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Emotional Labor in Public Service Work

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THE FLORIDA STATE UNIVERSITY
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EMOTIONAL LABOR IN PUBLIC SERVICE WORK

By

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ABSTRACT

A number of scholars are increasingly turning their attention to the effects of emotional labor on organizational performance (Hochschild, 1983). The literature's focus on private industry reports a negative influence on its consequences for individual performance. Recent research in other fields, such as psychology, business, and public administration, however, has shown mixed results, with some reporting a positive impact on both individual and organizational performance. Previous research was limited to examining for-profit service industries where concern for customer satisfaction is a priority. In contrast, public service by its own nature is "regulatory" and workers' incentives are less likely to include pecuniary benefits either for themselves or their organizations. By integrating awareness of emotion work in theory building, this study seeks to present the unique influence of emotional labor in work that ranges from regulating business transactions to controlling personal behavior for both workers and citizens. Additionally, by integrating previous research, the dissertation presents a comprehensive model of the antecedents and consequences of performing emotional labor. This study examines how workers' recognition of the need for emotional labor affects the degree to which they perform it and how it affects their pride in work and burnout. Hierarchical regression and structural equation modeling will be used to test hypotheses.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

“As we move farther and farther away from organizations designed to operate assembly lines, we must devise new structures that capture today’s work and skills requirements....Making emotional labor visible is the first step; making it compensable is the next (Guy, Newman, & Mastracci, 2008, p.11).”

1.1 Overview of Emotional Labor Research

This study explores the antecedents and consequences for government workers who perform emotional work. The presentation proceeds as follows: This chapter introduces the nature of emotional labor in public service work and the research challenges that accompany its investigation. The second chapter reviews the literature in emotional labor and presents the study’s hypotheses and a conceptual model for the constructs being examined. The third chapter presents the research design.

Scholars have begun to appreciate emotions as an important part of organizational life (Arvey, Renz, & Watson, 1998; Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995; Barsade & Gibson, 1998; Brundin, 2002; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). They not only affect individuals on the intrapersonal level in the case of emotional conflicts (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), but they also affect interpersonal relationships that arise either during service interactions between employees and their constituents or in exchanges with their co-workers (Waldron, 2000; Wharton & Erickson, 1993; Frederickson, 1998). Accordingly, whether emotion can bring performance benefits to individuals and organizations is a question of interest (Mumby & Putnam, 1992).

The evidence shows mixed results on the impact of emotional labor for individuals and organizations. For example, presenting an air of indifference or neutrality may negatively influence one’s creativity, but it may well be what the worker needs to do when

serving as a police officer or a prison guard, both of which are positions that require workers to exercise toughness (George & Zhou, 2002; Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001).

As the example of the police officer shows, the functional role of emotional labor may not always be positive (Plutchik, 1980; Frederickson, 1998; Keltner & Haidt, 1999; Keltner & Kring, 1998; Lazarus, 1991; Scherer, 1984), and in fact it may seem troubled and conflicting in organizations (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995; Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1994). Questions arise as to how one can use his or her emotions constructively in the workplace. Workers must have the willingness to exercise emotional discretion, a form of emotion work, on the job (Gross, 1999a). Mastracci et al. (2004) describe emotion work as the application or performance outcome of emotional intelligence. For employers, it is the exercise of emotional labor that is of interest because in relational work, it is the employee's labor that yields the desirable outcome in the public service exchange between citizen and state. The nature of emotion work is voluntary and free will as opposed to emotional labor which is often perceived to be forced by the surrounding environment (see Guy et al., 2008). The main reason why exercising emotion work is problematic is related to the fact that emotional labor differs from task to task, depending on the circumstances.

In organizations, employees are constantly reminded of rules that they must follow in order to perform satisfactorily (e.g., Sutton & Rafaeli, 1988). Also, to maintain a good self-image (e.g., Goffman, 1959) or avoid embarrassment in social interactions (e.g., Cahill & Eggleston, 1994), people must control the way they feel and often times change the nature of their expressions. Scholars agree that effective emotional labor is a prerequisite for one's physical and psychological well being (Bradley, 1990; Greenspan & Porges, 1984; Waldron, 2000), as well as social functioning (Labouvie-Vief, Hakim-Laron, Devoe, & Schoeberlein, 1989). Therefore, effective emotional labor may serve as the boundary condition for emotions to be functional and constructive, that is, to contribute to individual performance in a positive way.

Despite the growing awareness of emotions in the workplace – the notion that the social structure of organizations cannot exist without the feelings of the workers and that only they control their own behavior (Fineman, 1993) -- the concept or field of emotions has only been explored by such fields as sociology, psychology, and anthropology

(Hochschild, 1983; Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995; Putnam & Mumby, 1993). There are several reasons that, although emotions are an essential part of the organization, research neglects their role. First, for the last few decades, the term *emotions* was given the label of a biological sensation or physiological construct. This is not relevant to the study of social collectives (Putnam & Mumby, 1993). Second, emotions are usually considered as women's domain, suggesting that emotions represent weakness (Planalp, 1999). Moreover, emotions are treated as private issues that others should not probe (Tracy and Tracy, 1998). And last, emotions are often regarded as inappropriate, disruptive, illogical, biased and weak, and therefore, they contradict the instrumental goal orientation that motivates organizations (Putnam & Mumby, 1993). Another argument is that emotions embody elements that contradict rationality (James, 1989). If rationality is accepted as more reliable and is to be encouraged in the workplace, emotions are often conceived as that aspect of worker behavior which brings conflict between organizational and personal agendas. Other researchers simply ignore emotions because they believe that emotions, which also forms the basis of emotion work, are subjective, personal, and difficult to define and hence measure (Plutchik, 1989).

Emotion work has traditionally been thought to be something that women do naturally because it was too often dismissed as either nurturing or supportive. With this in mind, emotion work is not delineated in job descriptions, nor is it compensated. It is, instead, treated as a “comes with” for many – if not most – jobs that disproportionately employ women. This view is too narrow as the previous examples of police officers and prison guards attest. They engage in emotion work every day, but at the “toughness” extreme (Guy, Newman, & Mastracci, 2008).

It was only recently that scholars began to attend to the role of emotions in organizations. Scholars have begun to study how people communicate and regulate their emotions in organizations not just in for-profit services but also in public services. The customer service literature emphasizes the importance of the interaction between not only the service providers and customers, but also among the workers themselves. This research argues that a good service experience influences customers' perceptions of business quality.

Employers stress that service providers' behavior influences quality perceptions

among customers, which in turn leads to customers' long-term loyalty (Robinette et al., 2001). In public service, perceptions of service quality rely heavily on views of the citizens, who are the beneficiaries of public services. In order to create a positive service interaction, government workers are expected to display a limited range of emotions. In fact, many employers encourage street-level bureaucrats, the ones who interact daily with citizens, to exhibit positive behavior, such as enthusiasm and cheerfulness, as they believe that these qualities will increase customer satisfaction. For example, flight attendants are expected to be kind, pleasant and warm (Hochschild, 1983), and convenience store clerks are expected to be polite and cheerful (Sutton & Rafaeli, 1988). It is a common belief among employers that displaying organizationally desired emotions will result in customer satisfaction and increased ratings in performance (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1989). They believe that service transaction experiences that a kind and caring service provider provides will leave a good impression about the organization in the eyes of the customer. That belief led employers to create rules for emotional display that would benefit their organizations. The rules control what type of behavior the employees should or should not display. Consequently, employers may monitor and train employees on how to hide their true feelings and publicly display organizationally desired emotions (Hochschild, 1983). Hence, service workers' behavior during interactions with customers is perceived to be the most effective tool to enrich the quality of service; this is even more pivotal in government service work.

Public service jobs require not only intrapersonal strength but also interpersonal skills in either a face-to-face or voice-to-voice contact. For example, those who serve at the driver's license examining station are expected to greet the 100th applicant of the day with the same sincerity as they greeted the first. Those who receive calls for the Social Security Administration are expected to be nicer than nice but often times, it is not as easy as it sounds (Guy, Newman & Mastracci, 2008).

Caseworkers are no exception as they must care about strangers and inspectors who work for planning and zoning departments are required to treat each aggravated homeowner with fairness and courtesy. In the aftermath of a hurricane, FEMA officials must address not only physical disaster but emotionally traumatized citizens. This work is relational in nature and is called *emotional labor*, work which goes beyond cognitive, physical, or

mechanical skills. It is essential for job completion. In fact, those skills are prerequisites for quality public service (Guy, Newman & Mastracci, 2008). It is simply the perceived feelings of preferred display rules for engaging in one's emotions at the workplace.

Ironically, although traditional civil service systems rely on tangible and quantitatively testable skills for the staffing process (Guy, Newman, & Mastracci, 2008), the public workforce has routinely demanded emotion work. Guy and her colleagues argue that although knowledge is pivotal in today's business, both private and public, government's emphasis on tangible, testable skills has overshadowed that side of emotional labor. The reliance on manifest work skills arises from a long tradition of scientific management (Taylor, 1911) and quantitative decision-making (Simon, 1947). However, this singular understanding of work focuses on the technical part of the job but fails to account for the centrality of emotion work and how it relates to organizational goals. Even the emphasis on democratic values found in Dwight Waldo's (1948) and George Frederickson's (1997) work fail to account for how an effective citizen-state exchange must embrace the whole person rather than only the intellectual component.

Guy, Newman, and Mastracci (2008) define emotional labor as a component of the dynamic relationship between two people: worker and citizen or worker and worker. The term emotional labor shares similarities as well as differences with physical labor – both require skill and experience and are subject to external controls and divisions of labor. Workers differ in their ability to perform emotion work. It is a skill and is subject to individual differences (2008). Shortcomings in its performance may be visible only when the “work” fails to achieve its minimum requirements. Only after seeing the failure do people begin to explore the hidden dimensions of the exchange. Emotion work facilitates interaction and elicits a desired response, contributing to productivity from the agency's point of view and achieving the goal of the exchange from the citizen's point of view. This is most notable in jobs that require positive interactions, such as medical caseworkers, receptionists, public health nurses, compliance officers, public school teachers, and counter clerks. In this paper, the author makes an effort to distinguish between the unique meaning in emotion work which is voluntary and in emotional labor which is required by others. The terms may be used interchangeably when referring to the literature in general. Emotional

labor may also be seen as “acting” – both voluntary and involuntary – for those whose jobs require emotion skills. For someone whose work involves listening to consumer complaints at a call center, the lights come on the stage once he or she comes to work in the morning or returns from lunch break. Workers may be equipped with prior work experience and extensive training and education, but they are not able to provide their best effort if not emotionally prepared to meet the sudden confrontations that may arise. In other words, “machines do not provide human services but nonetheless, when used wisely and with judgment machines can be useful adjuncts as tools of practice (Rogers, 1985, p. 289).”

1.1.1 Research Questions

The purpose of this study is to examine the dynamics of performing emotion work and help clarify some of the mixed views of how performing emotion work affects public servants at work. The research questions are as follows: (1) What impact does performing emotional labor have on public servants pride in their work and burnout? (2) Is there a difference whether the emotional labor is forced or voluntary that affects their pride or burnout? (3) How does suppressing one’s emotion to get the job done affect his or her level of burnout and pride in work? (4) What impact does a job autonomy, which is making their own decisions to get the job done, have on affecting their feelings of burnout? (5) Does having job autonomy affect emotional labor regardless of whether or not the action to perform it was voluntary?

Dimensions of emotion work (i.e., emotional labor and false face acting) are theoretically modeled and empirically examined in the extent to which they influence workers’ emotional expression at work. In terms of the consequences of performing emotion work, I examine the extent to which it affects burnout and pride in work as the key performance indicators.

1.2 Summary

This chapter presented a synopsis of emotional labor and its importance in the workforce. It is evident that the state of emotional labor research in the organizational setting has just started to emerge and therefore, much remains to be done. Workers in the public sector are often required to perform more emotional labor than those in the private sector while also employing different sets of motives and mechanisms to cope with emotions. A comprehensive model of emotional labor in the public sector, however, is yet to be proposed, and the theoretical links among variables need to be empirically tested.

The main assumption of this study is that the performance of emotional labor can generate positive outcomes for individuals and that emotion work can play a major role in that outcome. The key for its effective performance also resides in the worker's ability to recognize the need for it and the level of confidence workers have for performing it. In the next chapter, I examine the literature on emotional labor in organizations in greater detail.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Once the Hawthorne studies were published, organization theorists at least superficially acknowledged the power of emotions in organizational settings (Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1949). Emotions range from anger, sadness, shame, and guilt, to joy and elation (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). These emotions are powerful enough to either diminish or uplift someone's performance level. However, despite the fact that emotion is an inevitable part of organizational life, the role of emotions has been neglected in the organization literature and, instead, has been replaced by a focus on formal economic efficiencies (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995). It was only recently that both practitioners and scholars of organizational culture and performance turned their attention to the lacuna left by an extreme reliance on the rational perspective of scientific management (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995; Putnam & Mumby, 1993). The main reason for the lack of consensual definition of emotion may stem from the lack of applications to organizational settings.

Because researchers tend to define emotions in different ways depending on their expertise, how emotions can be utilized rather than be taken for granted has resulted in a stalemate (Fridja, 1986). Some view emotion as a chain of reactions to external and internal stimuli, which include cognitive, physiological, and behavioral elements (Gross, 1998); others identify two main branches of emotion research, the social constructivist approach and the naturalist approach. The naturalists (e.g., Plutchik, 1980; Darwin, 1871) believe that there are certain basic emotions that people feel, which correspond at an individual basis with underlying physiological mechanisms. This means that felt emotions are determined by individuals' physiological reactions to environmental information, and once an underlying physiological mechanism is induced, so is a specific, corresponding felt emotional state. The social constructivists (e.g., Averill, 1980; Thoits, 1989, 1990; Fineman, 1993) disagree with the argument and believe that emotions are socially defined, and

physiological arousal or sentiment can correspond to different felt and displayed emotions, and vice versa. Here the emotions become an object that is subject to individuals' interpretations.

Fridja (1988) argues for the adaptive function of emotions. For example, feelings of fear distress individuals and cause them to step away from any sign of contact, while positive feelings such as love and passion attract people to collaborate. Behavioral consequences of emotions, therefore, contribute to better adaptation to sudden changes, yet scholars have mostly downplayed the impact that emotions can have on an individual's performance. At work, employees cannot flee from a threatening situation. And often they cannot freely show their true feelings because of professional norms regarding emotional expression (Pogrebin & Poole, 2002; Smith & Kleinman, 1989; Sutton, 1991). In other words, what may seem adaptive from the simple psychological or biological perspective may not be adaptive for the particular work setting.

2.1 Emotional Labor and Public Service

Motivation is a big source of emotionality at work as it directs emotional tendencies to guide or facilitate goal attainment (Wilding, 2008). Workers vary in their response to incentives. While some are motivated by a given incentive, others may not be. The public and private sectors offer different incentives. Because quality of service is key to performance evaluations, perceptions of service quality rest on a dynamic exchange between citizen and state (Guy, Newman, & Mastracci, 2008). Perhaps because of its immediate application for the service sector and workplace in general (for example, its positive implication for customer satisfaction and loyalty), the notion of emotional labor has recently been popularized in organizational research. A considerable amount of empirical, as well as theoretical, work has been done in this area (See Cropanzano et al, 2004; Grandey, 2000 for reviews). The majority of the empirical research in the emotional labor literature, however, has shifted the emphasis from Hochschild's (1983) original concern, the management of one's internal emotional experiences, to the manipulation of

the expression of emotions (Ferris, Hochwarter, Douglas, Blass, Kolodinsky, & Treadway, 2001).

In the organizational literature, emotional labor research specifically concerned with public service work has only recently emerged (e.g., Guy, Newman, & Mastracci, 2008). It appears primarily in six areas of study: social work, nursing, sociology, criminology, and recently in applied psychology. Each discipline has crafted its own terminology to capture the emotional labor construct, leaving cross-fertilization for another day.

Emotion has been defined differently in the literature, which often is the case when scholars have different backgrounds with different interests in the many dimensions that emotional labor represents. For example, while some focus on the physiological aspect of emotion and define emotion as a state of feeling (e.g., Frijda, 1986; James, 1884), others believe that the cognitive element of emotion best represents its characteristic (e.g., Lazarus, 1991; Plutchik, 1980; Solomon, 2000). For others, the social meaning of emotion is most important (Averill, 1980; Thoits, 1989). A recent recognition has been applied to defining emotion in terms of its multiple components, which include experiential, behavioral, and physiological elements (Gross, 1998a, 1999a). According to this view, emotion is an emergent process which starts with emotional cues sent by the environment or self that induce the individual's emotional responses in the forms of behavioral reactions and/or physiological arousal. These responses then lead to the individual's emotional responses (Gross, 1998a). This process-oriented definition of emotion makes it evident that emotional labor is best understood as relational, simultaneously involving the management of one's work environment and the manipulation of one's emotional expressions (Guy, Newman, & Mastracci, 2008).

Scholars also have distinguished different forms of regulation for emotion work. While emotion regulation carries the nuances of self-focused performance (Gross, 1999; Pugliesi, 1999; Thoits, 1996; Woulters, 1989), such terms as emotional labor or emotion work are mainly intended to influence others' emotions with or without changing one's own emotional state. Further, Guy, Newman, and Mastracci (2008) have distinguished between emotional labor and emotion work. The difference is nuanced and they are almost synonymous terms. The former connotes labor that is required by employers while the latter

connotes the actual work. Regardless of which term is used, the argument here is that emotional labor is a relational process that affects the employees, their co-workers, and the citizens for whom they provide service. The most distinguishing feature of public service work is not the efficiency that is often touted as the major goal of the private sector industry but is the quality of care. The citizens that government must serve far outnumber in both numbers and categories those who are served by private sector organizations that have the luxury of “choosing” their customers. Another distinguishing feature of public service work that warrants immediate attention is the variety of relationships that workers have with those they serve. Citizens are diverse in their own right but not all of them can ask for the same privilege as in retail transactions where customers are “always right.” For example, the way police officers treat criminals is not the same as the way sales representatives greet their customers. A substantial degree of emotional labor is, thus, required of public service workers. They cannot separate emotion regulation from emotional labor. In addition, although prior research has provided evidence for the effectiveness of different emotional labor strategies (e.g., Gross, 1998a; Gross & Levenson, 1997; Gross & John, 2003), recent research has suggested that depending on the degree of the workers’ recognition of emotion work, work outcomes may show different results (Guy, Newman, & Mastracci, 2008).

2.2 Conceptualizing Emotional Labor

The cue for performing emotional labor starts when one identifies the need. This level of recognition differs from individual to individual. It usually starts with organizational norms that signal guidelines for emotional expression. The existence of “feeling rules” and “display rules” (i.e., organizational norms regarding which emotions are appropriate for employees to feel and express) reflect the effort that organizations put forth to regulate employees’ emotional expressions (Hochschild, 1983; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). Because most display rules are implicit in nature, they may not be recognized by employees. However, when display rules are strong, employees are better able to behave accordingly. In addition, the literature suggests that organizations with strong display rules also are more

likely to have relevant selection, training, socialization, and reward and punishment systems in place to foster desired emotional expression among employees (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). Therefore, it is likely that individuals working in organizations that have strong display rules have a stronger tendency to regulate their emotions than those working in organizations that have only weak display rules. The existence of display rules, whether strong or weak, affect the degree to which workers are self-aware of performing emotion work. However, regardless of the organization's display rules, what is often neglected is that individuals have different levels of recognizing the necessity of performing emotion work. This is the starting point for its performance and may be the hardest part of the process. Understanding the existence of emotional labor in the workplace and the nature of public service work is a precursor to understanding how workers can develop greater efficacy in its performance. Next, I examine the core antecedents of emotion work.

Emotional Labor. The term *labor* is treated as that required by an employer (Guy, et al, 2008; Hochschild, 1983). Emotional labor is “the management of feeling to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display” intended to affect a certain state of mind in others (Hochschild, 1983) as well as the “effort, planning and control needed to express organizationally desired emotion during interpersonal transactions” (Morris & Feldman, 1996, p. 987). An alternative view of how emotional labor is performed is that it is organizationally directed under the guidance of display rules. Recently, Guy and her colleagues (2008) noted the distinction between emotion work and emotional labor, with the key being who and what controls the performance. If it is regulated by the employer, it is defined as emotional labor, and if it results from the autonomous choice of the employee, it is emotion work.

It should not be assumed that emotional labor occurs only in positive exchanges. For example, in business transactions, the “customer is always right.” In public service, however, many exchanges are negative in nature, such as arrests by police officers. Emotional labor is just as necessary to do jobs that require “negative” interactions as it is in jobs that require positive interactions (Guy, Newman, & Mastracci, 2008).

Many, if not all, public service jobs require human-to-human interaction and Rogers (1990) put it best that machines do not provide human services but can only be useful

adjuncts as tools of practice for wise and good judgment. The use of machines cannot be ignored but what is paramount is that machines provide only the means to reach the minimum requirement of the ends; this often falls short when it comes to providing the best service (1990). Emotional labor can fill the gap left by the “machinery” of work. People who are committed to their constituencies enhance the public service experience for both the service provider and the beneficiary. Inherent in this exchange is the exercise of emotion work.

Contrary to the strong evidence of existing literature that favors emotional dissonance as a result of emotional labor (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Erickson & Ritter, 2001; Hochschild, 1983; Grandey, 2000), research is beginning to show that emotional labor has positive consequences and contributes to job satisfaction (Kruml & Geddes, 2000; Wharton, 1993; Guy, et al., 2008). In the short run, reinforcing the human capital infrastructure may be costly, but it is an important aspect of public service. Job turnover due to burnout will be even more costly for replacement and training. In other words, to prevent burnout, workers must have ways of coping (Guy, Newman, & Mastracci, 2008). Thus, the industrial economy that relied on the machinery of labor has given way to the postindustrial economy that requires interpersonal skills (Erickson & Ritter, 2001).

Workers report varying levels of ability and effectiveness in the performance of emotional labor (Guy et al., 2008). Their research suggests that there are differences across agencies in the amount of emotion work performed by workers but that the differences in a worker’s ability to perform such work is not agency specific. In other words, emotional labor skills are not necessarily agency-specific and instead differ by worker. They also conclude that the performance of emotional labor can contribute to pride in work and job satisfaction and that only under certain conditions does it lead to burnout. This suggests that what is more important than the nature of the work is one’s ability to see the need for emotional labor in the specific environment. Emotional labor is not necessarily a natural response. For example, police officers, who are trained to act “tough” while on duty, would not be expected to engage in the same behavior when interacting with their families.

Emotion Work. Guy, et al. (2008) treat emotion work as a construct. They examined whether workers see their work as requiring them (a) to display many different emotions

when interacting with others, (b) to deal with emotionally charged issues, (c) to manage the emotions of others, or (d) to provide comfort to people who are in crisis. Their findings showed that almost two-thirds of the workers surveyed reported that their work involved dealing with emotionally charged issues as a critical dimension of their jobs. This result is pivotal in terms of how it relates to one's confidence in performing emotional labor and in terms of how the worker adapts, or does not adapt, to the challenges that this brings. Workers with high emotion work demands and high confidence in their ability to perform it have "personal efficacy," (Guy et al., 2008) in performing emotional labor. They may not view emotion work as problematic. In fact, they feel good about performing it. Those with low efficacy, on the other hand, lack the skill to cope efficiently and effectively when emotional expression is demanded. The findings of Guy, et al, suggest that emotion work gives meaning to one's work in such a way that job performance increases the individual's pride and sense of accomplishment. This explains why emotion works, when used effectively and with a good understanding of it, has a positive impact on job satisfaction. Display rules are often invisible to the extent that one has to rely completely on his or her own discretion. Thus, workers who freely recognize the need for emotion work are better able to develop the skills for it.

Another term similar to emotion work is "personal efficacy," which is defined as the ability and willingness to perform emotion work effectively (Wharton & Erickson, 1993). It pertains to workers' confidence in their ability to perform emotional labor (Guy, Newman, & Mastracci, 2008). Workers are often challenged by different demands in their service transactions. Those who are met with incompatible demands are likely to have low job satisfaction (Morse, 1953). Those who are efficacious are likely to have higher job satisfaction. Workers with high personal efficacy are better able to adapt to changes that occur in their work environment and are also better able to pacify hostile situations that may arise during the course of their transactions as compared to those with lower levels of personal efficacy. In an environment where positive exchanges become a benchmark for performance, building strong personal efficacy is essential. Merely recognizing the display rules of organizations may fail to develop coping mechanisms and therefore result in burnout. In service interactions, for example, a worker who does not have the confidence or

skills for performing emotional labor may be unaware of the negative consequence his or her “cold” responsiveness may have. The citizen’s evaluation of the exchange is most likely to be negative regardless of the work outcome. Because approximately one-third of American workers are employed in jobs that subject them to substantial demands for emotional labor (Guy et al., 2008, p. 2), emotion work or personal efficacy should not be regarded as a luxury that only those with specific positions or those who are naturally gifted can afford; instead, it must be regarded as a part of the overall training for all workers to be successful.

Workers with high emotion work skills or high personal efficacy are also supposedly good at getting people to calm down, at helping co-workers feel better about themselves, at trying to actually feel the emotions that they must display, keeping the peace by calming clashes between co-workers, and at helping co-workers deal with stresses and difficulties at work (2008). It is an emotion regulation strategy that produces the outcomes most in accordance with the integrative display rules of the organization (Johnson, 2007). Another term for “political skill” has also been used in a similar vein to emotion work skills (Perrewé, Ferris, Frink, & Anthony, 2000; Perrewé, Zellars, Ferris, Rossi, Kacmar, & Ralston, 2004). Perrewé et al. (2004) suggested that people high in political skill are more likely to control and exert influences in social interactions and also enjoy the challenging circumstances, which are perceived by others as stressful.

Guy, Newman, and Mastracci’s (2008) findings suggest that individual differences emerge in terms of worker efficacy. Specifically, they note that to do their jobs well, workers must employ skills similar to those of method actors in terms of invoking the ‘right’ emotions at the ‘right’ time. There has to be a satisfaction of certain human needs in order to perform the job successfully (Gibson & Teasley, 1973). In other words, individuals with the requisite skill sets should be able to do the job successfully, which should increase their satisfaction. On the other hand, those who are less skilled are more likely to make inappropriate responses or responses that fail to facilitate the interaction (Guy, Newman, and Mastracci, 2008).

Also, to be effective in performing emotion work, worker discretion is assumed. Scholars suggest that positive employee behavior is a combination of a minimum of three

actions and beliefs: (1) a commitment to customer service, (2) cooperation with fellow employees, and (3) a commitment to the organization (Arnett, Laverie, and McLane, 2002).

Another term related to emotion work is *deep acting* (Hochschild, 1983). For workers who use deep acting, they not only control their physical display; they simultaneously modify their internal thoughts and feelings in order for their emotional expression to be consistent with their thoughts and beliefs (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002). Exercising deep acting is thought to reduce emotional dissonance (Hochschild 1983). For example, customer service representatives who are confronted with a customer's anger at receiving broken items might react with less defensiveness and more sympathy and helpfulness if they were to consider the interaction from the customer's point of view. Those who empathize with the customer and express sincerity are engaged in deep acting and are likely to feel less emotional dissonance in their interaction. This is the cognitive adaptation of feeling to the work situation and involves an attempt by the employee to engage the actual emotion that is required and to display the emotion (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Abraham, 1998; Grandey, 2000; Erickson & Ritter, 2001; Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002). Even though deep acting requires more emotive effort, empirical evidence suggests that it is the preferred method for the performance of emotion work. Considering the notion that the performance of emotion work requires the energy, commitment, and sense of priorities, deep acting, and personal efficacy are essential ingredients that produce positive consequences for both individuals and organizations. Public service, which puts heavy emphasis on "serving others," requires sensitivity to the needs of citizens as they encounter the state. To ignore this combination of analysis, judgment, and communication is to ignore the essence of constructive interpersonal transactions (Guy, Newman, and Mastracci, 2008).

False Face Acting. The term *false face acting* was first developed by Guy, Newman, and Mastracci (2008) to explain the conditions when workers are required to suppress their own emotions while expressing another emotion for the purpose of the transaction. Surface acting is a related term for when workers show observable expressions but do not actually feel the emotion they are expressing (Hochschild, 1983). Another term for this is 'emotional masking' (Wharton & Erickson, 1993). False face acting is often, if not always,

more difficult to perform because it requires overcoming what is felt in order to show what is “always” appropriate. Unless workers are equipped with emotion work skills, they are likely to experience an uncomfortable state of dissonance between the emotion they are displaying and the emotion they are actually feeling (Johnson, 2007). False face acting often requires continuous monitoring and modification of emotional response tendencies. Johnson’s (2007) research suggests that false face acting impaired the information capacity of female participants. She concludes that it is not suitable when workers need to remember critical information obtained during a service interaction.

False face acting prevents workers from displaying their initial feelings in order to display what is desired by the organizations. In other words, it requires workers to act “as if” they feel one way when they actually feel another way (Guy et al., 2008). Although false face acting is negatively associated with job satisfaction and is positively associated with burnout, it is an important element of the job that is occasionally, or often depending on the nature of the job, required in order to carry out a successful service transaction. However, what happens in the long run is that the dissonance may lead to worker burnout. False face actors may experience greater negative emotion because of the inauthenticity caused by the discrepancy between felt and expressed emotions (Gross and John, 2003). As an example to illustrate the negative effects of false face acting, laboratory research has indicated that suppression of one’s own emotion extracted cognitive costs in the form of distraction and reduced responsiveness during conversation. This, in turn, led to increased affective response in the conversation partner (Butler, Egloff, Wilhelm, Smith, Erickson & Gross, 2003).

Emotional dissonance, which is a term closely associated with false face acting, is by far the most frequently discussed psychological consequence of emotion regulation in the management literature (Morris & Feldman, 1996b). Emotional dissonance occurs when one expresses emotions that are appropriate for the job but are inconsistent with workers’ inner feelings (Hochschild, 1983; Mumby & Putnam, 1992). This leads to emotional exhaustion (Abraham, 1998, 1999; Hochschild, 1983), a state of depleted energy caused by excessive emotional demands (Maslach, 1982). Emotional dissonance has also been consistently linked with a variety of negative work-related outcomes, such as emotional

exhaustion and job dissatisfaction among workers from a variety of professions, such as waiter and waitress (Adelmann, 1995), members of debt collection agencies, a military recruiting battalion, and a nursing association (Morris & Feldman, 1996b).

In addition, emotional dissonance is likely to induce an attribution process in which workers strive to make sense of their emotional state. When individuals experience emotional dissonance, they may blame themselves and feel hypocritical (Hochschild, 1983). Similarly, they are likely to blame the organization for the dissonance they experience. Cumulative evidence from previous findings supports a negative relationship between false face acting and job satisfaction (Abraham, 1998, 1999; Morris & Feldman, 1996b; Rutter & Fielding, 1988).

Job Autonomy. Autonomy has been defined as the degree to which an employee has freedom, independence, and discretion in carrying out the tasks of the job (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). Although conceptually related to closeness of monitoring, within the context of service work, job autonomy specifically refers to the extent to which role occupants have the ability to adapt display rules to fit their own interpersonal styles (Morris & Feldman, 1996).

Research has shown that job autonomy is positively correlated to job satisfaction and other attitudinal outcome variables (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). Previous studies on emotional labor suggest that emotional labor is significantly less aversive among workers who have greater job autonomy (Adelmann, 1989; Erickson, 1991; Wharton, 1993). Employees who have more autonomy over expressing their behavior may be less likely to feel emotional dissonance and more inclined to exercise with higher self-esteem.

Job autonomy makes another unique contribution to the literature. For example, while the relationship between emotional labor and well-being of workers is not as straightforward as first proposed by Hochschild, the effect of emotional labor was dependent upon job autonomy (Erickson, 1991).

2.3 Consequences of Emotional Labor

Burnout. Much of the emotional labor literature relates burnout to negative consequences. The general argument has been that emotional labor involves false face acting (i.e., expressing emotions while suppressing opposite inner feelings), and that false face acting leads to negative physical and psychological outcomes, such as stress and burnout (Hochschild, 1983; Morris & Feldman, 1996b; Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000). Burnout is often used as one of the key performance indicators for workers (Wharton 1993). And, there are many studies that link the negative consequences of performing emotional labor with burnout being the result (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987; Ashforth & Humphrey 1993; Leidner, 1993; Conrad & Witte, 1994; Waldron, 1994; Morris & Feldman, 1996; Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998; Pugliesi, 1999; Hochschild, 1983; Tolich, 1993; Wharton, 1993).

Guy, Newman, and Mastracci (2008) find mostly positive results from emotion work but many studies indicate stress, poor self-esteem, depression, and inauthenticity as its result (Hochschild, 1983; Pugliesi, 1999; Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Wharton, 1993, 1996; Tolich, 1993; Erickson & Wharton, 1997; Sutton, 1991). In the public sector, which interacts with clients in matters regarding law enforcement, public education, public health, and social insurance such as workers' compensation and social security disability benefits among many others, burnout is an occupational hazard for those who need to play their "A" game everyday at work (Ryerson & Marks, 1981).

It is not surprising that the early work on burnout started with jobs that involved social workers (Barad, 1979), law-enforcement officials (Maslach & Jackson, 1979), lawyers in legal-services offices (Maslach & Jackson, 1978), and day-care workers (Daley, 1979; Pines & Maslach, 1980) because of the psychological toll that results at the end of the day. Only recently have researchers begun to investigate the relationship between emotional labor and burnout (Guy, Newman, & Mastracci, 2008; Abraham, 1998; Adelman, 1995; Brotheridge & Lee, 1998; Grandey, 1998; Morris & Feldman, 1997). While several of these studies provide initial evidence for a relationship between the two, some of the findings are mixed (Guy, Newman, & Mastracci, 2008).

One key component of burnout is emotional exhaustion, which is a specific stress-related reaction (Maslach, 1982). Emotional exhaustion is strongly affected by surface acting as compared to deep acting (Kruml & Geddes, 2000). This is also supported by Brotheridge and Grandey (2002) who found that surface acting was positively related to emotional exhaustion while deep acting showed almost no relationship.

Pride-In-Work. The consequences of emotional labor may be better explained when one sees the role of *pride-in-work*. Pride in work is critical when examining the impact of emotion work on outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction and burnout). Recently, Guy, Newman, and Mastracci (2008) have suggested that workers' pride plays a major role to the extent that it reduces burnout even when emotional suppression was employed.

Following up on their work, Jin's (2007) preliminary research findings, using state workers whose work mainly involved analyzing business complaints, show that workers' acknowledgement of emotion work and their level of personal efficacy were significant contributions to pride despite the presence of false face acting. These findings warrant further empirical testing as to whether or not pride in work plays a mediating role in job satisfaction and burnout. Compared to job satisfaction and burnout, both of which have been extensively researched as key performance indicators, the effect of pride has received little research recognition. Guy, Newman, and Mastracci's (2008) findings suggest that the performance of emotional labor contributes to pride in work. There remains the only work that introduces such a link. Pride is an emotion that is crucial to understanding human behavior (Arnett, Laverie, & McLane, 2002). It is derived from both self-appraisals and others' opinions. Pride represents a belief that one is competent and viewed positively by others. It encourages self-control and is responsible for people behaving in accordance with norms (Stryker, 1987). The level of pride can also be viewed as commitment at the organizational level. Commitment to the organization is defined as an attitudinal variable characterized by an enduring psychological attachment (Somers & Birnbaum, 1998). The most accepted form of commitment casts this variable as an emotional attachment to an organization and includes acceptance of organizational values and a desire to remain with the organization (Porter et al., 1974).

One's pride in work is often pivotal as it relates directly to job satisfaction. It also often refers to an employee's general affective evaluation of his or her job. In the hotel industry, for example, it is often necessary to alter the culture of the organization before launching a major marketing effort. The purpose is to align employees' attitudes with the new strategy in order to achieve the expected performance (Arnett, Laverie, and McLane, 2002). For example, many service-oriented organizations institute strategies that are designed to increase customer satisfaction and loyalty. The successful implementation of those plans, however, requires that employees adopt certain actions and beliefs (e.g., being customer-focused and cooperating with each other). Employees' attitudes and pride about their colleagues and the work environment may make the difference between workers merely doing a good job and delivering exceptional guest service.

Pride in work may be the ultimate performance indicator because it relates to reduced employee turnover rates, increased service quality, and improved ability to implement change in the organization. At the organizational level, low self-esteem has been linked to decreased task performance, increased absenteeism, increased job turnover, and deteriorating organizational morale (Mathieu & Hamel, 1989; Petty, McGee, & Cavender, 1984). At the individual level, it has been associated with employee burnout, high levels of stress, and a variety of psychological and physiological problems (Brayfield & Crockett, 1955; Verbrudgge, 1982). However, pride in work has not garnered the attention that it deserves, especially when compared to job satisfaction, which has been the subject of extensive research across a wide array of professionals, occupations, and sectors of the economy (McCue & Gianakis, 1997).

The most-satisfied employees respond best to the needs of an organization's customers (Spinelli & Canavos, 2000). Because most hotels rely directly on their employees to deliver superior service, for example, employees can be a source of competitive advantage (Enz and Siguaw, 2000). Customer satisfaction, service quality, and customer loyalty are influenced considerably by the beliefs and behavior of employees (Bitner, Booms, and Tetreault, 1990). The positive behavior then is characterized by a commitment to providing the guest with good service, cooperating with other employees, and being committed to the employer.

The value of pride in work for employees in government is no different from that of employees in the private sector. Government workers are required to display a range of emotional expression in their interactions with citizens and co-workers. Street-level bureaucrats who directly interact with citizens are often the true entrepreneurs who promote quality public service. Government relies directly on them to deliver superior service. Thus, customer satisfaction, service quality, and even citizen/customer loyalty are influenced considerably by the skills, beliefs and behavior of public servants.

The recent studies that produced favorable results for emotional labor have recognized the assertions above, such as increased security, self-esteem and empowerment (Strickland, 1992; Tolich, 1993; Leidner, 1993; Adelman, 1995). In an environment where understaffed public services must meet the same “customer” expectations as business establishments, positive exchanges become a benchmark for performance (Guy, Newman, & Mastracci, 2008). Just as the customers expect to meet friendly hotel employees, citizens as customers expect to meet friendly bureaucrats. Pride in work is fundamental in government work as it helps to ensure that employees will treat citizens with respect and care, which is often the only visible and corresponding experience that the citizens will have as users of government service (Arnet, Laverie, and McLane, 2002). Because of the important role that government workers play in developing relationships with citizens, employee’s pride in his or her work is a major concern for public agencies that are interested in increasing positive feedback. Public service workers’ pride in work has also been linked to an increase in citizen orientation by the employee, an increase in customer satisfaction, and an increase in perceived service quality. Satisfied employees believe that appropriate behavior will be rewarded by the organization (Zeithaml and Bitner, 2000). In general, pride in work leads to employees’ intentions to keep performing their required job tasks well, which, in turn affects their actual behavior. Therefore, employee’s pride in work is a crucial prerequisite to service excellence.

These research outcomes contradict previous results that were dominated by emotional labor’s negative influence on performance. What is neglected in those studies is a measure for monitoring emotional expressions because individuals who successfully monitor their emotional expressions as prescribed by the organization usually obtain

positive performance outcomes (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987; Sutton & Rafaeli, 1988) in the form of tips from customers, favorable customer evaluations, and peer performance evaluations (Parkinson, 1991; Pugh, 2001). Also, in a study that investigated dispatchers at a 911 center, Shuler and Sypher (2000) observed that dispatchers often seek emotion regulation experiences to enhance their sense of work identity. For the dispatchers, the achievement of emotional neutrality in their interactions with callers was a communicative accomplishment that they were proud of. Similar findings are seen in studies of supermarket clerks (Tolich, 1993) and criminal interrogators (Stenross & Kleinman, 1989) who sincerely enjoy the emotion work involved in their job because it introduces variety and brings to their work something different from the routine.

While the downside to emotional labor may be psychological disturbance and mental illness (Bradley, 1990; Greenspan & Porges, 1984), effective emotional labor may enhance one's emotional competency and facilitate one's social functioning (Feldman, Barrett & Gross, 2001; Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

Totterdell and Holman (2003) found that deep acting was associated with quality performance and was not associated with emotional exhaustion. Brotheridge and Grandey (2002) reported evidence that deep acting was negatively associated with the depersonalization dimension of burnout and positively associated with the personal accomplishment dimension. Therefore, acquiring these skills of personal efficacy is assumed to lead to higher personal pride.

Binding this emotional commitment to the organization is an important part of performance. Employees with a high level of pride in their work perceive their employer as important, meaningful, effective, and as a worthwhile part of the community. As a result, employees are more likely to engage in activities that help the organization to meet its objectives (Arnett, Laverie, and McLane, 2002). Pride often encourages workers to go beyond the minimum required performance level. For example, Howard Johnson's hotel and restaurant franchisees report that employee pride played a key role in its mid-1990s turnaround (Nozar, 1995). Thus, successful companies and agencies foster more pride in their employees than do average companies and agencies.

2.4 Hypotheses and Model

As the literature suggests, recognizing the needs and rules of emotional labor can have positive consequences. Those workers who have difficulty perceiving the need for emotional labor will have difficulty performing it well. Emotional labor is referred to as a labor that is required by the organization and literature suggests that emotional labor alone will result in emotional exhaustion. Thus,

Hypothesis 1: Emotional labor will be positively related to burnout.

As Hochschild (1983) notes, emotional labor is “the management of feeling to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display” intended to affect a certain state of mind in others as well as the “effort, planning and control needed to express organizationally desired emotion during interpersonal transactions” (Morris & Feldman, 1996, p. 987). It is also the one that is often organizationally directed under the guidance of display rules set by the organization. The intention behind the set of rules is to help workers perform emotion work that is voluntary in nature. Thus, workers who recognize the need for emotional labor are better able to develop the skills for it and perform emotion work. Thus,

Hypothesis 2: Emotional labor will be positively related to emotion work.

As Guy and her colleagues point out, emotion work gives meaning to one’s work in such a way that job performance increases the individual’s pride and sense of accomplishment. This explains why emotional labor, when used effectively and with a good understanding of it, has a positive impact on the person’s behavior and attitude toward his or her work. Emotional labor is the effort, planning and control needed to express organizationally desired emotion during interpersonal transactions (Morris & Feldman, 1996, p. 987). Thus, individuals who equip themselves with the skills to perform emotional labor are more likely to feel satisfied with their achievements, which will also develop their pride in work. Pride

in work will be stronger for those who have confidence in their ability to perform emotional labor (Guy, Newman, & Mastracci, 2008). Thus,

Hypothesis 3: Emotion work will be positively related to pride in work.

Autonomy has been defined as the degree to which an employee has freedom, independence, and discretion in carrying out the tasks of the job (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). Although conceptually related to closeness of monitoring, within the context of service work, job autonomy specifically refers to the extent to which role occupants have the ability to adapt display rules to fit their own interpersonal styles (Morris & Feldman, 1996). Research has shown that job autonomy is positively correlated to job satisfaction and other attitudinal outcome variables (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). Previous studies on emotional labor suggest that emotional labor is significantly less aversive among workers who have greater job autonomy (Adelmann, 1989; Erickson, 1991; Wharton, 1993). Employees who have more autonomy over their expressive behavior than others are less likely to feel emotional dissonance. However, employees are also more likely to be exposed to violating the positive display rules directed by the organization. Thus,

Hypothesis 4: Job autonomy will be positively related to emotion work.

Hypothesis 5: Job autonomy will be negatively related to burnout.

False face acting occurs when workers are required to suppress their own emotions while expressing another emotion for the purpose of the transaction (Guy et al, 2005). Thus,

Hypothesis 6: False face acting will be negatively related to emotion work.

Hypothesis 7: False face acting will be positively related to burnout.

Figure 1 shows the overall process model of relationships between antecedents, emotional labor constructs, pride in work and burnout.

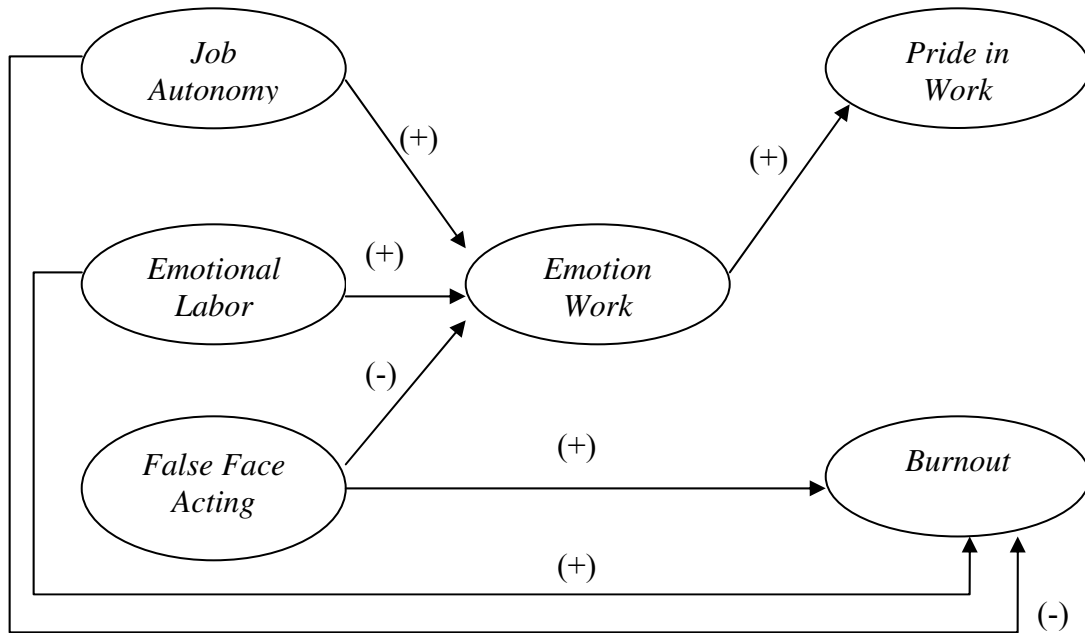


Figure 1. A Process Model of Emotional Labor.

2.5 Proposed Study

Recent research on the positive effects of emotional labor has led to a greater understanding of the influences of emotion in the workplace. This study will contribute to the emotional labor literature by advancing the understanding of some of the antecedents and consequences of performing emotion work. It will use samples that include a wide variety of public sector jobs.

First, this study extends the current quantitative analysis on emotional labor, false face acting, and job autonomy as the antecedents of emotion work. Previous literature has examined the motivational factors that lead to choosing an emotional labor strategy over another. The literature has mostly focused on how the performing emotional labor affected

individual or organizational performance. It has paid little attention to the drivers of emotion work. People do not naturally choose to be “nice” or “mean”; instead, they are compelled to feel one way or another according to job demands. Examining individual ability to recognize the needs and rules for emotional labor and how it affects performing emotion work will be the first step in this research. By doing so, this study also contributes to the literature by examining how recognizing the display rules in organizations affects worker confidence in performing emotion work.

Second, as emotional labor has gotten more attention in the public sector for its emphasis on the quality of service interaction, further study of public sector employees is warranted. Thus, unlike previous research that has focused on the private sector service industry, in which profit maximizing is the ultimate source of key performance indicators, this study focuses on government employees in diverse work settings where the focus is on serving constituencies without the benefit of bonuses, commissions, or profit margin.

Third, the emotional labor literature has been constantly fighting against the misconception that emotional labor is only for those strenuous jobs that require extremely physical and mental hardships such as police officers and 911 call takers. Guy and her colleagues’ pioneering work (2008) was the first effort to examine emotional labor that examined such workers as police officers and 911 call takers in the public sector. The current study takes on a more comprehensive approach by introducing a different kind of public service workers using a sample of consumer complaint workers where the nature of work may not require such dramatic physical and/or mental hardships and is comparable to that of service industry in the private sector. The study will examine the difference and/or similarities between the consumer complaint workers and the workers previously employed in Guy et al.’s work (2008).

Finally, in order to explore the presumed effects of antecedents of emotion work on performance outputs or outcomes, I take into consideration employees’ pride-in-work and burnout as the outcome variables. In the past, most studies have solely employed job satisfaction and burnout as primary indicators of their performance. However, as recent studies (for example, see Guy, Newman, & Mastracci, 2008) suggest, the true effect of emotional labor warrants further analysis. The mixed findings open doors to exploring the

potential factors that affect both pride in work and burnout. In public service work where organizational performance and goals do not depend on monetary incentives or profits but instead on the quality of service for the beneficiaries, the effect of worker pride carries an important message for human capital development. By using the method of structural equation modeling (SEM) for the combined data, this study seeks to better examine the true effects of emotion work in the public sector

The emotional labor concept evolved from the notion that organizations wanted their service employees to manage their emotions for a wage and that this practice would be detrimental to employee well-being (Hochschild, 1983). As such, most of the emotional labor research has investigated the personal consequences of managing one's emotions to adhere to organizational display rules and on the direct relationship between antecedents of emotional labor and self-esteem or job satisfaction and burnout as the final outputs. However, by extending the role of emotional labor, which was shown to have a significant relationship with job satisfaction, pride in work and burnout (Guy, Newman, & Mastracci, 2008), this study examines in greater details the factors that affect emotion work and its consequences on pride in work and burnout.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN

3.1 Chapter Overview

This chapter begins with a description of a study used as a preliminary stage of this research. Data collection, sample characteristics, and measures are presented. The preliminary analysis will be used as a starting point for the proposed empirical analysis. A brief description of the data samples used by Guy et al. (2008) will be shown to illustrate the comparability of combining the two separate data for further analyses. I outline the methods that will be used to examine the antecedents of emotion work and its consequences on pride in work and burnout.

3.2 Preliminary Study

3.2.1 Research Site

Data were collected from a survey of employees at the Division of Consumer Services, a unit of the Florida State Department of Agriculture and Consumer Services. This Division has a major responsibility for mediating and enforcing actions necessary to resolve various kinds of conflicts and problems that arise out of inappropriate business transactions between Florida's citizens and businesses. The Division of Consumer Services is the state's clearinghouse for consumer complaints, protection and information. The division has responsibility for regulating various business industries operating in Florida and conducts investigations of unfair and deceptive trade practices. In addition, the division functions as the United States Consumer Product Safety Commission's liaison in Florida regarding product recalls, inspections and investigations.

The Division of Consumer Services is comprised of three bureaus: Bureau of Compliance, Bureau of Mediation and Enforcement and Bureau of Consumer Assistance. The Bureau of Compliance has regulatory responsibility for a variety of business entities, including business opportunities, charitable organizations, sellers of travel, and telemarketing. For the Bureau of Mediation and Enforcement, the responsibility is on mediating complaints filed by consumers regarding goods and services provided by businesses, as well as initiating enforcement actions for violations of the regulatory laws. Once a complaint is filed with the bureau, members of the bureau mediate the complaint and try to resolve issues to the consumer's satisfaction. This bureau also processes administrative enforcement actions for violations by an entity that falls within one of the division's regulatory programs. In addition, the bureau conducts investigations of alleged violations of Florida law that fall within the jurisdiction of the division's regulatory programs, as well as other consumer protection laws. The Bureau of Consumer Assistance, on the other hand, is comprised of the Consumer Assistance Center and the Lemon Law program. The Consumer Assistance Center is responsible for answering the state's toll-free Consumer Assistance Hotline number. The Consumer Assistance Center is staffed with trained analysts who answer more than 220,000 telephone calls and emails annually from consumers and businesses. In addition to supporting the program areas regulated by the division, workers are able to provide callers with information on a wide variety of topics. The Lemon Law Section works in conjunction with the Florida Attorney General, each performing specific functions, to implement the Florida New Motor Vehicles Sales Warranties Act (more commonly known as the Florida Lemon Law).

The majority of consumers who file complaints rely heavily on agency workers to develop a reasonable solution with the offending business. Complaints arrive via e-mail or letters and workers immediately begin an investigation. Workers within the agency recognize that their role as both a mediator and an enforcer is the only hope for the consumers who submitted complaints, other than legal action. There is a special bond that forms immediately after they receive the complaints. Citizens think of the workers as their advocates and expect them to resolve the matter. Workers understand the expectations that citizens have of them and they attempt to resolve their claims.

3.2.2 Procedure

The Division's director approved the study and gave permission to the researcher to request the participation of his employees in the study. All 102 employees within the Division of Consumer Services were given the opportunity to complete the paper-and-pencil questionnaire. All respondents were volunteers and were not compensated for their participation. Questionnaires were hand-delivered to the head of the agency and all Bureau chiefs were summoned by the director. The Bureau chiefs distributed the questionnaires to clerks at each Bureau to distribute them in everyone's office.

3.2.3 Sample

Fifty-nine surveys were returned, for a 57.8 percent response rate. An analysis of the returned surveys demonstrated that all bureaus of the division were represented in the sample. This included bureaus related to all parts of consumer complaints administration.

The sample for this study consists of all female and male workers for whom complete data were available ($n= 59$). Of these, 69.5 percent of them were women and 55.9 percent of them were white. Demographic characteristics presented in Tables 1.1 and 1.2 demonstrate that the respondents include representation from all educational and experience levels as well as a variety of midrange incomes. The prevalence of women in the sample reflects the usual over-representation of women in the lower level ranks of government ranks.

3.2.4 Measures

The GNM Emotional Labor Questionnaire (2008) (GNM Scale) was used to examine the relationship between emotional labor and work outcomes on job satisfaction, pride in work, and burnout (See Appendix A). The GNM scale is unique in its measurement for emotion work and false face acting (Guy, Newman, & Mastracci, 2008). While it is based in part on previous scales, such as Brotheridge and Lee's ELS (2003), it provides a number of unique items that allow comparison to other measures, such as workers' acknowledgement of emotion work demands and perceptions of confidence in performing emotional labor.

The GNM scale is most appropriate to investigate the demands and characteristics of emotional labor in the public sector. It contains 48 survey items pertaining to the performance of emotion work, along with a series of demographic questions. The items for emotional labor are measured on a seven-point Likert scale with highest-valued responses indicating the strongest degree of agreement. To explore the costs and benefits of performing emotion work, they used the survey tool to study a variety of occupations, including the staff at the Cook County Office of Public Guardian in Illinois, the staff of the Illinois Department of Corrections, and the 911 dispatchers for the Tallahassee, and Florida Police Department. I employ the same survey instrument to further probe the significance of how emotion work factors into job satisfaction, employee pride, and burnout.

My sample includes the employees at Division of Consumer Services, which is part of the Florida Department of Agriculture and Consumer Services. The Division is responsible for handling hundreds of complaint letters that are received on a daily basis from citizens who are dissatisfied with transactions they have had with businesses that operate in Florida. Most, if not all, of the workers are compliance officers whose work involves communicating in call centers, exchanging phone calls and electronic mails to resolve various conflicts that arise in business transactions. By surveying these types of jobs, I was able to examine whether the relationship between emotional labor and its consequences still retains the same values.

Table 1.1 Demographics: Gender, Marital Status and Race.

Demographics: Gender, Marital Status and Race	Division of Consumer Services
# of Responses	59 out of 102
Response Rate	57.8%
***	***
Women	41 (69.49%)
Men	18 (30.51%)
***	***
Married	34 (57.6%)
Race: White	33 (55.9%)

Table 1.2 shows the educational level of all respondents. Educational background of the respondents ranged from ‘less than high school’ to ‘master’s degrees,’ with 32.1% having at least a college degree. Salaries were in ranges characteristic of agency operatives in the Florida system.

Table 1.2 Demographics: Educational Level and Salary

Educational Level of Respondents	Percentage
less than high school	1.79%
high school graduate or G.E.D	7.14%
technical training	8.93%
some college	39.29%
2-year associate degree	10.71%
graduated from college	21.43%
some graduate school	7.14%
master's degree	3.57%
Salary of Respondents	Percentage
under \$20,000	4%
\$20,000 - \$29,999	42%
\$30,000 - \$39,999	44%
\$40,000 - \$49,999	2%
\$50,000 - \$59,999	4%
\$70,000 - \$79,999	2%
\$80,000 or above	2%

The above sample was combined with a second set of data generated from the survey administered at three sites on three different government levels: state, county, and municipal by Guy et al. (2008). The three sites included the Office of Public Guardian, Department of Corrections, and 911 call takers. The previous work indicated that the contexts of the three different sites did not differ statistically.

Table 2.1 shows the response rate across the three additional agencies as well as the breakdown by gender, marital status, and race (Guy, Newman, & Mastracci, 2008). Demographic characteristics presented in Tables 2.1 and 2.2 demonstrate that the respondents include representation from all educational and experience levels as well as a variety of midrange incomes.

Table 2.1 Characteristics of the Three Other Agencies

	Office of Public Guardian	Department of Corrections	911 Call Takers	Overall
# of Responses	139 out of 270	135 out of 324	34 out of 40	308 out of 634
Response Rate	51.5%	41.7%	85%	
***	***	***	***	
Women	106	77	22	
Men	33	57	12	
***	***	***	***	
Married	50%	58%	50%	
Race: White	52%	90%	70%	

Table 2.2 Education and Salary of Respondents

High School or GED	4.6%
Technical training	2.6%
Some college	20.8%
2-year Associate's Degree	10.4%
Bachelor's Degree	17.6%
Some graduate school	7.2%
Master's Degree	9.8%
Law Degree	25.7%
Doctoral Degree	0.7%
Other	0.7%
Salary of Respondents	
Under \$20,000	0.3%
\$20,000 - \$29,999	9.3%
\$30,000 - \$39,999	14.6%
\$40,000 - \$49,999	32.5%
\$50,000 - \$59,999	21.5%
\$60,000 - \$69,999	9.3%
\$70,000 - \$79,999	7.9%
\$80,000 or above	4.6%

3.2.5 Measures of Combined Data

Burnout. Burnout, the first outcome measure of emotional labor, was measured by calculating the mean score of the five items shown in Table 3.1. Respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they generally experience a variety of feelings related to stress and negative opinions, which included, for example, whether “they worry that this job is hardening me emotionally.” Responses were scored using a seven-point scoring format (1 = never to 7 = always). “I leave work feeling tired and run down” and “I worry that this job is hardening me emotionally” are representative items.

Pride in Work. Pride in work was measured using nine items (see Table 3.1). For the purposes of analysis, I summed respondents’ scores on these items to derive a mean score for each variable. Responses ranged from 0=Never to 7=Always. “I am proud of the work I do” and “I am doing something worthwhile in my job” are representative items.

Emotion Work. Emotion work was measured using three items shown in Table 3.1. The three items were calculated to assess emotion work, using the same 0 to 7 response scale. I hypothesized that the more emotion work that respondents perform, the more positive the respondents are about their work. I calculated respondents’ scores on these items to derive a mean score “I help co-workers feel better about themselves” and “I attempt to keep the peace by calming clashes between co-workers” are representative items.

Emotional Labor (Emotion Work Requirement). Emotional labor was measured using four items shown in Table 3.1. The four items were calculated to assess emotional labor, using the same 0 to 7 response scale. The items query the degree to which the worker is required to follow the rules of the organization. “My work requires me to guide people through sensitive and/or emotional issues,” “My job requires that I manage the emotions of others,” and “My work requires me to provide comfort to people who are in crisis” are representative items.

Job Autonomy. Job autonomy was measured using two items shown in Table 3.1, using the same 0 to 7 response scale. “I perform my job independently of supervision” and “I make my own decisions about how to do my work” represent items of the scale.

False Face Acting. False face acting was measured to indicate the extent to which the respondents suppress their own emotions while expressing another emotion for the purpose of the transaction, using five items shown in Table 3.1. “My job requires that I pretend to have emotions that I do not really feel” and “I cover or manage my own feelings so as to appear pleasant at work” are representative items.

3.2.6 Assessment of Construct Adequacy

Once the data were combined, item validity was evaluated using principal axis factoring analysis with varimax rotation (see Table 3.1). Items were retained if the item loaded on its intended construct at .40 or higher and did not have a cross loading of .40 or higher on another construct.

Table 3.1 Item Loadings

Dependent Variables:	Item Loading	Eigen Value	% Variances Explained
Construct: Burnout			
• I worry that this job is hardening me emotionally.	.52		
• I leave work feeling tired and run down.	.91		
• I leave work feeling emotionally exhausted.	.91		
• I leave work feeling unmotivated.	.50		
• I feel “used up” at the end of the workday.	.91		
		3.45	12.33
Construct: Pride in Work			
• My work is satisfying.	.84		
• My job provides career development opportunities.	.49		
• My job is interesting.	.74		
• I am proud of the work I do.	.75		
• I am doing something worthwhile in my job.	.75		
• I feel like my work makes a difference.	.70		
• To be effective, I must be creative in my work.	.48		
• I don’t feel like my work is a waste of time and energy.	.61		
• My work gives me a sense of personal accomplishment.	.83		
		5.09	18.21

Table 3.1 Item Loadings (Continued)

Independent Variables:	Item Loading	Eigen Value	% Variances Explained
Construct: Emotion Work			
• I help co-workers feel better about themselves.	.54		
• I attempt to keep the peace by calming clashes between co-workers	.70		
• I help co-workers deal with stresses and difficulties at work.	.81		
		1.71	6.12
Construct: Emotional Labor (Emotion Work Requirement)			
• My work requires me to guide people through sensitive and/or emotional issues.	.83		
• My work involves dealing with emotionally charged issues as a critical dimension of the job.	.83		
• My job requires that I manage the emotions of others.	.69		
• My work requires me to provide comfort to people who are in crisis.	.82		
		3.08	11.01
Construct: Job Autonomy			
• I perform my job independently of supervision.	.56		
• I make my own decisions about how to do my work.	.70		
		1.03	3.68
Construct: False Face Acting			
• My job requires me to be “artificially” or “professionally” friendly to clients, callers, citizens, etc.	.49		
• My job requires that I pretend to have emotions that I do not really feel.	.54		
• My job requires that I hide my true feelings about a situation.	.65		
• I cover or manage my own feelings so as to appear pleasant at work.	.42		
• My job requires that I am nice to people no matter how they treat me.	.45		
		1.84	6.57

3.2.7 Preliminary Results

For the subsequent analyses, I used a summated scale based on the factors identified by the factor analysis. A summated scale is formed by combining several individual variables into a single composite measure. In simple terms, all of the variables loading highly on a factor are combined, and the total—or more commonly the average score of the variables—is used as a replacement variable. A summated scale provides two specific benefits. First, it provides a means of overcoming to some extent the measurement error inherent in all measured variables. Measurement error is the degree to which the observed values are not representative of the “true” values due to any number of reasons, ranging from actual errors (e.g., data entry errors) to the inability of individuals to accurately provide information. The impact of measurement error is to partially mask any relationships (e.g., correlations or comparison of group means) and make the estimation of multivariate models more difficult. The summated scale reduces measurement error by using multiple indicators (variables) to reduce the reliance on a single response. By using the “average” or “typical” response to a set of related variables, the measurement error that might occur in a single question will be reduced.

A second benefit of the summated scale is its ability to represent the multiple aspects of a concept in a single measure. Many times we employ more variables in our multivariate models in an attempt to represent the many facets of a concept that we know is quite complex (Hair et al., 2005). But in doing so, we complicate the interpretation of the results because of the redundancy in the items associated with the concept. Thus, we would like not only to accommodate the “richer” descriptions of concepts by using multiple variables, but also to maintain parsimony in the number of variables in our multivariate models. The summated scale, when properly constructed, does combine the multiple indicators into a single measure representing what is held in common across the set of measures. On the contrary, in the case of using the factor score, which is computed based on the factor loadings of all variables on the factor, although the researcher is able to characterize a factor by the variables with the highest loadings, consideration must also be given to the loadings of other variables, albeit lower, and their influence on the factor score.

One of the main disadvantages, however, of using factor scores is that they are not easily replicated across studies because they are based on the factor matrix, which is derived separately in each study. Also, in studies where data are used not only in the original sample but in a combination of two or more data sets, factor scores are not appropriate. Therefore, I used the summated scale for the following analyses.

The analysis begins by examining the bivariate correlations between all independent and dependent variables. I then present the results of two regression equations estimating the effects of emotion work, emotional labor, job autonomy, and false face acting on pride in work and burnout.

Means, standard deviations, intercorrelations, and construct reliability estimates are shown in Table 3.2. All reliability estimates were above .60, which many researchers regard as sufficient to justify using a scale (Bartee, 2004). Turning to the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient presented in Table 4, the results indicates that *emotion work* was positively associated with emotional labor. Looking at the correlation among the outcome measures of job conditions, both *emotion work* and *emotional labor* were positively associated with *pride in work*. While emotional labor was positively related to burnout, the correlation between emotion work and burnout was insignificant. This suggests that employees are more likely to feel burnout when the pressure to follow the rules dictated by the organizations overwhelms their nature to volunteer to follow the rules. In other words, the more they act out of their own will to perform emotion work, the less likely they will feel burnout.

On the subject of burnout, the correlation between false face acting and burnout is intriguing. The significant correlation of .306 shows a positive relationship between the two. This result suggests that when workers encounter a situation where they must suppress their original feelings to get the job done, they struggle. Results also indicate a positive correlation between emotion work, emotional labor, and pride in work. Of note, although both emotion work and emotional labor were positively associated with pride in work (.334 and .350, respectively), which suggests that although the requirement for performing emotion work may lead them to burnout, their pride and image of the nature of their work is not affected. This result is notable to the extent that employees consider civic duty to be

more important than their own personal goals and that what matters to them personally is of secondary importance where the priority is serving the public.

Table 3.2 Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Construct Reliability Estimates.

Variable	Mean	Std. Dev.	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Emotional Labor (Emotion Work Requirement)	4.25	1.71	(0.91)	.264**	.350**	.316**	.351**	-.100
2. Burnout	3.97	1.35		(0.88)	-.332**	.306**	.009	-.079
3. Pride in Work	5.18	1.06			(0.88)	.000	.334**	.096
4. False Face Acting	4.49	1.02				(0.67)	.326**	.052
5. Emotion Work	4.25	1.28					(0.77)	.081
6. Job Autonomy	5.53	1.01						(0.61)

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

* Listwise N=333

* Alphas for each construct are noted in parentheses.

One-way between-groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of the nature of organization on the level of emotion work (see Table 3.3). There was no statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in emotion work scores for the four agencies [$F(3, 354) = 1.7, p = .16$].

Table 3.3 One-Way Analysis of Variance

Descriptives

Emotion Work

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
DOACS	58	4.3276	1.46232	.19201	3.9431	4.7121	1.00	7.00
911	32	4.6667	1.32795	.23475	4.1879	5.1454	2.00	7.00
DOC	133	4.2757	1.25496	.10882	4.0604	4.4909	2.00	7.00
OPG	135	4.1160	1.19029	.10244	3.9134	4.3187	1.33	7.00
Total	358	4.2588	1.27756	.06752	4.1261	4.3916	1.00	7.00

[$F(3, 354)=1.7, p=.16$]

Table 3.4 Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analyses for Variables Predicting Pride In Work

Variable	B	SE B	β	R ²	R Square Change
Model 1				.10	.098**
Emotion Work	.259	0.042	.314*		
Model 2				.16	.061**
Emotion Work	0.188	0.043	.228*		
Emotional Labor	0.16	0.032	.261*		
Model 3				.18	.025**
Emotion Work	0.22	0.044	.267*		
Emotional Labor	0.187	0.033	.304*		
False Face Acting	-0.176	0.054	-.172*		
Model 4				.21	.022**
Emotion Work	0.209	0.043	.253*		
Emotional Labor	0.202	0.033	.329*		
False Face Acting	-0.19	0.054	-.185*		
Job Autonomy	0.158	0.051	.152*		

N = 357 for Pride In Work (*ps < .05); **indicates a Sig. F Change < .05)

3.2.8 Predictors of Pride in Work

A hierarchical regression was performed between the scores of pride in work for the public servants as the dependent variable and emotion work, emotional labor, false face acting, and job autonomy as independent variables (see Table 3.4). The table shows that with the full model explains 21 percent of the variance in the public servants' pride in work. The standardized coefficients in the Model 2 indicate that emotional labor makes the strongest unique contribution to explaining the dependent variable at .261, when the variance explained by all other variables, in this case emotion work, in the model is controlled for. The Beta value for emotion work was slightly lower (.228), indicating that it made less of a contribution. The value of R Square Change in Model 2 is .061, which means that emotion work and emotional labor explain an additional 6.1 percent of the variance in pride in work. This was a statistically significant contribution, as indicated by the Sig. F change value at .000.

In Model 3 of the Table 3.4, emotional labor had also the strongest unique contribution to explaining the dependent variable at .304. Emotion work was slightly lower (.267). False face acting was statistically significant but had a negative effect on pride in work (-.172). This suggests that while suppressing the workers' own emotional feelings reduces their pride in work, emotional labor plays a positive role for pride in work as the result shows that it is positively related to pride in work. Although emotional labor, which is defined as the work that is required and not voluntary (see Guy, 2005), was often described as a negative factor in workers' performance, at least the public sector workers seemed to embody the requirements of emotion work as part of their job. This result in part supports the argument that when emotional labor involves management of others' emotions, it can be experienced as empowering (Leidner, 1993; Stenross & Kleinman, 1989; Tolich, 1993). As illustrated in Table 3.1, requiring the public servants to display many different emotions when interacting with others, although difficult, did not affect them to the extent that their pride in work diminished. Although examining the positions that each participant held would help to validate this outcome, it is beyond the scope of this paper.

The full Model 4 in Table 3.4 indicates that emotional labor was still the most contributing factor in predicting pride in work ($\beta = .329$), followed by emotion work (β

= .253), false face acting ($\beta = -.185$), and job autonomy ($\beta = .152$). All four variables were statistically significant in predicting pride in work. All variables (emotion work, emotional labor, and job autonomy) were statistically significant and positively associated with pride in work, except for false face acting. The full model was significant [$F(4, 344) = 22.37, p < .0005$]. The fact that acknowledging their requirements for interpersonal skills to cope effectively in various interactions was the most effective factor that added to the higher feelings of pride in work warrants further examination as to how and whether emotional labor affects emotion work as not everyone has the same intensity of emotion work.

Table 3.5 Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analyses for Variables Predicting Burnout

Variable	B	SE B	β	R ²	R Square Change
Model 1				.00	.000
Emotion Work	0.012	0.057	0.011		
Model 2				.08	.083
Emotion Work	-0.094	0.058	-0.089		
Emotional Labor	0.24	0.043	.305*		
Model 3				.14	.062
Emotion Work	-0.159	0.057	-.150*		
Emotional Labor	0.186	0.043	.236*		
False Face Acting	0.355	0.071	.270*		
Model 4				.15	.007
Emotion Work	-0.15	0.057	-.142*		
Emotional Labor	0.175	0.043	.223*		
False Face Acting	0.365	0.071	.277*		
Job Autonomy	-0.113	0.067	-0.085		

N = 358 for Burnout. (*ps < .05).

3.2.9 Predictors of Burnout

In predicting burnout, as shown in Model 2 in Table 3.5, emotion work was negatively associated with burnout in all models except for Model 1 where emotion work was the sole independent variable. In Model 2, emotion work was negatively associated but was not statistically significant. Emotional labor, however, was positively related to burnout and was statistically significant ($\beta = .305$). When false face acting was added to Model 3, all variables included in the model were statistically significant. Emotion work, however, still

had a negative effect on burnout. The full model, Model 4, added job autonomy as the fourth variable. Job autonomy was negatively related to burnout but was not statistically significant. All models shown in Table 3.5 were statistically significant ($p < .0005$).

As Table 3.5 has shown, emotional labor was a positive, significant factor in predicting burnout, which is interesting as it was also statistically significant and had a positive impact on pride in work. The findings suggest that while it can lead public service workers to feelings of burnout, the burnout does not necessarily affect their pride in work.

The performance of emotion work requires active engagement with the wholeness of the job and the agency mission. It is this active engagement that provides the energy, commitment, and sense of priorities that are essential. It also sets the stage for pride in the work performed. For government to retain and further develop its mission, which include transparency, accountability, and trust, we need to look no further than *pride*. Government workers need pride just for the pure fact that they represent government. However, as the regression results show, the exact relationships between emotion work and its antecedents warrant further examination in order to validate the true identity of each factor for pride in work and burnout. Thus, the following section will examine in greater details the relationships among emotion work, emotional labor, false face acting, and job autonomy and how those relationships both directly and indirectly affect both pride in work and burnout.

3.3 Proposed Research

The preliminary findings indicate that emotional labor constructs are positively related to pride in work. However, the separate regression analysis for each outcome of interest is not pragmatic even in the situations when the outcomes may be naturally related. Although both emotion work and emotional labor were found to be significantly, positively related to pride in work, it is difficult to assess the relationship between emotion work and emotional labor and vice versa, or how emotion work affects pride in work in conjunction with false face acting. These interrelationships are difficult to assess in the regression analysis used earlier.

The proposed research further contributes to the literature in three ways. First, employing the method of structural equation modeling (SEM) extends the prior research findings by examining the specific internal relationships among emotional labor variables and the pride in work and burnout. SEM enables researchers to answer a set of interrelated research questions in a single, systematic, and comprehensive analysis by modeling the relationships among multiple independent and dependent constructs simultaneously. This differs greatly from most first generation regression models such as linear regression, LOGIT, ANOVA, and MANOVA, which can analyze only one level of linkage between independent and dependent variables at a time (Ullman, 2007). The proposed model of emotional labor shows the need to explore the internal relationships among constructs. It is an appropriate technique to capture the simultaneous relationships among these constructs.

SEM permits complicated variable relationships to be expressed through hierarchical or non-hierarchical, recursive or non-recursive structural equations, presenting a more complete picture of the entire model (Hanushek & Jackson, 1977; Blalock, 1969). Since the intricate causal networks enabled by SEM characterize real-world processes better than simple correlation-based models, SEM is more suited for the mathematical modeling of complex processes to serve both theory (Blalock, 1969) and practice (Dubin, 1976). Unlike regression models, SEM not only assesses the structural model – the assumed causation among a set of dependent and independent constructs – but, in the same analysis, also evaluates the measurement model – loadings of observed items (measurements) on their expected latent variables (constructs). The combined analysis of the measurement and the structural model enables the measurement errors of the observed variables to be analyzed as an integral part of the model and to combine factor analysis with hypotheses testing. The result will be a more rigorous analysis of the proposed research model and a better methodological assessment tool (Bollen, 1989; Bullock, et al. 1994; Joreskog & Sorbom, 1989). SEM techniques also provide fuller information about the extent to which the research model is supported by the data than regression techniques.

Second, this study further contributes to the literature by examining a broader spectrum of public sector workplaces. This study combines the data collected by Guy, Newman, and Mastracci (2008) with the sample collected from the Florida Department of

Agriculture and Consumer Services. Their sample size consisted of 308 participants from the Office of Public Guardian, Department of Corrections, and 911 Call Takers. They employed the same questionnaire as I used for my survey on the Division of Consumer Services employees. The combination of data sets will overcome the constraint of small sample size and will add additional types of occupations to the sample. This will provide a comprehensive model of emotional labor that is representative of the public sector.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.1 Overview of the Analysis

Data were analyzed using the SAS System's CALIS procedure (SAS Institute Inc., 1989), and the models tested were covariance structure models with multiple indicators for all latent constructs. Standard deviations and inter-correlations for the study's initial 28 manifest variables are presented in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6 Standard Deviations and Inter-Correlations for Manifest Variables

	S.D.	Intercorrelations							
		v1	v2	v3	v4	v5	v6	v7	v8
v1	1.796	1	0.55499	0.61778	0.26554	0.53949	-0.23836	-0.24392	-0.07773
v2	1.606	0.55499	1	0.87939	0.52759	0.85571	-0.31491	-0.25383	-0.14209
v3	1.706	0.61778	0.87939	1	0.47554	0.8737	-0.30976	-0.23308	-0.12071
v4	1.243	0.26554	0.52759	0.47554	1	0.48427	-0.44605	-0.35304	-0.30697
v5	1.725	0.53949	0.85571	0.8737	0.48427	1	-0.27734	-0.23812	-0.12435
v6	1.536	-0.23836	-0.31491	-0.30976	-0.44605	-0.27734	1	0.46041	0.71068
v7	1.819	-0.24392	-0.25383	-0.23308	-0.35304	-0.23812	0.46041	1	0.39237
v8	1.325	-0.07773	-0.14209	-0.12071	-0.30697	-0.12435	0.71068	0.39237	1
v9	1.126	-0.12243	-0.13642	-0.11168	-0.2655	-0.10519	0.65522	0.31626	0.61202
v10	1.221	-0.09449	-0.11097	-0.08611	-0.25106	-0.09169	0.64119	0.2294	0.6008
v11	1.424	-0.16341	-0.18608	-0.18223	-0.36322	-0.18658	0.60547	0.30484	0.52617
v12	1.603	-0.01342	-0.05298	0.00989	-0.23283	0.02991	0.39205	0.36449	0.44368
v13	1.481	-0.32887	-0.34796	-0.37633	-0.26903	-0.36713	0.60048	0.32137	0.41794
v14	1.485	-0.18816	-0.21139	-0.22219	-0.40271	-0.22799	0.73286	0.4066	0.60213
v15	1.273	0.00884	-0.02156	0.02746	-0.17878	-0.00123	0.36393	0.25214	0.35575
v16	1.782	0.04046	-0.06872	-0.02681	-0.13203	-0.05423	0.16386	0.11982	0.15722
v17	1.535	0.09974	0.09154	0.15738	-0.05934	0.10901	0.22779	0.09273	0.26005
v18	1.155	-0.08149	-0.10342	-0.1108	-0.0369	-0.10732	-0.03659	0.00099	-0.10232
v19	1.230	-0.03894	-0.01789	-0.02465	-0.06099	0.01622	0.1835	0.02445	0.10502
v20	1.898	0.27419	0.14138	0.2177	-0.05912	0.12346	0.30244	0.07954	0.4267
v21	1.944	0.35024	0.2446	0.3236	0.00275	0.21288	0.22314	0.00044	0.3635
v22	1.843	0.37864	0.24641	0.31084	-0.00538	0.23032	0.11662	-0.02515	0.2406
v23	1.959	0.30377	0.12202	0.23275	-0.07966	0.11815	0.24221	-0.01257	0.35858
v24	1.572	0.07817	0.06217	0.05611	-0.06305	0.05739	0.06612	0.07012	0.09301
v25	1.525	0.45913	0.36242	0.40492	0.14069	0.36785	-0.21151	-0.06881	-0.07524
v26	1.634	0.38359	0.28406	0.28488	0.06163	0.27953	-0.07509	-0.03431	0.02804
v27	1.549	0.11968	0.08624	0.0911	0.00503	0.10297	0.03798	0.08888	0.05677
v28	1.520	0.09342	0.05937	0.08846	0.03348	0.08478	0.04072	0.06504	0.11003

Table 3.6 Standard Deviations and Inter-Correlations for Manifest Variables (Continued)

	S.D.	v9	v10	v11	v12	v13	v14	v15	v16
v1	1.796	-0.12243	-0.09449	-0.16341	-0.01342	-0.32887	-0.18816	0.00884	0.04046
v2	1.606	-0.13642	-0.11097	-0.18608	-0.05298	-0.34796	-0.21139	-0.02156	-0.06872
v3	1.706	-0.11168	-0.08611	-0.18223	0.00989	-0.37633	-0.22219	0.02746	-0.02681
v4	1.243	-0.2655	-0.25106	-0.36322	-0.23283	-0.26903	-0.40271	-0.17878	-0.13203
v5	1.725	-0.10519	-0.09169	-0.18658	0.02991	-0.36713	-0.22799	-0.00123	-0.05423
v6	1.536	0.65522	0.64119	0.60547	0.39205	0.60048	0.73286	0.36393	0.16386
v7	1.819	0.31626	0.2294	0.30484	0.36449	0.32137	0.4066	0.25214	0.11982
v8	1.325	0.61202	0.6008	0.52617	0.44368	0.41794	0.60213	0.35575	0.15722
v9	1.126	1	0.67638	0.52587	0.3638	0.46114	0.6385	0.36379	0.18612
v10	1.221	0.67638	1	0.62967	0.35815	0.51758	0.64368	0.30803	0.11643
v11	1.424	0.52587	0.62967	1	0.33314	0.539	0.79005	0.33969	0.12919
v12	1.603	0.3638	0.35815	0.33314	1	0.21068	0.4071	0.33068	0.14282
v13	1.481	0.46114	0.51758	0.539	0.21068	1	0.59877	0.1673	0.05288
v14	1.485	0.6385	0.64368	0.79005	0.4071	0.59877	1	0.34561	0.17958
v15	1.273	0.36379	0.30803	0.33969	0.33068	0.1673	0.34561	1	0.43559
v16	1.782	0.18612	0.11643	0.12919	0.14282	0.05288	0.17958	0.43559	1
v17	1.535	0.26855	0.20381	0.3029	0.2091	0.04418	0.25083	0.58358	0.61858
v18	1.155	0.05499	-0.00735	0.01211	-0.04855	0.01702	-0.0295	0.0493	0.05738
v19	1.230	0.30775	0.21632	0.11302	0.07297	0.08045	0.16393	0.115	0.06159
v20	1.898	0.27329	0.38516	0.4116	0.33266	0.19933	0.3685	0.31095	0.13109
v21	1.944	0.19382	0.35653	0.34192	0.29055	0.12524	0.29275	0.23391	0.09398
v22	1.843	0.1666	0.19072	0.21151	0.25831	0.00589	0.18814	0.31411	0.19743
v23	1.959	0.26332	0.35656	0.38593	0.27231	0.11976	0.31025	0.33908	0.21282
v24	1.572	0.14376	0.11768	0.04658	0.10296	-0.00259	0.07014	0.28282	0.256
v25	1.525	-0.08049	-0.14488	-0.17315	0.008	-0.301	-0.14064	0.06563	0.06998
v26	1.634	-0.06767	-0.05804	-0.02117	0.07139	-0.16721	-0.0765	0.11464	0.05164
v27	1.549	0.07773	0.04937	0.01672	0.08282	-0.06827	0.05331	0.30057	0.25235
v28	1.520	0.13885	0.05428	0.05353	0.05762	-0.07717	0.06857	0.13419	0.33898

Table 3.6 Standard Deviations and Inter-Correlations for Manifest Variables (Continued)

	S.D.	v17	v18	v19	v20	v21	v22	v23	v24
v1	1.796	0.09974	-0.08149	-0.03894	0.27419	0.35024	0.37864	0.30377	0.07817
v2	1.606	0.09154	-0.10342	-0.01789	0.14138	0.2446	0.24641	0.12202	0.06217
v3	1.706	0.15738	-0.1108	-0.02465	0.2177	0.3236	0.31084	0.23275	0.05611
v4	1.243	-0.05934	-0.0369	-0.06099	-0.05912	0.00275	-0.00538	-0.07966	-0.06305
v5	1.725	0.10901	-0.10732	0.01622	0.12346	0.21288	0.23032	0.11815	0.05739
v6	1.536	0.22779	-0.03659	0.1835	0.30244	0.22314	0.11662	0.24221	0.06612
v7	1.819	0.09273	0.00099	0.02445	0.07954	0.00044	-0.02515	-0.01257	0.07012
v8	1.325	0.26005	-0.10232	0.10502	0.4267	0.3635	0.2406	0.35858	0.09301
v9	1.126	0.26855	0.05499	0.30775	0.27329	0.19382	0.1666	0.26332	0.14376
v10	1.221	0.20381	-0.00735	0.21632	0.38516	0.35653	0.19072	0.35656	0.11768
v11	1.424	0.3029	0.01211	0.11302	0.4116	0.34192	0.21151	0.38593	0.04658
v12	1.603	0.2091	-0.04855	0.07297	0.33266	0.29055	0.25831	0.27231	0.10296
v13	1.481	0.04418	0.01702	0.08045	0.19933	0.12524	0.00589	0.11976	-0.00259
v14	1.485	0.25083	-0.0295	0.16393	0.3685	0.29275	0.18814	0.31025	0.07014
v15	1.273	0.58358	0.0493	0.115	0.31095	0.23391	0.31411	0.33908	0.28282
v16	1.782	0.61858	0.05738	0.06159	0.13109	0.09398	0.19743	0.21282	0.256
v17	1.535	1	-0.01987	0.08178	0.34646	0.28722	0.38669	0.40221	0.19238
v18	1.155	-0.01987	1	0.4308	-0.14367	-0.17445	-0.16985	-0.11249	0.01779
v19	1.230	0.08178	0.4308	1	0.03985	-0.0241	-0.06889	0.02611	0.02828
v20	1.898	0.34646	-0.14367	0.03985	1	0.84429	0.66916	0.79287	0.13874
v21	1.944	0.28722	-0.17445	-0.0241	0.84429	1	0.66082	0.75671	0.09976
v22	1.843	0.38669	-0.16985	-0.06889	0.66916	0.66082	1	0.70325	0.17194
v23	1.959	0.40221	-0.11249	0.02611	0.79287	0.75671	0.70325	1	0.17577
v24	1.572	0.19238	0.01779	0.02828	0.13874	0.09976	0.17194	0.17577	1
v25	1.525	0.11019	-0.07102	-0.07699	0.12697	0.16351	0.40548	0.17366	0.22391
v26	1.634	0.11223	0.01342	-0.0299	0.21628	0.20504	0.40405	0.28383	0.30611
v27	1.549	0.20805	0.05798	0.12693	0.12796	0.10447	0.17701	0.1811	0.26019
v28	1.520	0.19125	0.09645	0.12525	0.12589	0.09877	0.13226	0.19526	0.38367

Table 3.6 Standard Deviations and Inter-Correlations for Manifest Variables (Continued)

	S.D.	v25	v26	v27	v28
v1	1.796	0.45913	0.38359	0.11968	0.09342
v2	1.606	0.36242	0.28406	0.08624	0.05937
v3	1.706	0.40492	0.28488	0.0911	0.08846
v4	1.243	0.14069	0.06163	0.00503	0.03348
v5	1.725	0.36785	0.27953	0.10297	0.08478
v6	1.536	-0.21151	-0.07509	0.03798	0.04072
v7	1.819	-0.06881	-0.03431	0.08888	0.06504
v8	1.325	-0.07524	0.02804	0.05677	0.11003
v9	1.126	-0.08049	-0.06767	0.07773	0.13885
v10	1.221	-0.14488	-0.05804	0.04937	0.05428
v11	1.424	-0.17315	-0.02117	0.01672	0.05353
v12	1.603	0.008	0.07139	0.08282	0.05762
v13	1.481	-0.301	-0.16721	-0.06827	-0.07717
v14	1.485	-0.14064	-0.0765	0.05331	0.06857
v15	1.273	0.06563	0.11464	0.30057	0.13419
v16	1.782	0.06998	0.05164	0.25235	0.33898
v17	1.535	0.11019	0.11223	0.20805	0.19125
v18	1.155	-0.07102	0.01342	0.05798	0.09645
v19	1.230	-0.07699	-0.0299	0.12693	0.12525
v20	1.898	0.12697	0.21628	0.12796	0.12589
v21	1.944	0.16351	0.20504	0.10447	0.09877
v22	1.843	0.40548	0.40405	0.17701	0.13226
v23	1.959	0.17366	0.28383	0.1811	0.19526
v24	1.572	0.22391	0.30611	0.26019	0.38367
v25	1.525	1	0.47683	0.13959	0.21273
v26	1.634	0.47683	1	0.31436	0.24374
v27	1.549	0.13959	0.31436	1	0.29012
v28	1.520	0.21273	0.24374	0.29012	1

The present analysis followed a two-step procedure based in part on an approach recommended by Anderson and Gerbing (1988). In the first step, a measurement model was developed using confirmatory factor analysis that demonstrated an acceptable fit to the data. In step two, the measurement model was modified so that it came to represent the theoretical (causal) model of interest. This theoretical model was then tested and revised until a theoretically meaningful and statistically acceptable model was found.

4.2 The Measurement Model

In path analysis with latent variables, a measurement model describes the nature of the relationship between (a) a number of latent variables, or factors, and (b) the manifest indicator variables that measure those latent variables. The model investigated in this study consisted of six latent variables corresponding to the five constructs of the emotion work model: emotion work, emotional labor requirement, pride in work, burnout, and false face acting. Each of the five latent variables in the final measurement model was measured by at least three manifest indicator variables.

4.2.1 The initial measurement model.

The author has followed Bentler's (1989) convention of identifying latent variables with the letter "F" (for Factor), and labeling manifest variables with the letter "V" (for Variable). Figure 2 uses these conventions in identifying the six initial latent constructs investigated in this study, as well as the indicators that measure these constructs. The figure shows that the burnout construct (F1) is measured by manifest variables V1 through V5, the pride in work construct (F2) is measured by manifest variables V6 through V14, the emotion work (F3) is measured by manifest variables V15 through V17, the job autonomy (F4) is measured by manifest variables V18 and V19, the emotional labor requirement (F5) is measured by manifest variables V20 through V23, and the false face acting (F6) is measured by manifest variables V24 through V28.

The measurement model assessed in the first stages of this analysis was not identical to the Figure 2, because the model in that figure posits certain unidirectional causal relationships between the latent constructs. The measurement model, on the other hand, posits no unidirectional paths between latent variables. Instead, in a measurement model, a covariance is estimated to connect each latent variable with every other latent variable. In a figure, this would be indicated by a curved, two-headed arrow connecting

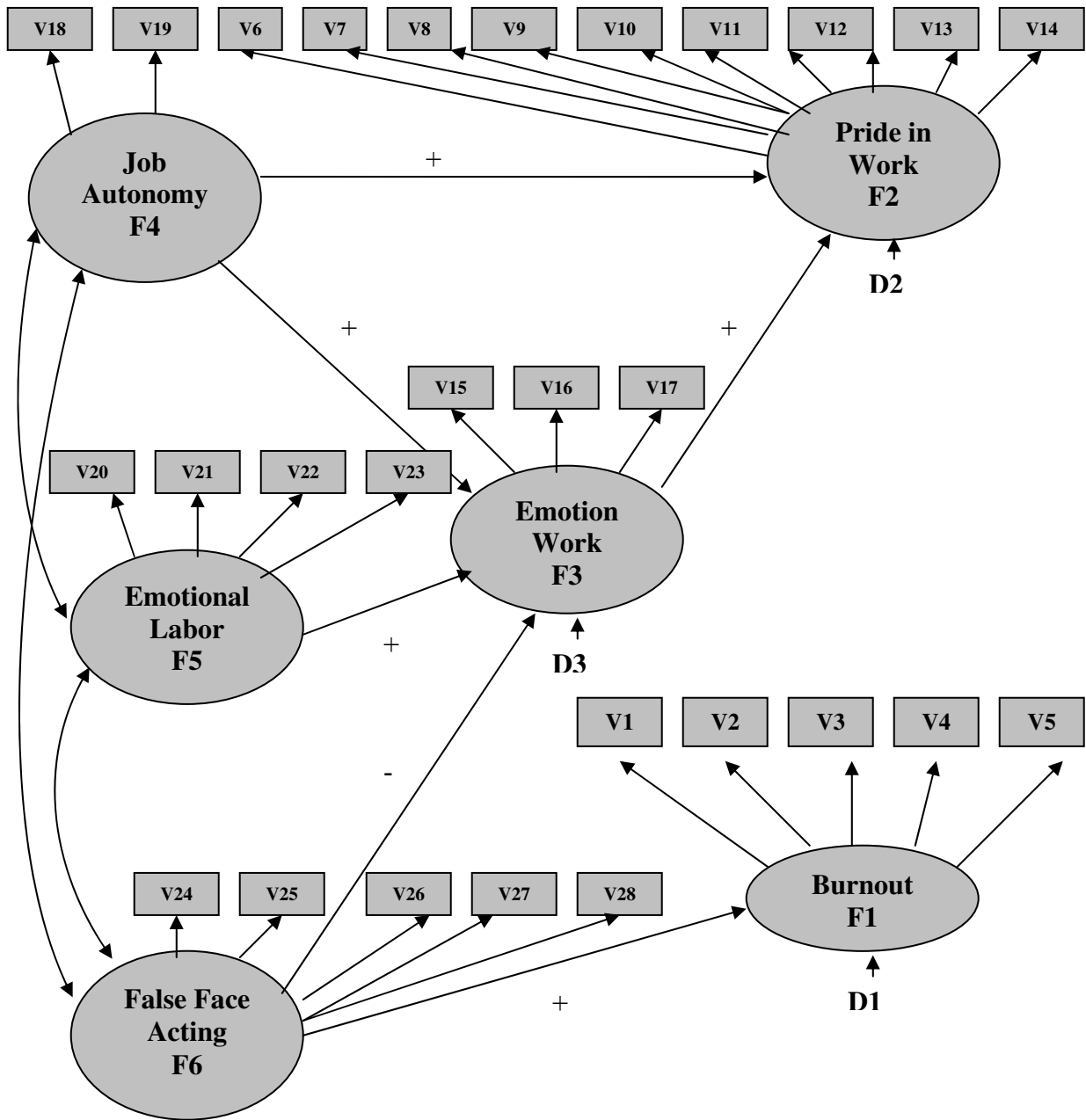


Figure 2. The Initial Theoretical Model, Including Model Study

each F variable to every other F variable. In other words, a measurement model is equivalent to a confirmatory factor analysis model in which each latent construct is allowed to covary with every other latent construct.

This initial measurement model was first based on the results of confirmatory factor analysis from the preliminary analysis using the maximum likelihood method. The chi-square value for the initial measurement model, however, was statistically significant, $X^2(335, N = 333) = 1076.63, p < .001$. Technically, when the proper assumptions are met, this chi-square statistic may be used to test the null hypothesis that the model fits the data. In practice, however, the statistic is very sensitive to sample size and departures from multivariate normality, and will very often result in the rejection of a well-fitting model. James et al. (1982) mention that the chi-square statistic will frequently be significant even if the model provides a good fit. Hatcher (2004) noted that the significance of chi-square statistic occurs particularly with CFA models, which tend to be more complex than simple path analysis model. For this reason, it has been recommended that the model chi-square statistic be used as a goodness of fit index, with smaller chi-square values (relative to the degrees of freedom) indicative of a better model fit (James, Mulaik, & Brett, 1982; Joreskog & Sorbom, 1989). Therefore, the author assumed that the CFA model used in the current study can still fit the data even if p is significant (see Hatcher, 1994).

A number of other results, however, indicated that there was in fact a problem with the model's fit. First of all, reviewing the non-normed fit index and the comparative fit index, as recommended by Bentler and Bonett (1980) and Bentler (1989), respectively, as overall goodness of fit indices, has shown the lack of model fit. Values over .9 on the NNFI and CFI indicate an acceptable fit (Bentler, 1989; Marsh et al., 1988). The values for CFI and NNFI were .86 and .84, respectively, indicating that the present model lacks an acceptable fit.

Second, significance tests for factor loadings were reviewed. In this analysis, a factor loading is equivalent to a path coefficient from a latent factor to an indicator variable (Hatcher, 1994). Thus, a nonsignificant factor loading means that the involved indicator variable was not doing a good job of measuring the underlying factor, and should possibly be reassigned or dropped (1994). There were two indicator variables, V18 and V19, with

absolute t values less than 1.96. T values greater than 1.960 are significant at $p < .05$; those greater than 2.576 are significant at $p < .01$; and those greater than 3.291 are significant at $p < .001$ (Hatcher, 1994). The obtained t values showed that all factor loadings were significant at $p < .001$, except for the two indicator variables that accounted for the job autonomy construct, which were less than 1.960. The absence of near-zero standard errors indicated that there is no estimation problem (see Hatcher, 1994).

Third, reviewing standardized loadings has shown that the loadings range in size from .43 to .95, and seven of them were under .60. Fourth, if the model provides a good fit to the data, entries in the residual matrix are expected to be zero or near-zero (Hatcher, 1994). Hatcher describes that normalized residuals over 2.00 are generally considered large and therefore problematic. The result indicated that although the distribution was centered on zero and symmetrical, it contained many large residuals, another sign that the model lacks fit to the data. Fifth, technically, a latent factor may be assessed with just two indicators under certain conditions (Hatcher, 1994). However, models with only two indicator variables per factor often exhibit problems with identification and convergence, so it is recommended that each latent variable be assessed with at least three indicators (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Bentler & Chou, 1987; Lomax, 1982). To practice this recommendation, a latent factor was removed for the next phase because it only contained two indicator variables, V18 and V19. The result has also indicated several large residuals between certain indicator variables. Anderson and Gerbing (1988) describe that there are generally two reasons for misspecifications: wrong assignment and complexity. For example, certain indicator variables are incorrectly assigned to the factors whereas other indicator variables may be complex and are actually influenced by more than one factor (Hatcher, 1994). The author refrained from either dropping existing parameters based on the Walt test or adding new parameters based on results of Lagrange multipliers test because it is generally undesirable when developing a measurement model. This is because the theoretical model (to be assessed later) will be more easily interpreted if all of the indicators are unifactorial (if each indicator loads on only one factor) (Hatcher, 1994). The method used here was to drop complex indicator variables completely from the model. For the sake of clarity, the variables, V18 and V19, for job autonomy are deleted along with

other complex indicator variables from the initial measurement model, and the measurement model is re-estimated.

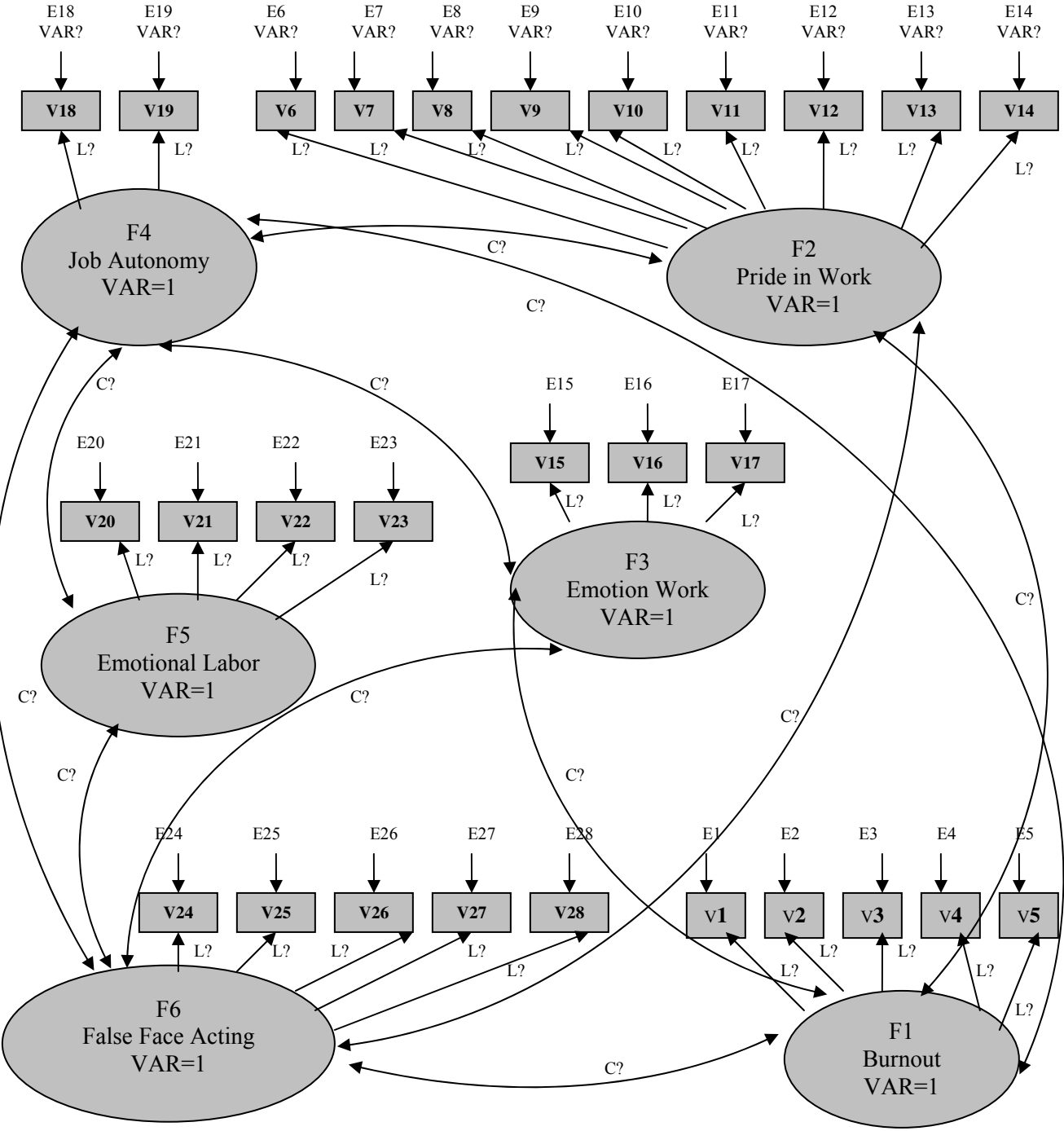


Figure 3. The Initial Measurement Model, Identifying All Parameters To Be Estimated (Completed Program Figure for Confirmatory Factor Analysis)

4.3 The revised measurement model.

Figure 4 shows the revised measurement model. The revised and final measurement model's chi-square value is 304.63, with 109 degrees of freedom, which represents a substantial drop from the initial measurement model that had values of 1076.63 for chi-square, with 335 degrees of freedom. This chi-square value was still, however, statistically significant at $p < .0001$. A review of standardized residuals has suggested that V1, V4, V6, V7, V9, V13, V14, V20, and V23 may be multifactorial and therefore are complex variables. By eliminating the indicators for job autonomy construct, and complex indicator variables, V1, V4, V6, V7, V9, V13, V14, V20, and V23, the model chi-square decreased by a quantity of 772, while the degrees of freedom decreased by only 226. Although the most effective way of improving the model's fit may involve modifying it so that there is a path, for example, from F5 to V1, this is generally undesirable when performing path analysis with latent variables because the main desire was to use only factorially simple indicators (Hatcher, 1994). A better choice in handling these complex variables would be to drop them from the analysis entirely (Hatcher, 1994). Model modifications are generally more desirable if they can bring about decrease in chi-square that is relatively large, compared to the change in degrees of freedom (Hatcher, 1994). Therefore, dropping those complex indicator variables was a good move.

Bentler's Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Bentler and Bonett's non-normed index (NNFI) are .937 and .921, respectively. These indices are not only higher than those observed with the initial model, they meet the minimum threshold of .9 to be acceptable.

The results of t tests that test the significance of the factor loadings indicated that the factor loadings for all 17 indicator variables were significantly different from zero and the observed t values were all greater than absolute value of plus or minus 1.96. Reviewing the standardized factor loadings indicated that the range of factor loadings was between .474 and .948. Only V12, V22, V24, V25, and V26 show standardized loadings less than .60, ranging from .474 (V12) to .565 (V22). The SAS System's CALIS procedure provides approximate standard errors for these coefficients which allow large-sample t tests of the null hypothesis that the coefficients are equal to zero in the population. The t scores

obtained for the coefficients in Table 3.7 range from 8.09 through 23.41, indicating that all factor loadings were significant ($p < .001$). This finding provides evidence supporting the convergent validity of the indicators (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988).

Reviewing the distribution of normalized residuals has indicated that the distribution of normalized residuals is fairly symmetrical, and is centered around zero. However, it still included a few large residuals between certain indicator variables.

Combined, these findings provide support for the revised measurement model. Next, several additional tests were conducted to assess the reliability and validity of the factors and indicators before accepting this revised model as my final measurement model. The results of a CFA (confirmatory factor analysis) using PROC CALIS procedure in SAS were used to assess item reliability, composite reliability, and variance extracted estimates.

Table 3.7 indicates that the indicator reliabilities (the square of the factor loadings) vary from a low of .26 for V24, to a high of .89 for V3. Some factors are measured by indicators which all display relatively high reliabilities. For example, F1 (Burnout) is measured by V2, V3, and V5, and the reliabilities for these indicators are .92, .94, and .91, respectively. Other factors are assessed by indicators relatively low reliabilities. For example, F3 (Emotion Work) is assessed by V15, V16, and V17, and the reliabilities for these indicators are only .46, .47, and .75, respectively. Also, as for the F5 (False Face Acting) that is assessed by V22, V24, V25, and V26, the reliabilities for these indicators are only .31, .26, .28, and .30. Composite reliability is conducted to see if each factor is acceptable.

When conducting research with a multi-item scale, the coefficient alpha reliability estimate for that scale is often computed (Cronbach, 1951). With other factors equal, alpha will be high if the various items that constitute the scale are strongly correlated with one another (Hatcher, 1994). Along with other interpretations, coefficient alpha may be interpreted conceptually as an estimate of the correlation between a given scale and an alternate form of the scale that includes the same number of items (Carmines & Zeller, 1988). Similarly, when performing confirmatory factor analysis, it is possible to compute a composite reliability index for each latent factor included in the model (Hatcher, 1994).

This index is analogous to coefficient alpha, and reflects the internal consistency of the indicators measuring a given factor (1994).

Table 3.7 shows that the composite reliability for Burnout is .951 in the final measurement model. Generally, the minimally acceptable level of reliability for instruments used in research is .60 or .70 although .70 is preferable (Hatcher, 1994). Clearly, the composite reliability for the burnout construct exceeds this requirement. The composite reliability for the emotion work requirement construct also clearly exceeds the requirement at .920. The pride in work construct, emotion work construct, and false face acting construct all also exceed the minimal requirement but are not as high as the reliability for either burnout or emotion work requirement. The composite reliabilities for pride in work construct, emotion work construct, and false face acting construct are .789, .793, and .708. The table also shows standardized loadings, t values, reliability, and variance extracted estimate. Variance extracted estimate assesses the amount of variance that is captured by an underlying factor in relation to the amount of variance due to measurement error (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hatcher, 1994). The variance extracted estimate for the burnout was .86, meaning that 86% of the variance is captured by the burnout construct, and only 13% ($1 - .867 = .13$) is due to measurement error. Fornell and Larcker (1981) suggest that it is desirable that constructs exhibit estimates of .50 or larger, because estimates less than .50 indicate that variance due to measurement error is larger than the variance captured by the factor. Emotion work construct and emotion work requirement construct have values that meet this requirement at .56 and .79, respectively. Again, 56% of the variance was captured by the emotion work construct, and 79% of the variance was captured by the emotion work requirement. Pride in work construct and false face acting construct, however, had values less than the minimal requirement at .49 and .29. Hatcher (1994) notes that this test, however, is quite conservative as variance extracted estimates very often will be below .50, even when reliabilities are acceptable. Taken as a group, however, the constructs in the model performed fairly well, and the findings support the reliability and validity of the constructs and their indicators. The revised measurement model was therefore retained as the study's final measurement model against which other models would be compared. Overall, an ideal fit for the measurement model was achieved as the comparative fit index

(CFI) and the non-normed fit index (NNFI) both exceeded .9. The absolute value of the t statistics for each factor loading also exceeded 1.96 and the standardized factor loadings were nontrivial in size. All of the composite reliabilities for the latent factors also exceeded .70.

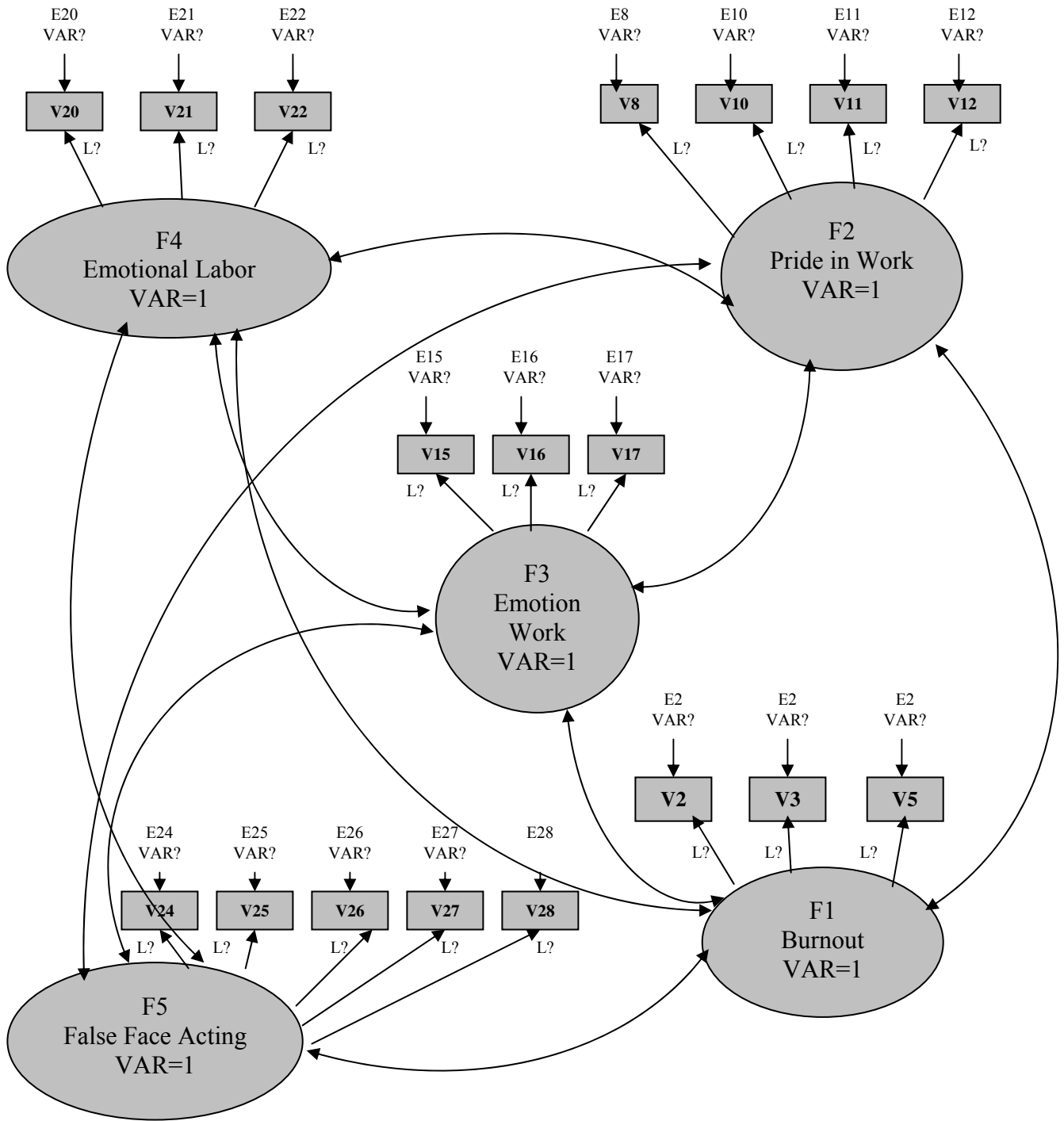


Figure 4. The Revised Measurement Model

Table 3.7 Properties of the Revised Measurement Model

Construct and Indicators	Standardized Loading	t*	Reliability	Variance Extracted Estimate
Burnout (F1)			0.951**	0.867
V2	0.928	22.56	0.861	
V3	0.948	23.42	0.899	
V5	0.917	22.11	0.841	
Pride in Work (F2)			0.789**	0.492
V8	0.748	14.98	0.559	
V10	0.777	15.75	0.604	
V11	0.763	15.37	0.582	
V12	0.475	8.6	0.226	
Emotion Work (F3)			0.794**	0.566
V15	0.682	13.04	0.465	
V16	0.688	13.17	0.473	
V17	0.871	17.33	0.758	
Emotional Labor (F4)			0.92**	0.794
V18	0.937	22.57	0.879	
V19	0.893	20.84	0.893	
V21	0.839	18.93	0.839	
False Face Acting (F5)			0.709**	0.294
V22	0.565	8.87	0.319	
V24	0.516	8.09	0.267	
V25	0.534	8.38	0.285	
V26	0.552	8.66	0.305	

* All t tests were significant at $p < .001$.

** Denotes composite reliability.

4.4 The Structural Model

4.4.1 The initial theoretical model. The initial theoretical model tested in the present study is identical to the one presented in Figure 4. Goodness of fit indices indicate that values on the NNFI and CFI were acceptable at .90 and .92, respectively. However, the value on NFI was unacceptable (below .9). A review of the model's residuals revealed that the distribution of normalized residuals was asymmetrical, and that too many of the normalized residuals were relatively large (in excess of 2.0).

A review of the standard errors for the factor loadings and path coefficients indicated none to be unacceptably small. Results showed that all factor loadings that were tested have t value greater than 1.96 and are therefore significantly different from zero. Results showed that all of the path coefficients were significant. The R² values for the study's endogenous variables indicated that the independent F variables accounted for 11% of the variance in Burnout, 32.5% of the variance in Pride in Work, and 25.8% of the variance in Emotion Work.

A review of causal paths indicated that links between all latent constructs proved to be significant. The nomological validity of a theoretical model can be tested by performing a chi-square difference test in which the theoretical model is compared to the measurement model (Hatcher, 1994). This is done by simply subtracting the chi-square values for the two models. The resulting chi-square difference value is 40.14 with the degrees of freedom being 3. With 3 degrees of freedom, the critical value of chi-square is 16.266 at $p < .001$. The obtained chi-square difference value of 40.14 is clearly greater than this critical value, meaning that there is a significant difference between the fit provided by the theoretical model and the measurement model. In other words, the theoretical model provides a fit to the data that is significantly worse than the fit provided by the measurement model. This finding fails to support the theoretical model's predictions concerning the relationships between the F variables in the structural portion of the model. This indicates that the initial theoretical model contains some serious misspecifications, and will have to be modified if it is to fit the data.

Given that it apparently is not possible to drop nonsignificant paths from the model, the Lagrange multiplier test was used to modify the initial theoretical model. Using the gamma matrix, by far the largest was for the F1:F4 path. The test estimated that the model chi-square would decrease by 32.22 (a significant amount) if a path were added that went from F4 (Emotion Work Requirement) to F1 (Burnout). Existing literature is consistent in which involuntary emotional labor leads to burnout and job turnover. Therefore, this path was added and re-estimated to improve fit in the following section.

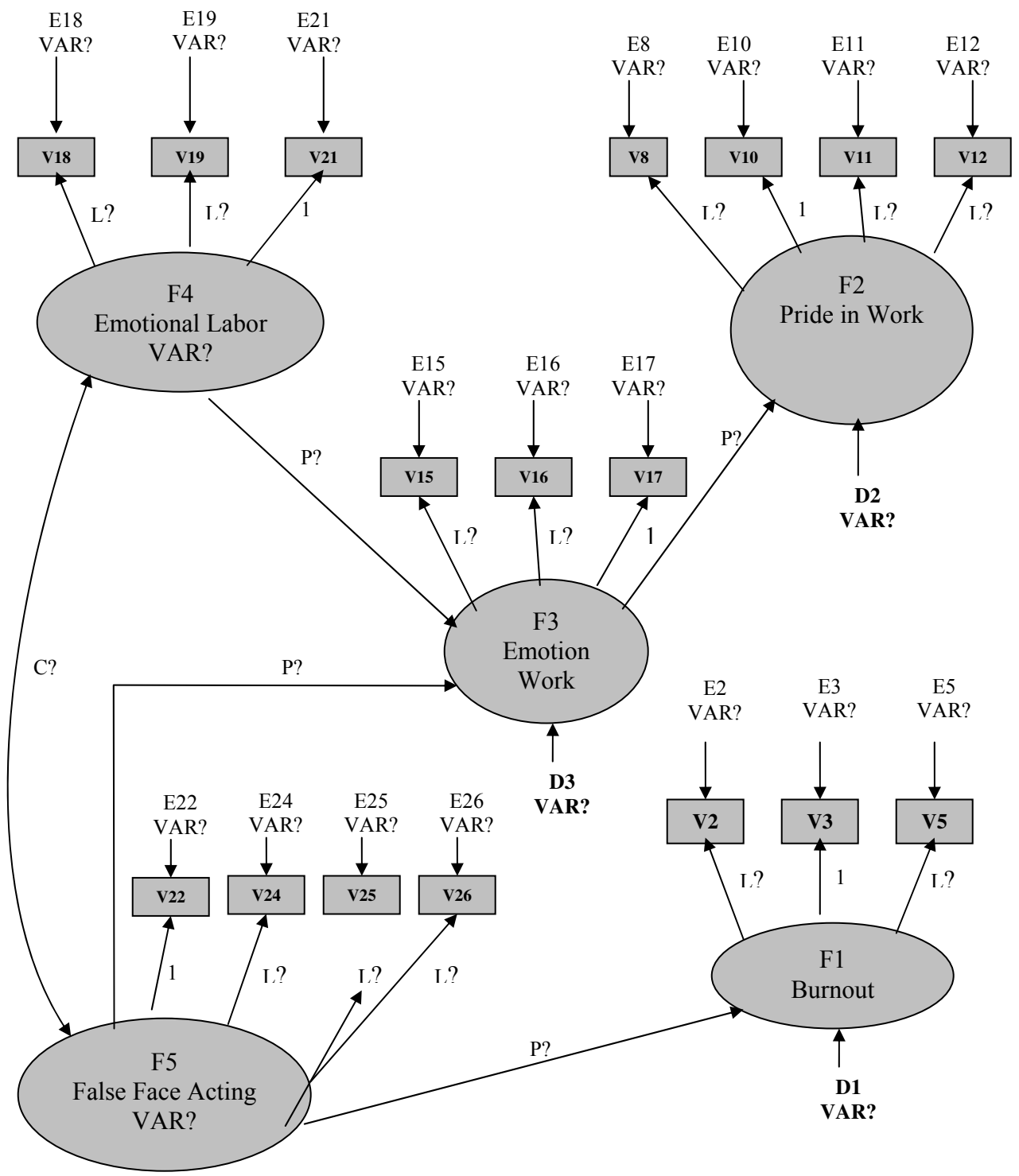


Figure 5: Initial Theoretical Model

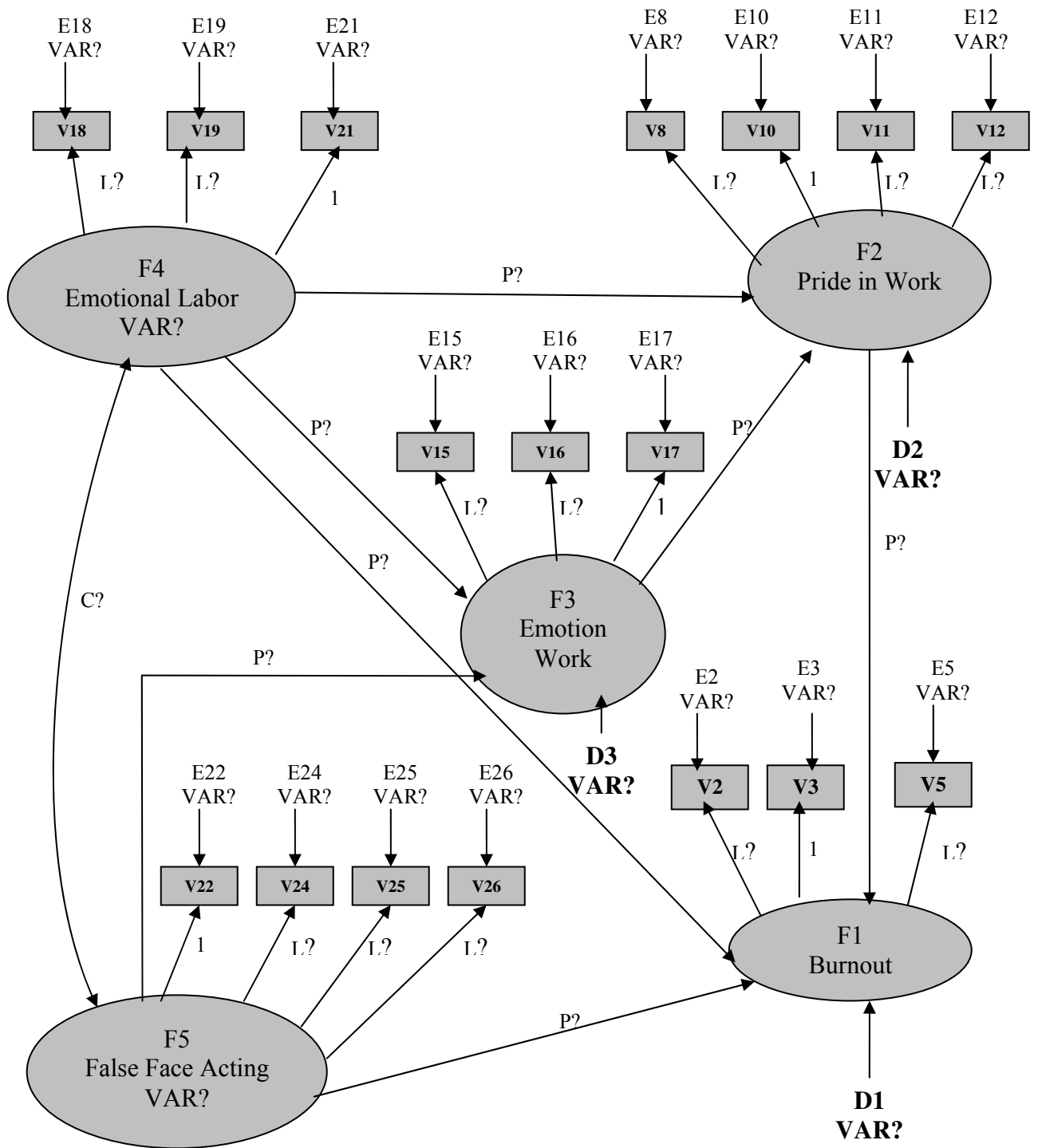


Figure 6. Revised Theoretical Model

4.4.2 The revised theoretical model. Two chi-square difference tests were first performed. First, to see if the model with the new path provides a fit to the data that is significantly better than the fit provided by the more constrained model, chi-square difference was tested. The chi-square difference value for the comparison was 36.3682 with the difference between the degrees of freedom for the two models being 1. Thus, the chi-square difference test was significant at $p < .001$. In other words, the test showed that the revised model 2 with the new path provides a fit that is significantly superior to that of the initial theoretical model.

The second chi-square difference test showed that the observed chi-square difference value of 3.77 is less than the critical value of chi-square for 2 degrees of freedom, meaning that there is no significant difference in the fit provided by the two models. This finding supports the validity of the revised theoretical model.

The CFI and NNFI were .936 and .922, respectively, above the recommended level of .9. Rest of the fit indices provided acceptable fit [GFI = .91; AGFI = .88; RMSEA = .071; NFI = .905; PNFI = .738]. The t values for all factor loadings were statistically significant, and all standardized factor loadings and path coefficients were nontrivial in absolute magnitude.

Technically, the revised theoretical model does not provide an “ideal fit,” as described earlier, because the model chi-square was still statistically significant. However, a good model will often demonstrate a significant chi-square with real-world data (Hatcher, 1994). The bulk of the remaining results, however, indicate that the revised theoretical model provides very acceptable levels of fit and parsimony. These results, coupled with the finding that the revised model provided a fit to the data that was not significantly worse than that of the measurement model, support the revised theoretical model as the study’s ‘final’ model.

In order to reduce chance characteristics of the data, attempts to identify parameters that could be dropped from the model without significantly hurting the model’s fit were attempted. Reviewing the results of Lagrange multiplier tests (Bentler, 1989) identified a new causal paths that should be added to the model.

A Lagrange multiplier test estimated that model chi-square for the initial theoretical model could be reduced by 32.22 if a causal path were added that went from emotional labor (F4) to burnout (F1). Adding such a path would be consistent with the prediction from the literature that suggests that emotional labor leads to burnout. Because its addition could be justified on theoretical grounds, a path from emotional labor to burnout was added to the initial theoretical model. The resulting model, revised theoretical model, is shown in Figure 6. Figure 7 displays standardized path coefficients for the revised theoretical model. R² values showed that Pride In Work, Emotional Labor, and False Face Acting accounted for 22% of the variance in Burnout; Emotion Work and Emotional Labor (Emotion Work Requirement) accounted for 34% of the variance in Pride In Work; Emotional Labor and False Face Acting accounted for 27% of the variance in Emotion Work. Overall, an ideal fit for the theoretical model was achieved as the CFI and the NNFI both exceeded .9. The absolute value of the t statistics for each factor loading and path coefficient also exceeded 1.96, and the standardized factor loadings were nontrivial in size.

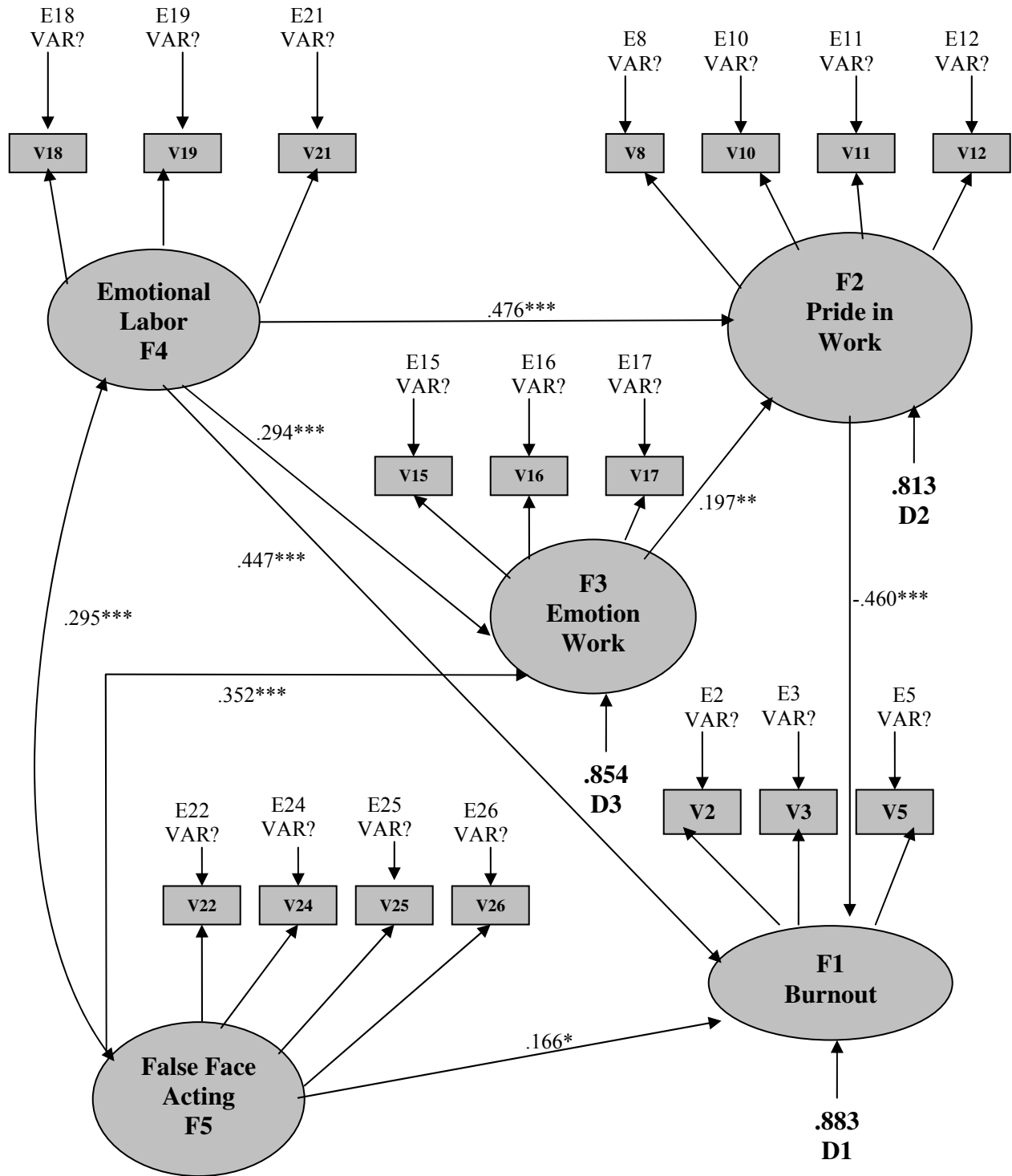


Figure 7. Revised Theoretical Model, Emotion Work Study: Standardized Path Coefficients Appear on Single-Headed Arrows, *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001

4.5 Hypothesis Analysis

Hypothesis 1 received support as emotional labor showed the positive relationship to burnout and the relationship was significant ($\beta = .447, p < .001$), indicating that individuals with higher perceived emotional labor were more likely to feel the pressure that leads to burnout than those with lower perceived emotional labor. This supports the argument that pressuring workers to perform acts that are not voluntary leads to exhaustion and burnout. Hypothesis 2 was also supported as emotional labor had the positive relationship with emotion work and the relationship was significant ($\beta = .294, p < .001$). Hypothesis 3 also received support as the positive relationship between emotion work and pride in work was significant ($\beta = .197, p < .01$). Unlike emotional labor, which characterizes perception of work that is involuntary by nature and is manufactured by the environment, individuals with higher perceived emotion work reported pride in work more often than those with lower perceived emotion work. The effect of false face acting on pride in work was mediated by emotion work.

Hypotheses regarding job autonomy were not examined since it was taken out of the model in the process of building a final measurement model. Although job autonomy was initially included as a result of factor analysis in the part of preliminary analysis, job autonomy did not significantly contribute to the final measurement model and therefore was removed from the model before testing a theoretical model.

Hypothesis 7 did not receive support as relationship between false face acting and emotion work was positive, indicating that those with higher perceived false face acting were more likely to report on emotion work ($\beta = .352, p < .001$). Conversely, employees low in perceiving false face acting were significantly less likely to utilize emotion work to adhere to positive display rules. Hypothesis 8 received support as the positive relationship between the false face acting and burnout was significant ($\beta = .166, p < .05$).

The results of the final theoretical model showed two additional relationships. First, the model has shown a positive relationship between emotional labor and pride in work and the relationship was significant ($\beta = .476, p < .001$). Second, the model has shown a negative relationship between pride in work and burnout and the relationship was

significant ($\beta = -.460, p < .001$). Burnout was predicted by pride in work, which was predicted by emotional labor where pride in work mediated the relationships between emotional labor and burnout. The outcome was that when emotional labor was directly related to burnout, the more emotional labor the workers performed, the higher level of burnout the workers felt. On the contrary, when mediated by pride in work, performing higher level of emotional labor was negatively related to burnout.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the relationship between the requirements of emotional display rules (emotional labor) and the willingness and confidence in performing the work (emotion work), and how the role of pride in work affects the antecedents of emotional labor and its outcome variables. The sample was used with government agency workers where the main source of motivation to perform is not monetary. Specifically, individual characteristics of emotion work, emotional labor, and false face acting, and their impact on pride in work and burnout were examined. This investigation has revealed evidence that the process of emotional labor and its outcome is not as simple and straightforward as previous findings suggest.

Because the sample was not large enough to divide into the two samples needed for the parallel specification search procedure, efforts to review the modification indices and other results obtained from the first analysis were made to see if any changes could be made to improve the fit of the original model. To minimize the negative consequences of following this approach, efforts to make as few changes as possible that were substantively interpretable were made. The limitations of this approach are described in more details in the limitations section. Of the two types of changes that could be made when modifying the path model (e.g., freeing parameters to be estimated or constraining parameters to be zero), the author chose Bentler and Chou's (1987) recommendation in that adding new paths or covariances may be somewhat more likely to capitalize on chance characteristics of the sample data and lead to an inaccurate model.

Contributing to the previous research that conceptualized emotional labor as work that is rather controlled by the surrounding work environment was an effort to distinguish between work that is voluntary (emotion work) and work that is involuntary (emotional labor). Previous emotional labor constructs were measured using either the requirements of fake emotions or items that express both voluntary and involuntary nature of one's will to

express positive emotions (see Liu et al, 2004; Hartel et al., 2002). By separating the mixed nature of emotional labor in previous studies, however, this study has suggested that the process of emotional labor requires an understanding between the perceived display rules of emotional labor (emotion work requirement) and the skills of emotion work that develop over the course of training at work. The majority of proposed hypotheses received support demonstrating the unique relationships of the antecedents of emotional labor and outcome variables in pride in work and burnout. This is the first study that looks at the relationship between two unique features of emotional labor and how they affect the outcomes, and the findings suggest that deeper understanding of the two different features of emotional labor may be warranted in future research. Except for the job autonomy which was initially explored but removed from the model, most of the hypotheses received support in the expected directions. The only relationship that did not receive support was false face acting whose relationship to emotion work was rather positive. The relationship, however, was significant.

There can be several conceptual reasons as to why job autonomy failed to play a role in the emotional labor process, beyond the factor structure, in public service work. Although previous emotional labor studies have all found evidence to suggest that emotional labor is significantly less aversive among workers who have greater job autonomy (Adelmann, 1989; Erickson, 1991; Wharton, 1993), there is also a sense of job autonomy embedded within the job description for each individual. Individuals who are bound by the display rules can also exercise certain level of job autonomy depending on what position he or she has. For example, of those who are required to guide people through sensitive and emotional issues and/or required to provide comfort to people who are in crisis (indicator variables that make up part of the emotion work requirement construct), independent decision-making skills are necessary for him or her to bring positive consequences. Also, workers who help co-workers feel better about themselves, attempt to keep the peace by calming clashes between co-workers, and/or help co-workers deal with stresses and difficulties at work are all exercising their own decisions about how to do their work to a certain extent.

Of the many relationships that received support, the finding that emotional labor was positively related to emotion work is an extension to previous research that has portrayed emotional labor process as one that is stressful and emotionally exhausting (Bono & Vey, 2004; Erickson & Wharton, 1997). This finding takes one step further from the research of Guy et al. (2008), who first noted the distinction between emotion work and emotional labor by who and what controls the worker's ability to perform it. Although several scholars have noted the positive consequences of emotional labor (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Wharton, 1993), their research relied on characteristics of their sample rather than exploring the broader spectrum of emotional labor construct. Perhaps the most visible line of work that impacted generations of emotional labor research in the past decade focused on whether individuals employed deep acting or surface acting to engage in emotional labor (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Hochschild, 1983). Their concept of emotional labor was based on the premise that it is the individuals who take control of the type of emotional labor. However, their concept of emotional labor failed to acknowledge the fact that it is often the workplace that controls whether one should be required or expected to perform emotional labor. In other words, previous studies have not examined the relationship between being required to follow certain rules and having the freedom to freely explore, which often differs depending on the nature of workplace. This finding gives an option to employers who must deal with their employees. As opposed to previous research that suggested that emotional labor was a fixed attribute that differs individually, current findings give hope to employers that those varying degree of abilities by the employees can be transformed. Also, rather than focusing on how emotional labor in general affects the outcome variables, this study examined how being required to perform it affects the extent to which the person wants to freely express his or her own emotions. As the results showed in which emotional labor positively affected emotion work, having to acknowledge the requirements of emotion work did not reduce the individuals' willingness and desire to perform it. Rather, individuals high in perceived emotional labor were more likely to report high on emotion work. This suggests that workplace rules improve the attitude and willingness of the individuals to perform emotion work. One could also argue that part of the reason that emotional labor is positively related to emotion work has to do

with the nature of feeling and display rules by the organization, which may also lead to certain rewards based on the performance of display rules (see Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). Although the strict nature of the rules that are promoted by different workplaces may differ and is beyond the scope of current research, more in-depth studies that examine what type of workplace rules are most effective in promoting emotion may be warranted in future research.

However, that emotional labor was also significantly and positively related to burnout at the same time it was positively related to emotion work is intriguing, as it creates another element of the construct that is already complex. The result suggests that although having display rules does improve individuals to perform emotion work better, it may also come at a cost of leading them to burnout at the same time. For example, police officers who may lack mental toughness must act tough when dealing with criminals, which is a way of showing display rules by the organization. One must continue to follow the rules in order to equip themselves with the skills and experiences to the degree of performing their duty more willingly and naturally. That the individual must continue to act to follow the display rules until complete adaptation to doing it may be what is causing them to burnout. Understanding the time and the extent to which it takes individuals to master their skills so that performing emotional labor becomes emotion work may warrant future research. The findings provide an extension to previous studies (see Grandey, 2003) that suggest a positive association between knowledge of display rules and deep acting but not to surface acting. For example, the current findings indicated that although emotional labor was positively associated with emotion work and pride in work, its association with burnout at the same time was also positive and significant, which is an indication that the work requirements of genuine emotions do expose them to a certain level of pressure and stress. The current findings also contribute to the literature (see Grandey, 2003; Totterdell & Holman, 2003) in that false face acting (surface acting or faking) does not necessarily result in burnout after all.

Although emotional labor had a positive association with burnout in a direct relationship, emotional labor was found to have negative relationship with burnout when mediated by pride in work. This particular finding makes a unique contribution to the

emotional labor literature because no studies have examined the mediating role of pride in work between emotional labor and burnout. As the finding suggests, pride in work played an integral role in understanding the relationship between emotional labor and burnout. Using the example of a police officer, again, taking pride in one's work was a major contributing factor in supporting emotional labor. It suggests that although "toughening up" one's mental attitude and behavior can take a toll in the individual's duty, when mediated by the pride in one's work, burnout can be significantly reduced. It also suggests that individuals with higher perceived level of emotional labor were more likely to feel pride in their work. Likewise, the value of their work can be considered to be of greater importance if the degree of perceived emotional labor was higher. This, again, supports the argument that promoting individuals to follow given display rules does not result in negative outcome for the individuals and the organization but instead, combined with pride in work, it produces positive outcomes for the individuals and the organization. Previous research by Guy et al. (2008) suggests that the degree by which individuals perform emotional labor are different depending on the work environment. Therefore, whether the relationship between emotional labor and pride in work depends on the nature of work and workplace may warrant future research. The majority of the existing research so far has used job satisfaction as an indicator of positive influence by emotional labor. However, in public service, the spirit and ethics of delivering service are valued at a higher standard than in other sectors of business and therefore one's pride and spirit can play a significant role in connecting the dots between emotional labor and burnout. Employees may feel burnout when performing emotionally stressful workload. However, when the performance of emotional labor is supported by higher level of one's pride in work, the result suggests that the outcome is not burnout.

Another interesting finding was shown in the relationship between emotional labor and pride in work and their relationship mediated by emotion work. Emotional labor was more positively related to pride in work than it was to emotion work. The relationship between emotional labor and pride in work, when mediated by emotion work, got weaker, compared with when emotional labor was directly related to pride in work. This suggests that individuals affected by emotional display rules, whether implied or forced, by the

organization are more likely to report on higher level of pride in work, compared with those who are equipped with emotion work. Although emotion work was positively related to pride in work, the notion that the relationship was weaker than the connection between emotional labor and pride in work indicates that individuals high on emotion work do not feel as high in pride in work as those experiencing only the emotional labor. It also suggests that having display rules of genuine emotions were more effective in developing one's pride in work than people who already adapted and mastered the state of emotional skills.

A similar pattern of relationship was observed between false face acting and emotion work and burnout. First, false face acting had a strong positive association with emotion work. Although false face acting was related positively to both emotion work and burnout, its relationship with emotion work was stronger than it was with burnout, suggesting that workers high on false face acting were more likely to report high on emotion work than they were on burnout. The notion that both emotional labor and false face acting are positively related to emotion work suggests that whether the employees are required to follow display rules or forced to fake their feelings, the resulting output was the same as they experienced positive feelings of emotion work. What was important to the employees was that they were exposed to dealing with making emotional decisions of their work to better adapt to performing emotion work. This contributes to the existing body of research that suggested that surface acting or fake emotions exhibit more detrimental effects (e.g., Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Totterdell & Holman, 2003). Although false face acting may lead to burnout in the short run, the finding suggests that it also plays the role of training the employees to adapt and develop pride in public service work over time in the long run, suggesting that the process of emotional labor is dynamic rather than static. Recent studies are beginning to accept the dynamics of emotional labor process (e.g., Liu & Perrewé, 2005a; Liu & Perrewé, 2005b). For example, Liu and Perrewé (2005) proposed four sequential but distinguishable stages of emotional process in the context of organizational changes, emphasizing the dynamics of emotional labor. The current findings seem to support the proposal by Liu and Perrewé (2005) in that people's emotional experiences and the emotion work skills can change. Their research has

opened the door to examining the dynamics of each stage of emotional labor process and its variations over time.

Another unique contribution of this study is that the role of emotion work and pride in work was considered as part of the equation to explain the complex relationship between false face acting and burnout. Rather than making a direct assumption from false face acting to burnout, by considering the roles that emotion work and pride in work each played, the result suggests that tendency to show positive emotions and having pride in work played an integral part in encouraging those dealing with false face acting, which helped them deal better with burnout.

Overall, a strong association was found between emotional labor and pride in work, followed by a strong negative association between pride in work and burnout. This study partly confirmed that emotional labor, or perception of requirements to follow emotional display rules by the organization, is a positive influence on raising one's level of pride in his or her work, which also reduces burnout. By separating the type of emotion work by who and what controls the work, this study makes a unique contribution to the literature. Also, by using the pride in work as a mediating factor between emotional labor and burnout, an improvement was made in how emotional labor construct truly affects burnout. Rather than declaring whether emotional labor has a significant positive or negative relationship with burnout, this study makes a unique contribution to the literature by explaining how emotional labor construct varies depending on one's pride and spirit of the service they deliver. Although some of the previous findings suggested a negative relationship between deep acting and burnout (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Johnson & Spector, in press), this is the first study to find significant negative relationships between the forms of emotion work and burnout using pride in work as a mediator. An implication of this finding would be that employers should provide display rules and work requirements that require positive emotional behavior as they appear to lift up their spirit and pride in their work. It also implies that they should invest on activities to promote higher level of pride in their work as it appears to alleviate some of the negative consequences of emotional labor constructs. Many previous studies of surface acting and job satisfaction relationship have been established over the years (Bono and Vey, 2005), but this is the first known study to

establish the connection between emotional labor and pride in work, and pride in work and burnout.

Previous findings (Grandey, 2003) have suggested that deep acting was positively and surface acting was negatively related to affective delivery. However, pride in one's work seems to convert the influence of both emotion work and false face acting into positive experience, one that reduces burnout and potentially improves the quality of service delivery. This study brings more intriguing explanation than previous findings to the notion that the genuine nature of the emotions expressed by deep actors should contribute to a better service experience. For example, the stronger relationship between emotional labor and pride in work, compared with the relationship between emotion work and pride in work, suggests that individuals already equipped with the genuine nature of the emotions in their work are not necessarily better when it comes to pride in work. Rather, those who have not already mastered their skills and therefore still had to exert efforts to adapt to the display rules were more likely to be associated with higher level of pride in work. This also suggests that the quality of service does not necessarily dwell solely on having the genuine nature of positive emotion. Rather, the implication was that the quality of service could be better achieved by those who were still working to improve their emotional display skills. Overall, the findings of this study reject the argument of Demerouti et al. (2001) that emotional exhaustion, or burnout, is a result of the emotional labor process, and instead suggest that emotional labor is a rewarding process in which individuals can improve their social skills and bring self-awareness about the nature of their work. The success in establishing support for the relationship between promoting genuine emotions of display rules and the willingness to perform emotion work and how they, in collaboration with pride in work, bring positive outcomes to the employees further supports the argument that emotional labor results in a positive outcome, if not in the short run, in the long run.

5.1 Limitations and Conclusions

The data were collected at one point in time, indicating its limitation in that causality cannot be inferred about the relationships in the model, which is often the nature of many cross-sectional data. Most, if not all, of the existing emotional labor research findings are based on cross-sectional data, which is limited in its generalizability. Making any inferences about the causal nature of many of the relationships discussed in the current study can be improved by adopting a longitudinal design to see where and how the relationships between the antecedents of emotional labor and the outcome variables change over time and under what circumstances. For example, current findings indicated that emotional labor positively affected both emotion work and burnout, but when mediated by pride in work, burnout was significantly negatively related to emotional labor. Current study could only identify this phenomenon, but could not indicate at what point in time one's pride in work starts to dissipate the feelings of burnout completely. Due to the nature of the study where a series of data-driven modifications were made to arrive at a better-fitting model, it is important to note that this approach to model development can result in models that may not generalize to the population. The current model must be considered tentative until it successfully survives additional tests in new samples (see Hatcher, 1994).

Although it was the intent of the author not to explore the link between pride in work and burnout since the literature already addresses the relationship between the two (see Mathieu & Hamel, 1989; Petty, McGee, & Cavender, 1984; Brayfield & Crockett, 1955; Verbrudgge, 1982), the fact that the original model presented in this study failed to account for this particular outcome can be seen as a limitation of the study. Addressing this particular relationship between pride in work and burnout in future studies is warranted to better describe and explain the dynamics of emotional labor process.

Also, most of the previous research historically used false face acting, or surface acting (faking and suppression) as an antecedent of emotional labor strategy and suggested its influence negatively. The current model was limited in testing the relationship between emotional labor and false face acting. The result indicated that emotional labor was positively related to both pride in work and emotion work, putting a reverse order in which

emotional labor affects false face acting will be an improvement to see if promoting emotional display rules, whether intentional or not, and visible or not, by the organization affects one's perceived level of false face acting. If the requirements of emotion work brought positive influence to pride in work, we would expect employees to engage in less false face acting and engage in more emotion work. Also, the result fails to examine the type or degree of intensity in emotional labor. For example, whether publicly visible display rules were more effective than invisible ones in promoting emotion work among employees could not be examined in the current findings. Further research that focuses on the type and degree of display rules will provide more specific and practical recommendations for employers.

Another area of concern that warrants further studies is the link between false face acting and emotion work. As indicated in the findings in which a significant relationship was observed between false face acting and emotion work, false face acting is a complex construct that leads simultaneously to both emotion work and burnout. This suggests that duration of the workers' employment and the positions they hold may play a pivotal role in the individual and organizational outcomes. Workers who have been exposed in the same work setting for a long period of time would have the benefit of time to make adjustments and increase the cognitive skills that relate to their work. However, those who recently joined the team may not have the luxury of time to train their emotions and thus would be more likely to feel burnout and exhausted. For example, Liu et al. (2008) described a service transaction where customers' aggressive behavior contributed to depletion of emotions from the employees. They explained that employees are likely to anticipate resource loss when dealing with angry customers in service transactions, which triggers the use of surface acting to prevent resource loss. This suggests that their experience with service transaction and the type of positions the employees hold may play a role in controlling and maintaining their emotional resources.

Liu et al. (2008) and Hobfoll (1998) explained that people who possess fewer emotional resources are more likely to take a defensive posture as a preferred strategy to maintain their resources. They also suggest that those who lack the resources are more vulnerable to resource loss, and less capable of achieving resource gain (Hobfoll, 1998).

People start at different levels of emotion skills in their work. This suggests that the amount of emotional resources that vary across individuals can improve with experience. These issues were beyond the scope of the current study but warrant future research for examining the association of duration of employment and work position and individual and organizational outcomes.

A further limitation in the study is the fact that the sample size was not big enough to test the significance of association between the employees' specific position within the hierarchy of organization and their perception of the emotional labor process. MacCallum (1986) has shown that when researchers modify their initial models in the manner described in this study, it runs the risk of arriving at a final model which may not generalize to other samples or to the population of interest. There is a further risk that the outcomes are only mediocre even with samples of 300, which is close to the sample size used in the current study. It is possible that the subsequent modifications made in the study may capitalize on chance properties of the sample data and therefore warrant further studies with different samples to further validate the model examined here. Emotional labor is an individual reaction that often originates from the nature of one's work and position. Thus a larger sample would have been helpful in providing a more accurate description of the relationship between emotional labor process and each specific position and the type of work the employees perform. Also, the sample lacks the variety of organizational types that exist. The current study focused on governmental organizations only to portray the extent to which emotional labor is perceived in the public sector. However, future research will benefit more by distinguishing those nonprofit non-governmental organizations and governmental organizations to make its generalization of public service jobs more meaningful. It may be necessary to separate not-for-profit, non-governmental from governmental organizations to give a fair indication of how emotional labor is perceived in the public sector. Although this study shares similarities with many of the previous empirical works in public management, such as using homogeneous samples and cross-sectional design, the findings should be considered not only because of their significant effects in this study, but also because they provide directions for future research. There may be other relationships that could have been explored that the current model did not account

for, which warrants future studies in further development of the model to be both more flexible and more comprehensive at the same time

Also, the nature of self-report methodology may often lead to the overstatement of relationships between variables. Although the importance is to assess individual characteristics and their perceived outcomes, self-report measures may not always be validated. Although emotional labor tests a set of abilities, the most theoretically sound method of measure should in the future research involve a performance measure, whether the subject's actual performance of emotional labor abilities is measured, not their estimate of how they perform these abilities. One may be concerned with the extent to which the self-report measure is evaluating something more, or other, than the individual's actual emotional labor. In that regard, some may argue that it does not necessarily measure the abilities of performing emotion work, but rather their perception of their abilities. This may still be an issue in the field of emotional labor, which is still in its infancy in the social science literature and deserves more continuing research to address the issue.

5.2 Extensions and Conceptual Implications

Overall, the findings in the current study suggest several key points that warrant future research. First, in contrast to the majority of existing research findings that argue for doing more deep acting to bring favorable outcomes for both the individual and the organization, the current finding suggest that one may, instead, need to find the cause of false face acting and examine whether having display rules may decrease false face acting (faking or emotional suppression). Also, the current findings suggest that rather than declaring whether emotional labor is positively or negatively associated with burnout, one must understand how the varying degree of association between emotional labor and burnout can be mediated, for example, using pride in work. The findings suggest that pride in work plays an important role in explaining the relationship between emotional labor and burnout, and that the underlying model requires several steps for this relationship to provide a fair assessment of their true association. The findings of this study take one step closer to

establishing a theoretical delineation of the process of emotional labor. More efforts to evaluate the various stages of the process are needed.

In conclusion, this study provides useful information to organizations that provide public service. Although the organizations in the sample in this study can all be described as governmental organizations, the emphasis was put on the fact that the goal of the organization was on the quality of service, rather than making profits. This study is also one of the few studies that extend the previously limited conceptualization of emotional labor construct as a whole. More efforts are needed to clearly delineate the differences between emotional labor and emotion work constructs. Also, further investigation is needed to evaluate the actual performance versus subject's perception of the antecedents of emotional labor process. One quick way to do that is to develop a self-report measure that can measure performance as opposed to perception of performance. Also, in order to bring a fuller description of the dynamics of emotional labor process, the model may benefit greatly by accounting for personal efficacy. Personal efficacy involves workers' assessments of their level of emotive skill, which measures the degree to which workers engage in managing the emotions of others and their own assessment of their effectiveness (Guy et al., 2008). Each individual is different with unique attributes of who they are in addition to the characteristics of their positions and work environments. Therefore, whether false face acting is a positive or a negative factor in the job may vary depending on the level of personal efficacy.

The findings suggest a few important recommendations for employers. First, promoting a public display of emotional rules will help the employees cope better and adapt faster to the nature of their work. Promoting genuine emotions using public display rules can result in both helping the worker cope better and raising their spirit and pride in one's work. Second, employers should know that false face acting, or faking and suppressing, does not automatically result in negative outcomes, raising feelings of burnout. Rather, depending on how the organizations promote the employees' pride in work, feelings of burnout can be replaced by more positive outcomes, such as job satisfaction. Also employers should be encouraged to know that the emotional labor process is an enriching experience that can overcome the perceived feelings of burnout or emotional exhaustion.

Although pride in work plays a significant role in bringing positive experience in public service, how long it can sustain the positive outcomes of work remains to be seen in the future research.

APPENDIX

GNM Emotional Labor Questionnaire

GNM Emotional Labor Survey Questionnaire

The purpose of this survey is to learn about the demands and characteristics of jobs that require employees to work in intense situations. There are no right or wrong answers; that which is important is your own personal experience on the job. Please be candid with your responses; they will be kept fully confidential.

For each of the following statements, indicate how often each occurs by circling the number based on the following scale:

1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7
 Never Rarely Once in a while Sometimes Often Usually Always

	(Never.....Always)
01 I perform my job independently of supervision.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7
02 My job is interesting.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7
03 I am proud of the work I do.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7
04 I make my own decisions about how to do my work.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7
05 My performance appraisal accurately reflects how effective I am in my job.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7
06 My supervisor asks for my opinion on matters of concern.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7
07 I am doing something worthwhile in my job.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7
08 My work is challenging.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7
09 My work is satisfying.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7
10 My job provides career development opportunities.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7
11 There is a lot of variety in the kinds of things I do.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7
12 To be effective, I must be creative in my work.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7
13 I keep learning new things in my position.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7
14 My training prepared me to do my job well.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7
15 I am good at getting people to calm down.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7
16 I prefer working with people.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7

17 My job requires that I display many different emotions when interacting with others.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7
18 My job requires me to be "artificially" or "professionally" friendly to clients, callers, citizens, etc.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7
19 Working directly with people puts a lot of stress on me.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7
20 I help co-workers feel better about themselves.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7
21 I cover or manage my own feelings so as to appear pleasant at work.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7
22 My work requires me to guide people through sensitive and/or emotional issues.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7
23 My work involves dealing with emotionally charged issues as a critical dimension of the job.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7
24 I try to actually feel the emotions that I must display.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7
25 My job requires that I pretend to have emotions that I do not really feel.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7
26 My job requires that I manage the emotions of others.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7
27 My job requires that I hide my true feelings about a situation.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7
28 My work requires me to deal with unfriendly people.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7
29 In my work, I am good at dealing with emotional issues.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7
30 My work requires me to provide comfort to people who are in crisis.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7
31 I worry that this job is hardening me emotionally.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7
32 I leave work feeling tired and run down.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7
33 I leave work feeling emotionally exhausted.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7
34 I feel "used up" at the end of the workday.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7
35 I leave work feeling optimistic.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7
36 I leave work feeling energized.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7
37 I think about getting a different job.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7
38 I feel like my work is a waste of time and energy.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7
To unwind after a tough day, I confide in my	
39 Workers	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7
40 Friends	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7
41 Family	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7
42 Other	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7
43 To cope with work stress, I engage in sports and/or hobbies.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7
44 I feel like my work makes a difference.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7

45 My work gives me a sense of personal accomplishment.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7
46 My job requires that I am nice to people no matter how they treat me.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7
47 I attempt to keep the peace by calming clashes between co-workers.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7
48 I help co-workers deal with stresses and difficulties at work.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7

General Information

The following information will be used only to develop categories for analysis purposes. It will NOT be shared with anyone else, nor will it be used to reveal your identity.

49. Are you: Male Female

50. Are you:

- American Indian
- Asian or Pacific Islander
- Black, not of Hispanic origin
- Hispanic
- White, not of Hispanic origin
- Other (please specify): _____

51. How old are you?

- Under 20 35 thru 39 55 thru 59
- 20 thru 24 40 thru 44 60 thru 64
- 25 thru 29 45 thru 49 65 thru 69
- 30 thru 34 50 thru 54 70 or over

52. What is your educational level? (indicate highest level completed)

- Less than high school
- High school graduate or G.E.D.
- Technical training or apprenticeship after high school
- Some college
- 2-year associate degree
- Graduated from college
- Some graduate school
- Master's degree
- Law degree (J.D., LL.B.)
- Doctorate degree (Ph.D., M.D., Ed.D., etc.)
- Other (please specify): _____

53. How long have you been working in your current job?

- Less than 1 year 6 years or more, but less than 7 years
- 1 year or more, but less than 2 years 7 years or more, but less than 8 years
- 2 years or more, but less than 3 years 8 years or more, but less than 9 years
- 3 years or more, but less than 4 years 9 years or more, but less than 10 years
- 4 years or more, but less than 5 years 10 years or more
- 5 years or more, but less than 6 years

54. Have you worked in a similar type job prior to this one? Yes No
If Yes, for how long? _____

55. In which service area(s) do you work?

- | | |
|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> administrative services | <input type="checkbox"/> law enforcement |
| <input type="checkbox"/> corrections | <input type="checkbox"/> legal services |
| <input type="checkbox"/> family & children services | <input type="checkbox"/> social work |
| <input type="checkbox"/> health care | <input type="checkbox"/> telephone crisis line |
| <input type="checkbox"/> information & communication | <input type="checkbox"/> other (please specify): _____ |

56. What is your marital status?

- Married Divorced Single Not married, but with a significant other Widow/er

57. Do you have childcare or dependent care responsibilities after work? Yes No

58. My salary is:

- | | |
|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> under \$20,000 | <input type="checkbox"/> \$50,000 - \$59,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> \$20,000 - \$29,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> \$60,000 - \$69,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> \$30,000 - \$39,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> \$70,000 - \$79,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> \$40,000 - \$49,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> \$80,000 or above |

Thank you very much for your participation.

If there is anything else you would like to tell me, please do so in the space provided below:



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