P., and Clemenz, C. (2001). A Survey of Overall Dining Perceptions at the Old Guard Restaurant: Do Hospitality Programs Provide Restaurant Experiences Commensurate with Local Dining Options? Fourth Annual Graduate Student Research Day, College of Human Resources and Education, Virginia Tech.

Chu, K. H. and Chen, J. S. (1999). The Measurement of hospitality tourism Students' Perception of Work Value, Proceedings of Research and Academic Papers, Graduate Education and Graduate Students Research Conference in Hospitality and Tourism, Volume IV, 48-53.

Chen, J.S., Tjelfaat, S., and Chu, K. H. (1999). An Investigation of Norwegians' Preferences to U.S. Lodging Facilities. Proceedings of Research and Academic Papers, Graduate Education and Graduate Students Research Conference in Hospitality and Tourism, Volume IV, 458-465.

Research in Progress

Chu, K. H. and Murrmann, S. Measuring Taiwanese Hospitality students perceptions of Work Values: Factorial Validity and Invariance of the Work Value Instrument. Targeted at the International Journal of Hospitality Management.

Chu, K. H. and Murrmann, S. Work Value Changes and Job Satisfaction: A Longitudinal Study. Targeted at the International Journal of Hospitality Management.

Research Assistant Experience

2001 January - date Research Assistant

Assistant to Dr. McCleary for project title:
Hospitality Industry Training Service (HITS) of ASPIR Grant

INDUSTRY EXPERIENCE

1996-1997 Supervisor, Public Relation Dept., Pacific Construction Group, Taipei
In charge of PR events, press conferences for P.C. G.

1992-1994 Bar Supervisor, Grand Hyatt Hotel, Taipei
Responsible for bar revenue, cost control, marketing and promotion

1991-1992 Assistant Chef, Croissant Bakery Co. Taipei

AWARDS AND PROFESSIONAL ACTIVITIES

Awards

1996 Academic Award at College of Business, Chinese Culture University,
Taipei

1993 Best Employee of 1992, Grand Hyatt Hotel, Taipei

Activities and Professional Affiliations

1998-2002 President of Tourism and Travel Research Association (TTRA),
Virginia Tech Chapter

1998-2002 Council on Hotel, Restaurant, and Institutional Education (CHRIE),
Member

1999-2002 Human Resource Organization, Member

REFERENCES

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