Fall 2012

# Emotional labor and authentic leadership

John E. Buckner V

# EMOTIONAL LABOR AND AUTHENTIC

# LEADERSHIP

by

John E. Buckner, V, B.S., M.S.

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Philosophy

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
LOUISIANA TECH UNIVERSITY

November 2012

UMI Number: 3536675

# UMI®

Dissertation Publishing

UMI 3536675

# ProQuest®

# LOUISIANA TECH UNIVERSITY

## THE GRADUATE SCHOOL
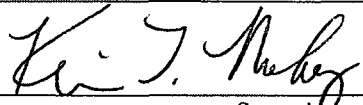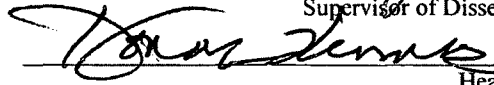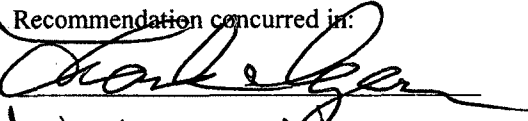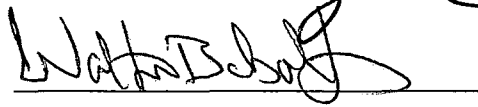
September 19, 2012
_____
Date

We hereby recommend that the dissertation prepared under our supervision

by___John E. Buckner, V._____

entitled_____

Emotional Labor and Authentic Leadership
_____

_____

_____
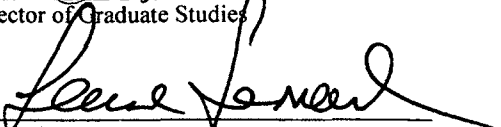
be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy
_____

_____
Supervisor of Dissertation Research

_____
Head of Department

Dept of Psychology & Behavior Sciences
_____
Department

Recommendation concurred in:

_____

_____

Advisory Committee

Approved:

_____
Director of Graduate Studies

_____
Dean of the College

Approved:

_____
Dean of the Graduate School

GS Form 13a
(6/07)

# ABSTRACT

Organizational research has begun to once again focus on the importance of emotions in the workplace. In particular, the concept of emotional labor, the management of emotions at work to influence clients and customers, has recently received much attention. While research has addressed the impact of emotional labor on both employees and clients or customers, research has not examined emotional labor within the context of leadership.

Authentic leadership, an emerging construct in the study of leadership, is proposed to relate to emotional labor. Leaders' authentic behavior has been shown to positively impact followers, such as increasing trust in their leader or positive job attitudes as in job satisfaction and organizational commitment. While authenticity refers to being true to oneself, emotional labor involves the alteration of one's felt emotions in order to generate a particular emotional display. Given that engaging in emotional labor seems contrary to behaving authentically, emotional labor was expected to impact both leaders and followers through authenticity.

Specifically, emotional labor was hypothesized to have detrimental effects on a leader's felt authenticity and followers' perceptions of authenticity, leader emotional exhaustion, and followers' trust in their leader. However, emotional labor was expected to positively impact evaluations of leader emotional displays. In addition, individual differences in self-monitoring were expected to influence the emotional labor leaders performed. Self-monitoring was expected to exacerbate the effect of emotional labor;

iii
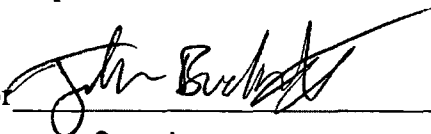
leaders high in self-monitoring were expected to engage in more emotional labor. This study examined these relationships using a controlled, laboratory design. Assigned leaders led a team instructed to perform a collaborative task. Leaders were responsible for communicating the task requirements to their group and for managing the group throughout the task.

In addition to the task, participants completed surveys assessing emotional display rule perceptions, emotional labor, self-monitoring, leader emotional displays, authenticity, emotional exhaustion, and trust. Results indicate that leaders' emotional labor was unrelated to their felt and perceived authenticity or leader emotional displays, but did relate to their emotional exhaustion. Self-monitoring did influence leaders' emotional labor, although contrary to expectations. Leaders' emotional displays and perceived authenticity did significantly relate to their followers' trust.

# APPROVAL FOR SCHOLARLY DISSEMINATION

The author grants to the Prescott Memorial Library of Louisiana Tech University the right to reproduce, by appropriate methods, upon request, any or all portions of this Dissertation. It is understood that "proper request" consists of the agreement, on the part of the requesting party, that said reproduction is for his personal use and that subsequent reproduction will not occur without written approval of the author of this Dissertation. Further, any portions of the Dissertation used in books, papers, and other works must be appropriately referenced to this Dissertation.

Finally, the author of this Dissertation reserves the right to publish freely, in the literature, at any time, any or all portions of this Dissertation.

Author _____

Date _____9 - 19 - 12_____

# TABLE OF CONTENTS

# LIST OF TABLES

# LIST OF FIGURES

# ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work is dedicated to all of my teachers, especially my parents, John and Antoinette Buckner.

"Nothing worth doing in life comes easy, everything worth doing is hard."

- Anonymous

# CHAPTER ONE

## INTRODUCTION

Emotions are an essential part of our personal and work lives and impact us throughout the day. Researchers have emphasized the critical influence emotions have on work (Lord & Kanfer, 2002). Throughout the 1980s and into the 21st century, the study of emotion has expanded dramatically with concepts such as emotional labor generating research interest (Barsade, Brief, & Spataro, 2003). Further, emotions began to be considered in relation to more traditional topics such as personality, work conditions, job stress, and leadership (Brief & Weiss, 2002). This expansion of emotion research in organizational psychology marked the emergence of the "affective revolution" where emotions and affect were given a more central focus in organizational research (Barsade et al., 2003).

The focus on emotions included an emphasis on how individuals manage their emotions. Hochschild (1983) found that individuals tend to refer to their emotional experiences in terms of actively managing or willing themselves to feel certain emotions. Individuals describe emotional experiences using phrases like "I *tried* to feel shame," "I *psyched* myself up," "I *squashed* my anger down," "I *forced* myself to have a good time". These individuals were attempting to get themselves into a particular emotional state, thus they were practicing emotional regulation. This emotional regulation not only

1

occurs in personal social interaction, but also in interactions on the job. Employees across several occupations have reported managing or regulating their emotions with customers (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Glomb & Tews, 2004; Hochschild, 1983; Meier, 2009). For example, Sutton (1991) found that bill collectors had to exhibit negative emotions in order to create a sense of urgency when dealing with debtors. Glomb and Tews (2004) found that hospitality staff (e.g., a hotel desk clerk) felt they were expected to display positive emotions when handling customers.

The issue of employee emotion regulation was addressed by Hochschild (1983). She demonstrated that, while individuals withhold and alter their emotional expressions in private social interactions, employees are required by organizations to do this in exchange for a wage. Hochschild (1983) referred to this regulation of emotions in the workplace, where it is exchanged as a commodity, as emotional labor. She defined emotional labor as, "the management of feeling to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display" (p.7). Emotional labor is prevalent at work, and has been estimated to be a substantial component of over a third (38.1%) of jobs in 1970 (Hochschild, 1983). Brotheridge and Grandey (2002) found that emotional labor is a significant component of many occupations and different occupational requirements exist for performing emotional labor.

Hochschild (1983) conceptualized emotional labor as taking on two forms, surface acting and deep acting. Surface acting has been described as modifying expressions by displaying emotions that are not actually felt or suppressing true feelings (Grandey, 2000). Surface acting is like "putting on a mask" (Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983). When an employee begrudgingly smiles while interacting with a rude customer,

they are surface acting. Deep acting involves the alteration of an emotional state by attempting to feel the displayed emotion (Grandey, 2000). Deep acting may involve changing how one perceives a situation. For example, an employee may consider a rude customer as "under stress" in order to maintain a positive display. Deep acting may also involve generating an emotion by imagining another situation or recalling a memory of an emotional state. For example, an employee may try remembering having a fun, or an exciting time with friends in order to be excited when interacting with a customer. In addition to surface- and deep-acting, naturally felt emotion has recently been included in several conceptualizations of emotional labor (Diefendorff, Croyle, & Gosserand, 2005; Glomb & Tews, 2004). Naturally felt emotion refers to expressions that are consistent with the felt emotion (Glomb & Tews, 2004).

Researchers suggest that emotional display rules are an essential part of the emotional labor process (e.g., Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Diefendorff & Richard, 2003; Morris & Feldman, 1996). Emotional display rules are the standards for appropriate emotional display on the job (Diefendorff & Richard, 2003). Given emotional display plays a critical role in social interaction, many organizations stipulate which emotional displays are appropriate and inappropriate (Ekman, 1973). In general, employees are discouraged from expressing negative emotions and encouraged to display positive emotions (Diefendorff & Richard, 2003). Thus, when employees' naturally feel positive emotions and rarely feel negative emotions, their natural emotional expressions are likely to be appropriate for work. However, when employees experience emotions that are inappropriate for the workplace, such as negative emotions, or do not experience expected emotions, such as positive emotions, then they must regulate their expressions

by engaging in surface- or deep-acting in order to meet the organization's demands for appropriate emotional displays.

Organizations place emotional demands on employees based on the hope that they will have more desirable interactions with customers. Pugh (2001) demonstrated that positive emotional expressions from employees did result in more desirable outcomes for customers. He found that an employee's positive emotional display during a service interaction increased customers' experiences of positive affect and evaluations of service quality. The rules organizations prescribe for employees' emotional displays often result in more positive interactions with customers. However, the emotional labor required to meet these display demands can often have negative effects on employees. Compared to experiencing and displaying emotions naturally, when individuals try to change or regulate their emotions greater physiological effort is required (Gross, 1998a). When this physiological effort is maintained by continual emotional labor, it may negatively impact employees (Gross, 1998a). While these negative effects have included increased heart rate (Bono & Vey, 2007) and work stress (Mann & Cowburn, 2005), burnout has been the most prominent (Erickson & Ritter, 2001; Hochschild, 1983). Burnout, which may be considered prolonged job stress (Maslach & Schaufeli, 1993), has been linked to physical impairments, such as depression, somatic complaints, and illness (Shirom, Melamed, Toker, Berliner, & Shapira, 2005). Emotional exhaustion, a primary component of burnout which refers to feeling emotionally drained (Shirom et al., 2005), has also been consistently linked to emotional labor (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Grandey, 2000; Grandey, Fisk, & Steiner, 2005; Hochschild, 1983).

Researchers have suggested that emotional labor can also be damaging to one's identity and feelings of authenticity (Ashforth & Tomuik, 2000; Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Erickson & Ritter, 2001; Gardner, Fisher, & Hunt, 2009; Pugh, Groth & Hennig-Thurau, 2011). Brotheridge and Lee (2002) suggest several ways emotional labor may impact an employee's feelings of authenticity. Employees will feel inauthentic when they perceive themselves as not being the source of their behavior (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002). When employees put on an emotional façade due to work role demands they may feel that their behavior is no longer governed by themselves, which decreases feelings of authenticity (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002). However, when employees identify with their work roles, they feel more authentic when conforming to role expectations, such as rules for displaying emotion, and are more likely to comply with demands to display certain emotions (Ashforth & Tomuik, 2000; Brotheridge & Lee, 2002). Therefore, employees engaging in more surface acting may not feel as authentic as individuals who are deep acting or expressing naturally felt emotions (Ashforth & Tomuik, 2000; Brotheridge & Lee, 2002).

The impact emotional labor may have on authenticity is important considering that authenticity has been tied to several critical work outcomes, such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, trust, and emotional exhaustion (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Clapp-Smith, Vogelgesang, & Avey, 2009; Jensen & Luthans, 2006; Walumbwa, Luthans, Avey, & Oke, 2011). Authenticity refers to acting consistently with one's true self, or behaving consistently with one's core values (Kernis, 2003). There are several aspects of authenticity relevant for emotional labor, such as being aware of one's emotions, behaving consistently with one's thoughts, feelings, and values, and being

transparent in relationships by disclosing one's thoughts, feelings, and decision processes (Kernis, 2003). Employees who are authentic should be aware of what they feel, behave consistently with their true feelings, and disclose their feelings by expressing their naturally felt emotion. The implication for employees engaging in emotional labor is that they may feel their behavior is inauthentic to the extent that they are aware of their emotions, express emotions they do not feel (or hide emotions they do feel), and do not display their true feelings to others. Thus, emotional labor may increase employee feelings of inauthenticity which can negatively impact an individual, potentially leading to emotional exhaustion (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002).

The relationship between authenticity and emotional labor is particularly relevant to leadership research (Gardner et al., 2009). Specifically, emotional labor is expected to relate to authentic leadership. Avolio and Gardner (2005) describe authentic leadership in terms of three constructs: authenticity, authentic leaders, and authentic leadership. *Authenticity* refers to acting in accord with one's own internal thoughts and emotions. *Authentic leaders* refers to those leaders who are self-aware, think and act according to their own perspectives, knowledge, and abilities, do not conform to outside or situational demands, and are moral, confident, and optimistic. Lastly, *authentic leadership* refers to the positive change that occurs in the organization, followers, and leader as a result of leaders behaving authentically (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). Leaders, like other employees, are subject to demands to regulate their emotions, but leader behaviors can have a significant impact on their followers. More importantly, authentic leaders value the interests of others, whereas inauthentic leaders value their own self-interests at the expense of others (Howell & Avolio, 1992; Michie & Gooty, 2005). Authentic leaders

are guided by their internal values to do what is right for their followers and stakeholders (Luthans & Avolio, 2003), which leads them to express more positive emotions toward others, such as gratitude, appreciation, and concern (Michie & Gooty, 2005).

Researchers have suggested that developing more authentic leaders will lead to positive organizational and individual benefits, such as increased performance and well-being (Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008). There is growing evidence that authentic leadership is related to important work outcomes, such as organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs), job satisfaction, and job performance (Walumbwa et al., 2008; Walumbwa, Wang, Wang, Schaubroeck, & Avolio, 2010). Authentic leadership is also believed to have positive impacts on a number of levels within an organization, from individual employees, to work teams, to the organization as a whole (Yammarino, Dionnes, Schriesheim, & Dansereau, 2008). In addition, authentic leadership has been shown to be a better indicator of follower OCBs, job satisfaction, and job performance, compared to other forms of leadership, like transformational or ethical leadership (Walumbwa et al., 2008). A number of researchers have advanced propositions about the relationship between leadership and emotions (Kellet, Humphrey, & Sleeth, 2002) and authentic leadership and emotions specifically (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Gardner, Fischer, & Hunt, 2009; Michie & Gooty, 2005).

One concern that has been raised is whether authentic leadership can be attained while leaders are attempting to meet emotional demands (e.g., Gardner et al., 2009). The current study seeks to answer the question of whether authentic leadership is compatible with managing emotional demands in the form of emotional labor. Research is needed to examine which contexts are tied to leaders' emotional expression. If a context requires a

leader to express positive emotions they do not feel, then the leader may feel and be perceived as less authentic (Gardner et al., 2009). When demands to display emotions are placed on leaders, and the leaders do not genuinely feel these emotions, they may choose to engage in emotional labor to meet the demand. Given that emotional labor can involve modifying emotional expression, it may prohibit, or at least hinder, any attempt to be authentic. However, leaders may be able to meet contextual demands to express certain emotions while maintaining their sense of authenticity. This can be accomplished through the expression of naturally felt emotion, because it does not involve altering one's feelings or expressions (Gardner et al., 2009). Research into this question would clarify whether or not authentic leadership is even obtainable for leaders given the complex and conflicting emotional demands placed upon them. In addition, it would aid in determining a realistic way leaders may address the competing emotional demands of their work role.

This study sought to test a model advanced by Gardner et al. (2009) which proposes several relationships between emotional labor and authentic leadership. It is important to examine these relationships for two reasons. First, few studies of leadership have focused on emotional variables (Hiller, DeChurch, Murase, & Doty, 2011), and research is still needed examining the relationship between emotional labor and authentic leadership specifically (Gardner, Cogliser, Davis, & Dickens, 2011). Second, both emotional labor and authentic leadership have been shown to relate to important work outcomes, such as employee well-being, voluntary work behaviors (i.e., OCBs and CWBs), and performance (e.g., Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Kiffin-Petersen, Jordan, & Soutar, 2011; Walumbwa, Luthans, Avey, & Oke, 2011).

The following propositions from Gardner et al.'s (2009) model were tested in the current study. Leaders are impacted by emotional events and rules in the workplace (Gardner et al., 2009). For example, an assigned leader may be placed in a workgroup that expects the members to display positive emotions. In addition, outcomes of leadership, such as leader and follower impressions of authenticity, are influenced by emotional displays (Gardner et al., 2009). For instance, a leader that genuinely expresses positive emotions to followers will likely feel genuine, have followers that think the leader is genuine, and generate positive emotions in their followers. Also, the relationship between leader emotion rules (i.e., display rules) and leader emotional displays was expected to be moderated by self-monitoring (Gardner et al., 2009). Self-monitoring refers to the degree to which individuals regulate their self-presentation (Snyder, 1974). If leaders are high self-monitors they are likely more inclined to manage their expressions through surface- or deep-acting, which in turn should increase positive emotions in followers. Leaders that are high self-monitors are also likely to be aware of and abide by the emotional display rules of their workgroup, which should exacerbate the emotional labor in which they engage. Lastly, a leader's felt authenticity was expected to impact their well-being (Gardner et al., 2009). Leaders' emotional labor, which can decrease their feelings of authenticity, can lead to emotional exhaustion (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002).

The impact of authentic leadership on follower trust was also examined in the current study. Several researchers have proposed that authentic leadership is related to follower trust (e.g., Clapp-Smith, Vogelgesang, & Avey, 2009; Walumbwa, Luthans, Avey and Oke, 2011). Authentic leaders foster trust from followers by being self-aware,

transparent, moral, and through the balanced consideration of information (Clapp-Smith et al., 2009). Followers should be more inclined to trust leaders who demonstrate honesty, integrity, and weigh information instead of making snap decisions (Clapp-Smith et al., 2009; Schoorman, Mayer, & Davis, 2007; Walumbwa et al., 2011). Integrity is described by Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman (1995) as "the extent to which the party's [e.g., leader's] actions are congruent with his or her words" (p.719), and is one factor that impacts trust. Authenticity and integrity are related conceptually (Gardner et al., 2009). Leaders acting consistently with their own words and with principles acceptable to followers (i.e., display rules) are acting with integrity and authenticity, which builds trust (Gardner et al., 2009; Schoorman et al., 2007). Thus, followers who perceive leaders as being more authentic will have greater trust their leader (Clapp-Smith et al., 2009).

## Statement of the Problem

While both emotional labor and authentic leadership have been shown to impact critical work outcomes, research has yet to identify how emotional labor may relate to authentic leadership. Most importantly, while researchers have suggested that emotional labor and authentic leadership may be incompatible, no empirical studies have been conducted to examine whether or not this is the case. Further, research has yet to examine the influence emotional labor has on authentic leadership, how contextual or individual differences may alter this influence, or how emotional labor may impact leadership outcomes. This study examined the relationship between emotional labor and leadership in several ways. Foremost, it addressed whether authentic leadership can occur within the context of leaders managing complex emotional demands. Also, it explored how contextual (i.e., display rules) and individual differences (i.e., self-monitoring) impact the

relationship between emotional labor and authentic leadership. Lastly, the affect emotional labor had on leaders' felt authenticity, perceived authenticity, leaders' emotional exhaustion, and follower trust was examined.

## Purpose of the Present Study

The present research examined emotional labor and authentic leadership within a team environment and added to existing research in several ways. First, it was the only known study to test propositions tying emotional labor to authentic leadership. This study examined the relationships between leader emotional labor and its relationship to authentic leadership. Emotions as a criterion are seldom examined in leadership studies (Hiller et al., 2011). In a meta-analysis on leadership, affect, and emotions, Gooty, Connelly, Griffith, and Gupta (2010) stated that the demarcation between what leaders feel and display is noticeably missing from the literature on leader and follower outcomes related to emotions. Currently, the examination of leader emotional labor and authentic leadership addresses this gap in leadership research. Leaders do not always feel what they display and affective regulation, or emotional labor, may be an unexamined mediator in leadership research (Gooty et al., 2010). Emotional labor may explain how emotional events and exchanges between leaders and followers contribute to outcomes.

This study also examined the emotional labor that occurs in a group context. While previous research has examined how emotional labor affects the performer of emotional work (e.g., Brotheridge & Lee, 2002) and the consumer or client for whom emotional work is performed (e.g., Groth, Hennig-Thurau, & Walsh, 2009), few studies have examined the impact emotional labor has on members of the same workgroup. Examining these relationships will provide a greater understanding of how emotional

labor performed by leaders relates to authentic leadership and how emotional labor functions among team members. This is important given that leader and team member emotions likely impact how well a team performs.

In addition, this study contributes to the literature by providing data from a controlled, laboratory setting. Hiller et al. (2011) found that most leadership research is conducted using surveys with few studies conducted using more rigorous designs. They suggested that the nature of the effects of leadership cannot be well understood in the context of cross-sectional research, but that leadership should be examined over various lags in measurement. This approach used an underutilized methodology in both emotional labor and leadership research, and may help substantiate findings gathered utilizing other methods.

# CHAPTER TWO

# REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The world of work has evolved from being predominantly manual labor in factories or on farms, working with tools and machinery, to being primarily service work, conducted through social exchanges between persons. The number of people employed in management or professional roles, service, or sales occupations (approximately 110 million) far outnumber those employed in industry and production or agricultural occupations (approximately 30 million) (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010). As such, the scientific study of work now places greater emphasis on the interactions between individuals and the personal experiences of these individuals (Koppes & Pickren, 2007). In order to understand the nature of interactions between people at work, feelings and emotions have begun to receive renewed focus by organizational researchers (Lord & Kanfer, 2002).

Until recently, emotions have often been overlooked in organizational behavior research. The attention emotions receive today did not occur suddenly, but is the result of a paradigm shift that spanned the course of the past 50 to 60 years. Emotions at work were largely unaddressed by organizational researchers during the years following WWII (Brief & Weiss, 2002). From the 1960s to the 1980s, the study of "emotions" at work was done predominantly through measures of employee job satisfaction, where employees

would make global assessments of their overall satisfaction (Barsade, Brief & Spataro, 2003). During this time period, the reason emotions were considered in organizational research was often due to the idea that satisfied workers were productive workers (Barsade et al., 2003). Throughout the 1980s and into the 21st century the study of emotions in organizational research expanded, with concepts such as emotional labor and affective events generating research interest (Barsade et al., 2003). Researchers began to conceive of emotions with greater richness and complexity and started developing theories as to how emotions operate in the workplace (Barsade et al., 2003). Affect was no longer considered merely in terms of simple, global assessments or as only impacting performance, but as a rich, complex phenomenon that influenced employees' entire work experience. This transition marks what is now referred to as the "affective revolution" in organizational research, where emotions were given a more central focus (Barsade et al., 2003). The novel approaches resulting from the revolution allowed for the discovery and understanding of new relationships between employees' emotional experiences and many pertinent work outcomes (e.g., well-being, voluntary work behaviors, performance).

At the turn of the century, despite a focus on emotion, emotional research was inadequate because studies typically treated emotions as simple evaluations of satisfaction. The study of feeling, particularly at work, has relied too heavily upon concepts such as job satisfaction, which stress the evaluation of external job characteristics (Sandelands & Boudens, 2000). Even job satisfaction theories, such as the job characteristics model, are only able to explain a small portion of the variance in outcomes such as feelings of work motivation, performance, commitment, and turnover (Sandelands & Boudens, 2000). Treating emotions as just satisfying or dissatisfying

feelings or evaluations that are exchanged as resources in social relationships does not capture the depth or breadth of emotional experiences that impact employees (Waldron, 2000).

Researchers have pointed out the need to focus on interactions or relationships between individuals when studying emotions (e.g., Sandelands & Boudens, 2000; Waldron, 2000). Emotional labor and authenticity are predominantly relational, as they deal with modifying emotions during interactions and being transparent and forthcoming with others. Feelings at work are described by employees through stories about their relationships and interactions with their work group, not evaluative statements about their jobs (Sandelands & Boudens, 2000). Feeling at work may be best understood through relationships and interactions, as opposed to relying on evaluative statements of emotional experience (Sandelands & Boudens, 2000). Emotions are resources by which relationships are forged and interpreted, and can set the stage for performance (Waldron, 2000). Thus, emotional research should address the influence emotions have on the relationships between individuals. Both emotional labor and authenticity may be thought of as addressing the relational behaviors leaders perform.

It is also important to consider that the workplace provides quite a different context for emotional experiences compared to more natural, informal, social contexts (Waldron, 2000). While the emotions we experience outside of work tend to be handled privately, the workplace provides a public stage for the emotional exchange between coworkers (Waldron, 2000). There are a couple of factors that can intensify emotional reactions at work. First, the presence of peers can impact emotional responses. Frustrations, humiliation, and embarrassment can be seen and quickly shared by all. The

presence of peers may intensify these feelings (Waldron, 2000), and increase the perceived need to modify expression. Second, when personal, private relationships are held between those who work together, the tension between the public and private relationship can intensify emotions. Emotional reactions may be stronger when an employee perceives a coworker or supervisor behaving inconsistently based on their public and private relationships (Waldron, 2000). For example, an employee who is friends with his supervisor may become angry if the supervisor is not receptive to his ideas about work. It is apparent that employees' emotions are influenced by the contextual demands of the workplace. These contextual influences are taken into account in the current study by examining emotions in an interactive, group setting.

## Emotion Theories and Emotional Labor

Emotions can be characterized as feelings, expressions, physiological reactions, behaviors, and cognitions (Cornelius, 1996). Each of these characteristics is useful in describing emotional experiences and emotional labor. Feelings are subjective experiences and may be accompanied by bodily sensations (Cornelius, 1996), such as happiness or sadness. Examples of physiological reactions include tensing of the muscles and an increase in heart rate. Emotional expressions refer to, for example, smiles, smirks, or frowns. Running in the face of danger or nervously tapping one's fingers are examples of behaviors. Cognitions refer to thoughts, such as recalling a time when we refused to help someone in need, which may lead to feelings, like guilt (Cornelius, 1996). These five characteristics of emotions are intertwined, and are not necessarily experienced independently. For example, an individual may recall a memory (cognition) that provokes anxious feelings, which is then accompanied by an increased heart rate

(physiological reaction). The individual may then also evaluate this experience as a feeling of anxiety or nervousness, resulting in a tense facial expression.

Just as there are several characteristics of emotions, there are several different theoretical approaches to explain emotion. Three key theories of emotion are the James-Lange, Cannon-Bard, and Schachter-Singer theories. The James-Lange theory proposes that arousal and action lead individuals to experience emotion, opposed to emotion generating arousal and driving action (Cornelius, 1996; Myers, 2007). For example, when individuals notice that their heart is racing, their palms are sweating, and they feel flushed, they may then conclude they are embarrassed. Emotions, according to the theory, are labels individuals place on certain kinds of arousal and action (Kalat, 1992). This theory leads to two conclusions, each of which has received some empirical support. The first is that individuals' arousal is linked to the intensity of their emotional experiences; increased arousal generally causes individuals to rate their emotions as more intense (Kalat, 1992). A second conclusion drawn from this theory is that if individuals can discern between different emotions then these emotions should have distinct arousal or activities (Kalat, 1992). Research has demonstrated that different emotions are associated with different physiological arousal, such as increase heart rate, skin conductance, skin temperature, and amygdala activation (Kalat, 1992; Myers, 2007). However, it is unlikely that such differences in arousal are enough for individuals to determine which emotion they are experiencing. Some emotions, such as fear, anger, and love, are associated with similar physiological arousal (Cornelius, 1996; Myers, 2007), so it would be difficult for individuals to differentiate between these emotions based solely on arousal. In addition,

physiological changes seem too slow to explain the sudden onset of some emotions (Myers, 2007).

The Cannon-Bard theory, maintains that physiological arousal and an individual's experience of emotion occur simultaneously (Kalat, 1992; Myers, 2007). Both arousal and emotions are experienced at the same time, and neither is contingent upon the other. Further, the theory suggests that emotion-triggers and the sympathetic nervous system are routed through the same area of the brain's cortex, and are activated concurrently (Myers, 2007). The Cannon-Bard theory has received some support as well. Individuals with spinal injuries who do not experience physiological arousal from the waist down still report experiencing emotion, as do individuals with spinal injury from the neck down, albeit less intense emotion (Cornelius, 1996; Myers, 2007). This suggests that emotion and arousal, while related, can occur independently.

Expanding on the James-Lange theory, the Schachter-Singer, or two-factor, theory of emotion emphasizes the role cognition plays in experiencing emotions. This theory posits that individuals make appraisals or attributions as to the source of their arousal, which in turn informs their emotional experience (Kalat, 1992). When individuals attribute their arousal to an external source, such as a drug they have taken, they are unlikely to experience their arousal as emotion (Cornelius, 1996; Myers, 2007). In addition, individuals may make misattributions as to the source of their arousal, which influences their emotions. For example, when provoked, individuals who are aroused from exercise are likely to attribute their arousal to being insulted and become angry (Myers, 2007). The Schachter-Singer theory stresses the importance of cognition for emotions, and demonstrates that physiological arousal alone is not sufficient to

experience emotion. However, cognitions do not always precede emotions. Research has demonstrated that emotional reactions are capable of being influenced by subliminal stimuli, preventing the possibility that individuals could consciously interpret their arousal.

Although each theory has been supported by research, none of these theories individually can fully explain emotion. Collectively, these theories offer an explanation as to how and why individuals experience emotion. These theories have informed a number of different perspectives regarding the cause and function of emotion. These perspectives include the Darwinian, Jamesian, cognitive, and the social constructionist perspectives.

Darwin's (1872/1965) perspective concerned the function of emotions as a selective advantage in the evolutionary process. Given that humans are primates, the emotions of humans and other primates should show similarity in both form and function. Darwin, and psychologists who share his perspective, focus on the common emotional displays of humans and other animals. The Jamesian perspective, largely influenced by James' ideas about emotion, emphasizes the relationship between emotional experiences and physiological reactions. The cognitive perspective focuses on an individual's appraisal of events in the environment which lead to experiencing emotions (Cornelius, 1996). An appraisal refers to judgments of an event as either good or bad. Lastly, the social constructivist perspective assumes that emotions are not biological phenomena

(Cornelius, 1996). Instead, they are socially constructed and transferred through culture. These perspectives are useful in explaining why individuals experience emotion and what use their emotions serve.

Each of these perspectives is represented in different definitions of emotional labor which are used to explain how emotional labor may impact employees. The most useful perspectives in explaining emotional labor are the Jamesian and cognitive perspectives. These two perspectives are considered in this study. The Jamesian perspective, that emotions are tied to a person's physiological experience, is generally congruent with Gross' (1998a, 1998b) explanation that emotional labor impacts employees through sustained physiologically arousal. This explains why emotional labor may lead to negative consequences, like emotional exhaustion. Researchers employing the cognitive perspective focus on an employee's appraisal of events, usually by considering surface- and deep-acting strategies (e.g., Grandey, 2000). The cognitive perspective is employed in this study by examining the strategies of surface acting, deep acting, and expression of naturally felt emotion. These strategies capture leaders' decisions to manage (or not) their emotions and the approach they use in managing their emotions. Incorporating these strategies helps to explain why leaders may feel more or less authentic when employing a particular strategy.

## Emotional Labor

The concept of emotional labor described by Hochschild has received much attention in organizational research (e.g., Grandey, Foo, Groth, & Goodwin, 2011). In order to understand how and why emotional labor is performed it is important to consider how the concept has developed. Understanding the development of the concept will also

elucidate how emotional labor relates to an employee's feelings of authenticity. The notion of emotional labor stemmed from the observation that sales employees often "sold" themselves, their personalities, and also emotions, to potential customers in order to make sales. In his chapter "The Great Salesroom" in *White Collar* (1975/1951), C. Wright Mills discussed the idea that middle class service workers, salesmen and "salesgirls", have become part of "The Personality Market". After the shift from an industrial to a service economy, an employee's personality has become a commodity for exchange in the workplace (Mills, 1975/1951). Sales personnel would often put on a façade in the showroom floor, acting sociable and friendly, in order to "win over" potential customers. Sales personnel, driven by the need to gain an advantage in the market or even just provide for themselves, are forced to "sell" their personality. The implication is that when salespeople are able to appeal to a customer or have a customer identify with them they are more likely to make a sale (Mills, 1975/1951). This concept was later extended to numerous occupations, emphasizing the emotional expressions employees must display when interacting with customers or clients.

Mills' idea of the "personality market" served as a clear precursor to the concept of emotional labor, where employees gain favor with customers based on their emotional displays. The notion that employees were managing their emotions is even hinted at when Mills described the experience of an observer in a large department store:

She wears a fixed smile on her made-up face, and it never varies, no matter to whom she speaks. I never heard her laugh spontaneously or naturally. Either she is frowning or her face is devoid of any expression. When a customer approaches, she immediately assumes her hard, forced smile. (Mills, 1975/1951, p. 184)

The sociologist Hochschild, inspired by Mills' work, emphasized what could be called the "emotions market." In her seminal work, *The Managed Heart: Commercialization of Human Feeling* (1983), Hochschild brought to light the emotional regulation employees engage in while at work based on her study of airline flight attendants in the 1980s. Hochschild's (1983) research helped make explicit the fact that emotional regulation occurs every day at work based on the demands organizations place upon employees. This research also suggested that employee emotions are exchanged as commodities because organizations create expectations for customers regarding the type of service the company provides and the atmosphere customers will enjoy (Hochschild, 1983). For example, airlines have used slogans such as, "You'll love the way we fly, we love to fly and it shows." Customer expectations, and therefore the emotional work for flight attendants, are exaggerated further by sexualized slogans, such as, "We really move our tails for you to make your every wish come true" (Hochschild, 1983, p. 93). To convey the idea that employees must manage their emotions in order to earn a wage, Hochschild (1983) coined the term "emotional labor." She described emotional labor as, "the management of feeling to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display" (p. 7) and as requiring face-to-face or voice-to-voice interactions with clients or customers.

Hochschild's (1983) work demonstrated that emotional labor was present at work. She found that individuals tended to refer to their emotional experiences in terms of actively managing or willing themselves to feel certain emotions. Individuals described situations where they experienced strong emotions using phrases like "I *tried* to feel shame", "I *psyched* myself up", "I *squashed* my anger down", "I *forced* myself to have a good time." Flight attendants shared their experience of trying to be polite and positive to

passengers, although they had little time to interact with passengers and passengers were often anxious or even rude when interacting with them (Hochschild, 1983). One flight attendant explained that she felt it was the flight attendants responsibility, on the company's behalf, to make passengers feel safe and comfortable, so passengers feel like they are at home rather than on an airplane. The flight attendant was responsible for not only performing "actual" duties such as preparing the aircraft and remaining ready for emergency situations, but also for making the cabin of the craft feel like a living-room, because "living-rooms don't crash" (Hochschild, 1983). In response to rude or hostile passengers, flight attendants were expected to smile and calm the passenger down, rather than respond with anger (Hochschild, 1983). These individuals were trying to get themselves into a certain emotional state, they were practicing emotional labor. Following the work of Hochschild, much of the early research on emotional labor established that emotional labor occurred, and was a crucial component of the work employees performed.

Hochschild (1983) initially estimated emotional labor to be a substantial component of over a third (38.1%) of jobs in the U.S. as of 1970. Since then, studies have investigated whether particular jobs involved more or less emotional labor. Individual studies demonstrated that emotional labor was required of bill collectors (Sutton, 1991), table servers (Adelmann, 1995), 911 dispatchers (Shuler & Sypher, 2000), call center employees (Holman, Chissick, & Totterdell, 2002), university administrative assistants (Grandey, 2003), day-care workers, hotel employees, retirement home employees (Glomb & Tews, 2004), bank tellers (Chau, Dahling, Diefendorff & Levy, 2009), nurses aids, childcare workers (Seery & Corrigall, 2009), and college professors (Mahoney et

al., 2011; Meier, 2009). Other studies attempted to demonstrate that there are different requirements for performing emotional labor across fields, such as human services, services and sales, managerial, clerical, and physical labor work (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002). These efforts were undertaken to increase the visibility of emotional labor, which was presumed to be work employees performed that went overlooked. Given initial research effectively demonstrated that emotional demands were present and that emotional labor occurred in a variety of occupations, researchers now generally accept that some degree of emotional labor occurs in most occupations where employees perceive a demand by the organization to display certain emotions (Diefendorff & Gosserand, 2003).

Interestingly, researchers began debating what constituted emotional labor. Some researchers emphasized the demands a job presents that require employees to engage in emotional labor. For example, Morris and Feldman (1996) conceptualized emotional labor in terms of job-demands – the varying frequency, intensity, duration, and variety of emotions which employees are expected to display on the job. They suggested that if employees must manage their emotions more frequently, interact with clients longer, are restricted in terms of the emotions they may express, and must present more exaggerated feelings, this constitutes greater emotional labor (Morris & Feldman, 1996). Others focused on behavioral displays, deemphasizing the internal state or process an individual is experiencing (Glomb & Tews, 2004). Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) define this approach as a "focus on behavior rather than on the presumed emotions underlying behavior" (p. 90). An example would be Glomb and Tews (2004) approach, which considers whether employees express or suppress the expression of positive or negative

emotions, and distinguished between whether these emotions are felt or faked. Although these perspectives differ in their primary focus, they can be understood as complementary in describing and explaining emotional labor (Glomb & Tews, 2004).

Many researchers have focused on the manner in which employees choose to regulate their emotions. The most common way of defining emotional labor in the literature is through surface- and deep-acting (e.g., Grandey, Foo, Groth, & Goodwin, 2011; Hochschild, 1983). Surface acting refers to superficial or feigned expression achieved by displaying more emotion than is actually felt or by suppressing true feelings (Grandey, 2000). When an employee is surface acting they are concerned with the visible aspects of emotion and are attempting to give others the impression they are truly feeling a particular emotion. When an employee shares a laugh with a customer who is taking up too much time, the employee is surface acting. Deep acting involves the attempt to actually feel the emotion displayed (Grandey, 2000). Hochschild (1983) likened deep acting to a popular theatrical style, method acting, developed by Stanislavski, whereby actors recall memories that bring to mind the particular emotion they need to convey. An employee recalling a time when someone was kind to him in order to politely interact with a rude customer is deep acting. Deep acting can also be achieved by reappraising, or reinterpreting the situation (Grandey, 2000), such as when an employee considers the hassles a customer has undergone in order to keep up a pleasant expression. Recently, researchers have suggested including genuine or naturally felt emotion as a strategy when examining emotional labor (Diefendorff et al., 2005; Glomb & Tews, 2004). The inclusion of naturally felt emotion as a strategy is a more comprehensive approach to emotional labor because it differs from surface- and deep-acting given it involves the

decision not to regulate emotion (Diefendorff et al., 2005). The expression of naturally felt emotion refers to expressing emotions that are consistent with spontaneous, internal feelings (Glomb & Tews, 2004). Expressing naturally felt emotions does not require actively managing emotional expression. An employee who exchanges disparaging remarks with an impolite customer is likely expressing naturally felt emotion. Approaching emotional labor as surface acting, deep acting, and naturally felt emotion has become common and is arguably the most comprehensive in representing regulatory strategies. Given this, the current study considers emotional labor in the form of these three strategies.

Once emotional labor had been brought to the attention of researchers and defined and operationalized by researchers, focus turned toward describing the antecedents of emotional labor. Specifically, researchers began to explore why employees engaged in emotional labor and how the emotional demands of a job were communicated to employees.

**Emotional Labor Outcomes**

Research often investigates the impact of the emotions employees experience at work. Certain emotions, such as fear, anger, and sadness, which encompass unpleasant experiences, are related to the amount of stress individuals' experience (Sarafino, 2006). For instance, a startling encounter, like the unanticipated presence of upper management at an employee's presentation, may create alarm in the employee. This activates the sympathetic nervous system, raising the body's blood pressure and heart rate (Sarafino, 2006). This is an emotional process, the activation of the body and the subjective feeling of fear that follows. When this emotional arousal is sustained it can cause stress and

bodily exhaustion (Sarafino, 2006), which impacts an employee's ability to perform. For the employee unexpectedly presenting to upper management, the alarm experienced may create stress, distracting the employee during their presentation. The employee's discomfort, when recognized by the audience, may influence evaluations of the employee's presentation.

Compared to simply "feeling" or experiencing an emotion, when employees try to change or regulate their emotions greater physiological effort is required (Gross, 1998a). The sustained activation or physiological arousal that accompanies emotional labor can impact important work outcomes. Gross (1998a) pointed out that emotional labor can result in negative health consequences by exacerbating minor ailments, and has been associated with hypertension and coronary heart disease. Research has shown that emotional labor can lead to negative consequences such as increased heart rate (Bono & Vey, 2007) and work stress (Mann & Cowburn, 2005). Emotional labor has also been tied to psychological well-being, such as burnout (Erickson & Ritter, 2001; Hochschild, 1983). Burnout, which is prolonged job stress (Maslach & Schaufeli, 1993), has been related to physical health impairments like depression, somatic complaints, and illness (Shirom et al., 2005). However, perhaps the most prominent negative outcome resulting from emotional labor is emotional exhaustion (e.g., Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Grandey, 2000; Grandey et al., 2005; Hochschild, 1983). Emotional exhaustion, a primary component of burnout, refers to a sense of being depleted of energy or feeling emotionally drained from work (Shirom et al., 2005). Engaging in emotional labor taxes individuals' cognitive and motivational resources (Gross, 1998a; 1998b), which may lead to feelings of emotional exhaustion. The exhausting effect of emotional labor has also

been suggested to influence a number of other work-related outcomes; for example, emotional labor has been related to job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Mahoney et al., 2011; Yang & Chang, 2008), work engagement (Bechtoldt, Rohrmann, De Pater, & Beersma, 2011), a sense of personal accomplishment, and depersonalization (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002).

Emotional labor can negatively impact feelings of authenticity. When employees are unable to express themselves at work, they may view themselves as acting inconsistently with their true feelings and thus perceive themselves as being less authentic. Employees who hide agitation at work tend to feel that they are less authentic, feel like they have to "become a different person" at work (Erickson & Ritter, 2001). Employees engaging in more surface acting also express emotions they do not actually feel, which negatively relates to their feelings of authenticity (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002). This negative effect of emotional labor on authenticity is an important one, considering inauthenticity during employee-customer interactions has been related to decreased customer satisfaction, ratings of employee friendliness, and perceptions of customer-oriented service (Grandey, Fisk, Mattila, Jansen, & Sideman, 2005; Groth et al., 2009).

Studies have also identified potentially positive consequences of emotional labor, particularly for clients and customers. These positive effects include increased customer ratings of service quality (Pugh, 2001; Groth et al., 2009), positive affect of customers (Pugh, 2001), customer perceptions employee friendliness, and customer satisfaction (Grandey et al., 2005). Employees displaying positive emotions by engaging in emotional labor may also gain the trust of others. In a series of experiments by Dunn and Schweitzer (2005), individuals' positive emotion was shown to relate positively to their

trust in others. Also, positive effects resulting from emotional labor have been demonstrated for employees. Deep acting has been shown to relate to increased feelings of authenticity, personal accomplishment, and decreased feelings of depersonalization or detachment from oneself or others (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002). The expression of positive genuine emotion is positively related to employee job satisfaction and negatively related to emotional exhaustion (Mahoney et al., 2011).

**Emotional Display Rules**

Employees often rely on emotional display rules to guide their emotional labor at work. Display rules are the standards for appropriate emotional display on the job requiring employees to express, or not express, certain emotions (Diefendorff & Richard, 2003) and set the stage for emotional labor (e.g. Diefendorff et al., 2005). Display rules can be implicit or explicit and are generally developed and conveyed socially (Zapf, 2002). Explicit display rules refer to concretely conveyed rules about appropriate emotions and emotional expression (Goldberg & Grandey, 2007). For instance, "we offer service with a smile" written in a job description or company mission statement (Goldberg & Grandey, 2007). Implicit display rules are "unwritten rules" conveyed through societal or organizational norms (Zapf, 2002). In general, employees are discouraged from expressing negative emotions and encouraged to display positive emotions (Diefendorff & Richard, 2003). In this study, leaders are faced with the emotional display rules of a workgroup.

Diefendorff and colleagues (2005) suggested that in order to adhere to display rules individuals must increasingly use emotional labor strategies to maintain an appropriate emotional display. Brotheridge and Grandey (2002) supported this idea,

finding that perceived demands to express positive emotions and to hide or suppress negative emotions positively related to both surface- and deep-acting. Diefendorff et al. (2005) found that positive display rule perceptions related to deep acting. Gosserand and Diefendorff (2005) found that display rule perceptions related to surface acting. In addition, they found that the relationship between display rule perceptions and surface- and deep-acting was strengthened when employees were more committed to the display rules. Buckner and Mahoney (2012) found that when individuals were presented with an explicit positive display rule they engaged in more deep-acting. In summation, research has supported the expectation that when employees are presented with display rules they engage in more emotional labor.

While emotional display rules explain how emotion demands are communicated to employees and influence their emotional labor, there is still some debate as to how or why emotional labor impacts employees. Yet, researchers now have a better understanding of emotional labor and have supplied several theories to explain its underlying mechanisms which may lead to the observed outcomes.

**Emotional Labor Mechanisms**

Several mechanisms have been pointed to in order to explain how emotional labor will impact employees (both leaders and followers). These mechanisms are used to explain how emotional labor may impact leader authenticity and emotional exhaustion. These mechanisms can be classified broadly as focusing on a) physiological effects of emotion regulation, b) the resources employees expend by engaging in emotional labor, c) and emotional dissonance.

**Physiological Effects of Emotional Labor**

To explain the physiological effects of emotional labor, researchers have turned to a related concept, emotional regulation (Grandey, 2000). Emotional regulation refers to the, "process by which individuals influence the emotions they have, when they have them, and how they experience and express these emotions" (Gross, 1998a, p. 275). The theory of emotion regulation, presented by Gross (1998a), states that situational cues evoke emotions in individuals and that, once emotions are evoked, individuals may regulate them at two points in the process. These two points in the process are referred to as antecedent-focused and response-focused regulation (Gross, 1998b). Antecedent-focused regulation involves managing emotions by modifying the situation (Gross, 1998b), which is typically done through attentional deployment or cognitive change (Grandey, 2000). Attentional deployment refers to recalling a memory that brings to mind a particular emotion (Gross, 1998b), such as remembering a previous, pleasant interaction with a customer in order to convey interest with a current customer. Cognitive change refers to altering how one perceives a situation (Gross, 1998b), for example, by considering a rude customer as "under stress" in order to maintain a positive emotion. Response-focused regulation involves directly altering the physiology, physical experience, or bodily display (Gross, 1998b). An example of this type of regulation would be an employee consuming an energy drink in order to remain "peppy" or by simply "pasting" on a smile to appear positive to a client.

According to emotional regulation theory, emotions affect an individual through physiological arousal. Emotions are accompanied by physiological arousal involving the endocrine (hormonal system) and autonomic nervous system (heart rate, respiratory rate)

(Gross, 1998b), which convert the bodies resources into energy used for crisis situations (i.e., fight or flight) (Sarafino, 2006). When individuals regulate their emotions they influence the extent to which their body sustains arousal (Gross, 1998b). For example, when individuals attempt to suppress emotions, such as when an employee would be expected to hide any negative feelings toward a customer, they experience heightened arousal (Gross, 1998b). This physiological arousal, sustained over repeated interactions, can lead to health concerns (e.g., illness) because the body is diverting energy from the immune system (Gross, 1998b; Sarafino, 2006). Given emotional labor involves regulating emotions, employees performing emotional labor may become physically taxed. The physical strain of sustained regulation is also expected to be accompanied by subjective feelings of emotional exhaustion (Grandey, 2000). Even during a relatively short period, such as interacting with customers for only 20 minutes, emotional labor has been shown to lead to emotional exhaustion (Goldberg & Grandey, 2007).

**Resource Theories**

Grandey (2003) described how emotional labor can deplete an individual's cognitive resources. Faking emotion through surface- and deep-acting depletes limited cognitive resources, such as attention (Grandey, 2003). This occurs because individuals must actively attend to the discrepancy between their externally displayed and internally felt emotional state (Grandey, 2003). When employees' attention is directed toward their emotions they have fewer cognitive resources to direct toward their tasks (Grandey, 2003).

Hobföll's Conservation of Resources (COR) theory has also been forwarded as an explanation of emotional labor effects. COR theory suggests that individuals are

motivated to acquire and maintain resources. Resources are considered to be anything that is potentially valuable to an individual, such as objects (e.g., supplies), conditions (e.g., status), personal characteristics (e.g., self-esteem), or energy (e.g., time, money) (Hobföll, 1989). COR theory proposes that when threatened with resource loss from the environment individuals will experience stress. COR has been applied to emotional labor by several researchers (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Mahoney, Buboltz, Buckner, & Doverspike, 2011) to explain how emotional labor affects employees. Brotheridge and Lee (2002) suggested that employees experience emotional strain when they do not have enough resources to meet the emotional demands of the job or fear losing their current resources. They also suggested that employees may be willing to use their emotional resources if they anticipate a gain in resources. For example, a salesman may be more willing to engage in emotional labor if he expects an interaction with the customer to result in a sale, and is less likely to become strained if the interaction results in a sale. COR theory explains how emotional labor may impact employees through resource gain, loss, and exchange.

COR is useful for explaining why leaders may be willing to engage in emotional labor when interacting with followers. When leaders attend to their groups' emotional display expectations (i.e., display rules), they may recognize that engaging in emotional labor will result in more positive interactions. If leaders feel they are able to establish better relationships with followers and facilitate performance by managing their emotions, they may be willing to perform more emotional labor. In this situation, leaders are "trading" their emotional resources in exchange for improved group interaction, resulting in a net gain in resources.

**Emotional Dissonance**

Emotional labor may impact outcomes through emotional dissonance, a state where employees express emotions they do not feel or vice versa. Hochschild (1983) proposed that emotional labor was mentally taxing for employees because they experienced emotional dissonance, a state of inner contention where an individual is expressing emotions that are not consistent with how they really feel. Employees experiencing emotional dissonance must constantly monitor their emotions and begin to lose the sense that their emotions are their own. This leaves employees feeling "disconnected" with themselves and emotionally exhausted (Hochschild, 1983). These feelings of exhaustion are made worse when employees are forced to express emotions they do not feel while also hiding emotions they do feel (Hochschild, 1983). For example, frustrated employees may hide their frustration beneath a smile. The emotional dissonance employees' experience can also affect interactions with customers. There is evidence that individuals are able to sense another's feelings of dissonance (e.g., Grandey et al., 2005; Groth et al., 2009). Customers who suspected employees were faking their emotional expression viewed them as less customer-oriented (Groth et al., 2009). In contrast, employees who are seen as displaying natural emotions while performing their job well receive higher customer ratings of friendliness and satisfaction with the service encounter (Grandey et al., 2005). Emotional dissonance may explain why emotional labor taxes employees, and how emotional labor can result in negative outcomes.

In addition, Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) suggested that emotional dissonance was tied to an employee's sense of identity. The "disconnected" feelings associated with emotional dissonance may explain why emotional labor negatively impacts employees'

sense of identity or sense of "real" self (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Erickson & Ritter, 2001). Employees experiencing emotional dissonance do not identify with their own emotional expression, and thus feel less authentic (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002). While emotional dissonance may impact employee identity, identity may also impact an employee's experience of dissonance. When employees identify with the need to express themselves authentically, they experience greater emotional dissonance from performing emotional labor in the form of surface acting, resulting in greater emotional exhaustion (Pugh et al., 2011). However, emotional labor may not necessarily negatively impact an employee's sense of authenticity. Employees who identify with their work role and accept that emotional labor is required may not experience feelings of dissonance, inauthenticity, or feel taxed and become emotionally exhausted (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Ashforth & Tomuik, 2000; Hochschild, 1983).

While emotional dissonance is most commonly considered to be the contention between felt and expressed emotion, others have suggested that emotional dissonance is the conflict between felt emotion and the organization's prescribed emotions (Morris & Feldman, 1996). When employees' feelings are different from what the organization says they should feel and express, employees experience emotional dissonance (Morris & Feldman, 1996). This perspective on dissonance stresses job-demands, such as emotional display rules, and explains how these demands influence employees' emotional labor. When an employee experiences emotions different from the emotions prescribed by display rules, they engage in emotional labor to reduce this discrepancy and display the appropriate emotion (Diefendorff et al., 2005).

**Emotional Labor and Individual Differences**

Recently, individual differences have received increased attention in emotional labor research (Dahling & Perez, 2010; Judge et al., 2009; Kiffin-Petersen et al., 2011). Individual differences are thought to play a role in influencing which emotional labor strategies are employed (Diefendorff et al., 2005). It has been suggested that some individuals are predisposed to experience more positive affective states whereas others experience more negative affective states (Grandey, 2000). Thus, some individuals may need to exert more effort to make a particular emotional display (Grandey, 2000). This individual difference is captured by the construct of affectivity, which can be divided as positive and negative affect. Positive affect refers to the tendency to experience more positive emotional states, whereas negative affect refers to the tendency to experience more negative emotional states (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). Individuals high on positive affect should have less need to fake their emotions, and are inclined to experience positive emotions. This notion is supported by research consistently showing positive affect negatively related to surface acting (Beal, Trougakos, Weiss, & Green, 2006; Gosserand & Diefendorff, 2005; Judge et al., 2009) and positively related to deep acting (Gosserand & Diefendorff, 2005; Judge et al., 2009). Individuals high on negative affect should have to manage their emotions in order display the positive emotions employees are often expected to display. This expectation is supported by research finding negative affect positively related to surface acting, although some research has found negative affect positively related to deep acting as well (Gosserand & Diefendorff, 2005).

Individual differences such as age and gender have also been hypothesized to relate to emotional labor (e.g., Dahling & Perez, 2010; Hochschild, 1983). Hochschild (1983) originally suggested that females may be more capable of managing their emotions than males, although research has not supported this contention. Erickson and Ritter (2001) found that engaging in emotional labor and that the consequences of emotional labor did not differ based on gender. Conversely, Johnson and Spector (2007) found that females experienced more negative consequences as a result of surface acting. Lovell, Lee, and Brotheridge (2009) found that female employees showed a greater variety of emotions and engaged in more deep-acting than males, and experienced greater work strain. Age has been found to positively relate to the use of deep acting and genuine emotional expression strategies, while being negatively related to the use of surface acting (Dahling & Perez, 2010). Given findings demonstrating that individual differences may influence employees' choice of emotional labor strategies, and also how emotional labor impacts employees, it is important to consider individual differences when examining leaders' emotional labor.

**Emotional Labor and Self-Monitoring**

While numerous individual differences have been shown to be useful in predicting emotional labor, recent research has emphasized personality as a vital predictor of emotional labor strategies (e.g., Kiffin-Petersen et al., 2011). In addition to individual differences such as affectivity, gender, and age, emotional labor research has emphasized the role of personality in explaining an employee's choice of emotional labor strategies. The personality dimensions most often considered in emotional labor research are the big five, particularly extraversion and emotional stability. Both extraversion and

emotional stability have been shown to influence an employee's choice in the emotional labor strategy they employ (e.g., Diefendorff et al., 2005). Extraverts typically engage in less surface acting, more deep acting (Austin, Dore & O'Donovan, 2008; Diefendorff et al., 2005; Kiffin-Petersen et al., 2011), and express more naturally felt emotion (Diefendorff et al., 2005). Emotionally unstable individuals engage in more surface acting (Austin, Dore & O'Donovan, 2008; Diefendorff et al., 2005; Kiffin-Petersen et al., 2011) and less deep acting (Bono & Vey, 2007; Diefendorff et al., 2005; Kiffin-Petersen et al., 2011).

Individual differences in regulating behavior, such as self-monitoring, may be particularly relevant to emotional experience. Self-monitoring refers to the degree to which individuals regulate their self-presentation (Snyder, 1974). An individual's ability to self-monitor and process emotions has been linked to the same region of the brain, the orbitofrontal cortex (Beer, John, Scabini, & Knight, 2006). Individuals with damage to the orbitofrontal cortex are unaware that their behaviors violate social norms, and do not experience emotions, like embarrassment, that would guide their behavior during interactions (Beer et al., 2006). Grandey (2000) suggested that self-monitoring be relevant to emotional labor, and that self-monitoring may relate to a person's choice of emotional labor strategy. Self-monitors are more willing and able to regulate their behavior and, therefore, are inclined to engage in emotional regulatory strategies such as surface- and deep-acting (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002). Consistent with this idea, high self-monitors have been found to engage in more surface acting (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Buckner & Mahoney, 2012; Diefendorff et al., 2005) and deep acting (Bono and Vey,

2007). A negative relationship has been found between expressing naturally felt emotion and self-monitoring (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002).

## Leadership

The emotions employees must display vary based on their job or their place in an organization's structure (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002). Employees responsible for others, such as leaders, are bound by emotional rules in order to facilitate interactions within their workgroups (Gardner et al., 2009). Extending the "affective revolution" to leaders has been slow, with few leadership studies investigating how leaders deal with their emotions, and the impact that leaders' emotion-management has on their followers.

In order to understand the nature of leadership, practitioners and scholars have addressed several key issues that influence leadership research. These issues can help characterize leadership studies, and orient research to better explain specific areas related to leadership. Some of the characteristics addressed in the literature are a) how leadership is defined, b) forms of leadership, and c) theoretical orientation. These aspects of leadership research are discussed in relation to the current study's orientation in examining leadership.

Leadership research has considerable history, but has often suffered from a lack of clarity in mission. Leadership can be conceived of as a power relationship between a leader and follower, as a transformational process aimed at inspiring others, as a trait difference where some people have the characteristics of a "leader", or as behaviors where leaders are defined by what they do to create positive change (Northouse, 2007). Leadership here is defined as, "a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal" (Northouse, 2007). Approaching leadership as an

influence process incorporates emotional labor, which leaders engage in to influence followers, and is consistent with Avolio and Gardner's (2005) definition of authentic leadership.

Two common forms of leadership are assigned and emergent leadership (Northouse, 2007). These forms of leadership can be examined within different theoretical frameworks of leadership. Assigned leadership refers to leadership based on occupying formal positions in an organization, such as being a group leader or supervisor (Northouse, 2007). Assigned leaders may be appointed or selected on the basis of (or irrespective of) their traits and behaviors or the demands of the situation. Similarly, individuals may emerge as leaders based on their traits, behaviors, or situational demands. Emergent leadership refers to how leaders come to be perceived as leaders by others and garner initial support and acceptance for their behaviors by others (Northouse, 2007).

In general, leadership has been considered in terms of traits, behaviors, or situations (Yukl, 2010). Early approaches to leadership considered special attributes or characteristics that were specific to leaders (Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992). These early trait approaches examined characteristics or dispositions of leaders that made them effective, such as how their personality allowed them to inspire their followers (Yukl, 2010; Northouse, 2007). The trait approach views leadership in terms of what is within a leader, the stable characteristics that drive people to be effective leaders. Later research began to shift away from trait approaches after several reviews (e.g., Gibb, 1947; Jenkins, 1947) presented the approach in a negative light. Based on these reviews, focus began to shift

toward leadership behaviors and situational contexts, opposed to leader traits (Day & Zaccaro, 2007).

Behavioral approaches focused on the behaviors and actions of leaders that make them effective or ineffective (Yukl, 2010). The behavioral approach views leadership as a function of the right behaviors, rather than the right person. Situational approaches to leadership emphasize circumstances or contextual characteristics that "set the stage" for leaders, and may elicit either effective or ineffective behaviors (Yukl, 2010). The situational perspective views leadership from an external locus where the situation draws out certain behaviors or determines which behaviors may be most effective. The situational focus garnered more attention for the roles followers play in leadership. This situational focus on leadership was largely dominated by those with a social psychological perspective (Day & Zaccaro, 2007). For instance, Hersey and Blanchard (1996) stressed that leaders should change based on the situation they are placed in and that leadership should be studied based on examination of situational parameters.

New leadership theories have integrated aspects of the trait, behavioral, and situational approaches (Day & Zaccaro, 2007). For example, leader-member exchange theory (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975; Graen & Cashman, 1975) posited the idea that leaders will alter their behavior based on which follower they are interacting with and what the dynamic is like between the leader and a particular follower. Similarly, recent theories such as authentic leadership theory have taken this integrative approach. Authentic leaders have particular traits that influence the extent to which they exhibit authentic behaviors, and are embedded in the demands of a situation (Gardner et al., 2009; Luthans & Avolio, 2003).

In conclusion, this examination of leadership has elucidated several issues that prevail in leadership research today. The current study addressed some of these issues by investigating the authentic leadership of assigned leaders and by taking an integrative approach to leadership. The distinction between assigned and emergent leadership is an important in authentic leadership, as followers may perceive assigned leaders as less authentic (e.g., Fields, 2007; Pielstick, 2000). In addition, this study contained elements of the trait, behavioral, and situational approaches by focusing on leaders' authentic behaviors that followers observe and leaders' traits (i.e., self-monitoring) in conjunction with situational demands (i.e., display rules) expected to influence leader effectiveness.

## Authentic Leadership

The idea of authentic leadership has a brief history. The concept of authentic leadership originated from research on transformational leadership (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009). Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) suggested that there are both "pseudo" and authentic transformational leaders that may be distinguished based on their ethics and morality. Authenticity in leadership was popularized in practice with George's 2003 book *Authentic Leadership: Rediscovering the Secrets to Creating Lasting Value*. Luthans and Avolio (2003) introduced the idea of authentic leadership to academic research in order to tie leadership concepts into the growing positive psychology movement. Until then, much of the leadership literature focused on eliminating or reducing perceived deficits in leaders rather than emphasizing the positive growth of a leader (Luthans & Avolio, 2003).

To address the over-emphasis on improving the workplace by fixing weaknesses, Luthans (2002) suggested that OB research focus on positive psychological aspects. His

"positive organizational behavior" (POB) emphasized what was right with people, what their strengths were, and consider ways of developing, enhancing, and growing individuals, opposed to emphasizing weaknesses or deficiencies (Luthans, 2002). Luthans' (2002) (POB) also emphasized sound research, use of valid measures, and sought to examine constructs at the individual and organization level capable of being developed to positively impact performance. These criteria differentiated POB from previous "feel good" concepts such as the "power of positive thinking". Lastly, he suggested there was a need to develop theoretical explanations that combined positive aspects of human behavior into leadership. Luthans' 2002 paper provided a push toward the focus on positive aspects and leadership.

After Luthans' (2002) call to attend to positive psychological variables in leadership, Peterson and Luthans (2003) conducted a preliminary study examining hope and leadership. This study helped in shifting the focus of leadership research toward more positive psychological constructs. They found that high-hope managers had significantly more satisfied employees in their workgroup, were better able to retain their employees (lower turnover), and had higher performing workgroups (more profitable) compared to low-hope managers. This study demonstrated that the positive psychological characteristics of leaders could create positive outcomes for workgroups.

Following his previous work, Luthans and colleagues introduced authentic leadership into the realm of academia. Luthans and Avolio (2003) defined it as, "a process that draws from both positive psychological capacities and a highly developed organizational context, which results in both greater self-awareness and self-regulated positive behaviors on the part of leaders and associates, fostering positive self-

development" (p. 243). They described authentic leadership as impacting leaders, followers, work units (e.g., groups), and organizations, and also suggested that authentic leaders could be developed. Avolio and Gardner (2005) later outlined the conceptual background and central concepts of authentic leadership development (ALD). They described authentic leadership in terms of three constructs: authenticity, authentic leaders, and authentic leadership. *Authenticity* refers to acting in accord with one's own internal thoughts and emotions. *Authentic leaders* refers to those leaders that are self-aware, think and act according to their own perspective, knowledge, and ability, do not conform to outside or situational demands, and are moral, confident, and optimistic. Lastly, *authentic leadership* refers to the positive change that occurs in the organizational, followers, and leader as a result of leader's behaving authentically. Authenticity is also expected to be changeable, capable of being developed (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Luthans & Avolio, 2003). In fact, the positive change authentic leaders create through authentic leadership may be the development and growth of follower authenticity (Avolio & Gardner, 2005).

Having introduced the concept of authentic leadership through the veil of the positive psychological movement, the construct initially drew heavily on the concepts of confidence, hope, optimism, and resilience. Some definitions of authentic leadership viewed authentic leaders as possessing positive psychological traits or "capital" (e.g., Peterson & Luthans, 2003). However, others made the distinction that possessing positive psychological capital was an antecedent to developing as an authentic leader and did not constitute authentic leadership itself (e.g., Luthans & Avolio, 2003). As the concept of authentic leadership developed, the emphasis on positive psychological capital diminished. Two characteristics of authentic leadership were maintained throughout the

development of the construct – authentic leaders were self-aware and that they self-regulated (e.g., Avolio & Gardner, 2005).

Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, May, and Walumbwa (2005) elaborated on self-awareness and self-regulation. When individuals are self-aware, they can reflect on themselves, introspect, are clear about their personal values, identity, motives and goals, and emotions. They go on to note that authentic leaders are in touch with their emotions, aware of the effects their emotions have on themselves and others, take their and others' emotions into account, and are not "ruled" by their emotions. They see self-regulation refers to how individuals manage themselves. Authentic individuals are regulated internally, not by external constraints or pressures, are unbiased in collecting and interpreting information pertaining to themselves, are open, honest, high in self-disclosure in close relationships, and behave consistently with their beliefs, thoughts, and feelings (Gardner et al., 2005).

Shamir and Eilam (2005) discussed several characteristics that make up an authentic leader's identity. Authentic leaders view themselves as "being" a leader unconditionally, not merely at work. Authentic leaders have developed strong, clear identities of themselves as leaders and consider the goals they strive toward as leaders to be their own. Authentic leaders also express themselves and rely on their "true" self to guide behavior. Lastly, Shamir and Eilam (2005) suggested authentic leaders have a coherent life-story which provides them with clarity about themselves along with meaning, identity, and organization.

While efforts had been made by many to describe authentic leadership and authentic leaders, regrettably a unified definition of authentic leadership had been

lacking. Cooper, Scandura, and Schriesheim (2005) attempted to resolve this issue by laying out an approach to fully express and define the construct so it could be operationalized. Cooper et al. (2005) suggested that qualitative research methods be employed because of the richness and depth these methods produce. They pointed out that a unified measure of authentic leadership was absent. Once a measure of authentic leadership had been developed, demonstrating divergent validity and expanding the nomological network could take place through empirical research (Cooper et al., 2005). Cooper et al. (2005) further suggested that researchers needed to examine whether authentic leadership was one independent variable or if specific dimensions of authentic leadership would have different relationships with outcomes.

Researchers had suggested that a unified measure of the construct was necessary to further research on authentic leadership (e.g., Cooper et al., 2005). To meet this need, Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, and Peterson (2008) developed the authentic leadership questionnaire (ALQ). Prior to the development of the ALQ, individual studies would measure authentic leadership by combining measures of several constructs tapping aspects of authentic leadership (e.g., Jensen & Luthans, 2006). The ALQ tapped four dimensions of authentic leadership presented by Kernis (2003) – self-awareness, relational transparency, internalized moral perspective, and balanced processing. Internalized moral perspective was a dimension that reflected both internalized regulation processes and authentic behavior. Factor analysis supported these four separate factors as distinct and revealed that each served as an indicator for an overall authentic leadership factor (Walumbwa et al., 2008). In conclusion, there was initial evidence that authentic leadership could be accurately measured by the ALQ.

**Authentic Leadership Process**

Advocates of authentic leadership have fervently expressed that inauthentic leadership can be detrimental to organizations (e.g., George, 2003). Others have stressed that the presence of authentic leaders in an organization can lead to numerous positive work outcomes (e.g., Luthans & Avolio, 2003). Researchers have elaborated upon these relationships, explaining how authentic leaders create positive change in the workplace. These influence authentic leaders have at work are explained primarily by 1) their morality and decision-making processes and 2) through their positive influence on followers.

Since its inception, the importance of authentic leadership has been stressed as a form of leadership necessary to ensure leaders behaved ethically or morally. Inauthentic leaders had demonstrated the detrimental impact they could cause organizations by hiding their "true selves." An example of this is Enron Corp. executives recommending employees continue purchasing company stock, while executives were selling their own stock. This clearly demonstrates inauthentic leadership because leaders in this case are behaving in exact opposition to what they embrace on the surface (May, Hodges, Chan, & Avolio, 2003). May and colleagues (2003) suggested that an authentic leader has a higher moral standard and make moral decisions that benefit as many as possible, not simply further the leader's own agenda.

However, some researchers have criticized those claiming that authentic leaders are inherently more moral than inauthentic leaders (e.g., Cooper et al., 2005). Authentic leaders' morality is said to stem from the leaders knowing their "true self" and by acting "true to oneself" (May et al., 2003). Cooper et al. (2005) stated that authentic leadership

researchers assume that leaders' self-awareness will lead to the understanding of an ethical "true self." It is possible that one's "true self" is not ethical but self-serving, an issue that authentic leadership scholars need to further address (Cooper et al., 2005). It seems unlikely that authentic leadership is a cure-all for the potentially immoral, and disastrous, decisions leaders sometimes make.

As more empirical research was conducted on authentic leadership and criticisms were made of the moral decision-making perspective, researchers turned their attention to other benefits of authentic leadership. Empirical studies demonstrated that authentic leaders had positive influences on their followers, increasing follower OCBs, engagement, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, performance, and trust (e.g., Norman, Avolio, & Luthans, 2010; Walumbwa et al., 2008; Walumbwa et al., 2010). The way in which authentic leaders produced these positive effects is through their interactions with followers (Gardner et al., 2005).

Authentic leaders develop their followers through positive modeling (Gardner et al., 2005). Positive modeling refers to demonstrating a positive behavior that can be emulated, and explains how authentic leadership impacts followers. This includes authentic leaders modeling positive values, high moral standards, positive psychological states such as optimism, hope, and confidence, and by doing what they say (Gardner et al., 2005). For example, when authentic leaders demonstrate an awareness of and openness in discussing their strengths and weakness, followers may emulate these qualities. If followers begin to behave more authentically, then the relationship between leaders and followers becomes more authentic. Followers emulating a leader's authentic behavior may be more inclined to share their genuine concerns with their leader. When

this occurs, a number of positive outcomes of the authentic leader-follower relationship are expected to result, such as increased trust, well-being, performance, and positive emotions (Gardner et al., 2005). This in turn positively impacts work attitudes like commitment, job satisfaction, meaningfulness of work, and engagement, which ultimately influence follower work behaviors like performance, effort, and withdraw behaviors (Norman et al., 2010; Walumbwa et al., 2010; Walumbwa et al., 2008).

For leaders to be effective models, they must be consistent with their behavior in order to demonstrate that they are acting in accord with their true feelings opposed to bending to environmental pressures (Gardner et al., 2005). Leaders who alter their behavior according to situational demands are less likely to be perceived as authentic (Fields, 2007; Gardner et al., 2009). This is due to the inconsistency in a leader's behavior across situations or with different followers, which is seemingly incongruent with behaving authentically. Thus, leaders that self-regulate their behavior more may be less effective positive models and be less likely to develop authentic relationships with followers (Gardner et al., 2005).

There are also a number of conditions that "set the stage" for followers being more likely to model a leader (Gardner et al., 2005). Researchers have suggested that the amount of exposure followers have to leaders may influence follower perceptions of leader authenticity, impacting follower development (Gardner et al., 2005; Fields, 2007). The amount of exposure a follower has to a leader refers to the length of time the leader and follower have known each other or the number of occasions the follower has witnessed the leader perform. For example, some followers may have known the leader for several months, while other followers may have been recently introduced to the

leader. This exposure is likely to influence followers' perceptions of leader authenticity (Fields, 2007), and can serve to trigger followers down the path to developing their authenticity.

**Authentic Leadership and Trust**

Authentic leadership, because it is rooted in being genuine and acting with integrity, leads to positive outcomes such as trust between leaders and followers (Gardner et al., 2009). Clapp-Smith et al. (2009) examined the relationship between authentic leadership and trust. Trust is a willingness to be vulnerable or accept risk based on expectations of another's actions (Dunn & Schweitzer, 2005). They found that authentic leadership positively impacted group trust. Authentic leaders foster trust from followers by being self-aware, transparent, moral, and by balancing information rather than being biased (Clapp-Smith et al., 2009). These leaders are more open to disclose information in relationships, which increases trust (Illies, Morgeson, & Nahrgang, 2005). Followers are more inclined to trust leaders who demonstrate honesty, integrity, and weigh information instead of making snap decisions (Clapp-Smith et al., 2009).

Norman et al. (2010) examined the relationship between transparency, one dimension of authentic leadership, and trust in leadership and leadership effectiveness. The authors presented participants with vignettes about a corporation that was downsizing. Participants read scenarios manipulating whether the leader was presented as high or low on transparency (e.g., "CEO does ask for suggestions and acts on criticisms," versus, "CEO does not ask for suggestions or act on criticisms"). Findings supported the idea that transparency fostered trust in leadership because transparent leaders are open and honest with their followers (Mayer et al., 1995; Norman et al., 2010). These findings

support those of Clapp-Smith et al. (2009) regarding the broad authentic leadership construct and trust. Interestingly, Norman et al. (2010) also examined affective and cognitive dimensions of trust. While both types of trust were found to relate to leader transparency, affective trust, which is based on an emotional connection with the leader (Cummings & Bromiley, 1996), had a stronger relationship with transparency (Norman et al., 2010). Norman et al. (2010) suggested that the causal mechanisms impacting cognitive and affective trust may be different, and that affective trust is more influenced by emotions. Thus, Norman and colleagues provided evidence that authentic leadership affects outcomes through emotional variables.

Walumbwa, Luthans, Avey and Oke (2011) extended findings tying authentic leadership to trust at the individual level of analysis by examining relationships at the group level of analysis. The authors found that group perceptions of authentic leadership positively related to group trust. Authentic leaders, through their transparency and openness in sharing information, better communicate goals and expectations to their workgroups which increases the groups' trust in their leader (Walumbwa et al., 2011).

Building follower trust is an important outcome of authentic leadership because it can influence other work attitudes. For instance, authentic leaders are able to build followers' organizational commitment by acquiring their trust (Kliuchnikov, 2011). Authentic leadership has been positively related to employees' organizational commitment (Jensen & Luthans, 2006; Kliuchnikov, 2011). Interestingly, authentic leadership had the strongest relationship with the affective component of organizational commitment (Jensen & Luthans, 2006; Kliuchnikov, 2011), indicating that employees form an emotional attachment with their leader. Authentic leaders encourage employees'

to stay with an organization out of an internal desire, more so than a financial need or obligation. This suggests that authentic leadership is strongly tied to emotions. This increase in affective commitment that occurs through the authentic leadership process is due to the ability of authentic leaders to gain follower trust (Kliuchnikov, 2011).

The increased trust resulting from authentic leadership has also been shown to improve other work outcomes. Followers who trust their leader are more willing to accept risk and dedicate themselves more fully to their work, increasing performance (Clapp-Smith et al., 2009). Leaders who are more transparent in their communication and build trust with their followers are also perceived as more effective (Norman et al., 2010). Furthermore, the increase in group trust resulting from authentic leader behaviors causes groups to improve performance and engage in more OCBs (Walumbwa et al., 2011). Incidentally, authentic leaders may be improving group performance in part by avoiding groupthink – reaching unanimous agreement prematurely regarding a particular course of action (Janis, 1982). The tendency for authentic leaders to use open communication and share information is consistent with behaviors shown to alleviate groupthink and its negative effects on decision-making (e.g., Ahlfinger & Esser, 2001; Leana, 1985).

**Authentic Leadership and Emotions**

Gardner et al. (2009) proposed a connection between authentic leadership and emotional labor. Gardner and colleagues' explained that emotional demands are placed on leaders and leaders may deal with these demands by engaging in emotional labor. Leader self-regulation, in the form of self-monitoring, impacts the degree to which leaders manage their emotions in response to situational demands. In the end, the

emotional labor leaders perform leaves them feeling emotional exhausted and inauthentic, and their followers viewing them as less authentic and trustworthy.

For example, a leader may be leading in a workgroup that expects members to be energetic and enthusiastic about their work. This leader would be performing under positive display demands, and followers would likely expect the leader to express positive emotions and suppress negative emotions. Leaders in this situation may engage in emotional labor to meet their group's expectations. However, this emotional labor negatively impacts evaluations of emotional displays and both follower- and self-impressions of authenticity (Gardner et al., 2009). Thus, emotional labor and authenticity are seemingly incompatible; engaging in emotional labor comes at the cost of being authentic. This is because emotional labor, in the form of surface- and deep-acting, involves altering expression rather than expressing one's true feelings, whereas authentic behavior involves being true to oneself.

Gardner et al. (2009) suggested that naturally felt emotional expression may allow leaders to effectively express their emotions while retaining their sense of authenticity. This is because naturally felt emotional expression allows leaders to comply with rules and expectations while displaying genuine emotions. For instance, leaders that naturally expresses positive emotion to followers about their performance likely feels genuine, has followers that think the leader is authentic, and likely generates positive emotions in their followers. Therefore, expressing naturally felt emotions may be an emotional labor strategy that is compatible with authentic behavior. However, this strategy would still present a problem for leaders in situations where their naturally felt emotions are inappropriate based on emotional display rules.

Other authors have sought to reconcile the discrepancy between emotional labor and authenticity through other explanations. Ladkin and Taylor (2010) discuss how a leaders' bodily expression is a mechanism by which they convey their authenticity. The authors offer the example of "Hillary's Tears," where Hillary Clinton, during the early stages of the Democratic primary election in 2008, "let go" of her emotions when asked by a supporter "how she kept going?" (Ladkin & Taylor, 2010). Hillary's face and the crack in her voice, her emotional expression, told the public that she was under a great deal of strain. This emotional display was considered by the media to be an expression of her true feelings (Ladkin & Taylor, 2010). The authors go on to explain how leaders, seemingly paradoxically, may "act" in an authentic manner. They describe Stanislavski's "method acting", in which an actor recalls emotional memories in order to express genuine feeling for which a situation demands. Hochschild (1983) likened this type of acting to deep acting. Through this type of acting authentic leaders may actively regulate their expression in such a way as to still be authentic, rather than their expressions simply being the result of inept or naïve action that is effective only in certain circumstances (Ladkin & Taylor, 2010). For leaders to be perceived as authentic they must reveal themselves to followers through their expressions, be aware of the context in which their expressions are made, and embody the identity of the group so that followers connect with their expression.

## Conclusion

The emotions employees experience at work have been shown to impact customers and employees. The emotional labor employees perform has also been tied to

customer reactions, such as perceived friendliness of employees and quality of service. Emotional labor has been found to have both positive and negative influences on employees in terms of their satisfaction, performance, well-being, and even self-concept. Leaders experience emotions and are subject to the emotional demands of the workplace. Yet, it is unclear what impact leaders' emotional labor has on them or their followers. This consideration is critical, given authentic leadership has been shown to lead to numerous favorable outcomes, such as increased trust from followers, improved workgroup performance, and decreased experience of leader burnout.

This study examined the relationship between emotions and leadership in several ways. It examined whether authentic leadership can occur within the complexity of leaders managing their emotional displays by performing emotional labor. As has become common, this study examined emotional labor in the forms of surface acting, deep acting, and naturally felt emotions. When leading a group, leaders' perceptions of the emotional display rules of the situation likely influence their use of emotional labor strategies (Diefendorff et al., 2005; Gosserand & Diefendorff, 2005). In this study, it was expected that display rules leaders encountered would be related to the emotional labor they performed. Leaders encountering more rules regarding appropriate emotional displays should respond by engaging in more surface- and deep-acting.

Differences in self-monitoring were also expected to influence a leader's choice of emotional labor strategy (Gardner et al., 2009). Therefore, this study examined differences in leader self-monitoring and sought to examine how this influenced a leader's choice of emotional labor strategies. High self-monitoring leaders should alter their behavior to adhere to situation specific rules (e.g., display rules) and may be more

capable of feigning emotion (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002). Thus, high self-monitoring leaders were expected to perform more emotional labor in order to conform to situational demands. These leaders are likely to utilize the surface- and deep-acting strategies more, and express naturally felt emotion less, in order to express emotions consistent with display rules (Gardner et al., 2009). In contrast, low self-monitoring leaders tend not to alter their behavior according to situational demands, and were expected to perform less emotional labor given they are not striving to conform to situational demands (i.e., display rules).

Self-monitoring was not only expected to directly influence a leader's choice in emotional labor strategies, but also moderate the relationship between display rule perceptions and emotional labor. Leaders high on self-monitoring are likely to perceive and attend to emotional display rules, and then alter their emotional expressions to meet those demands (Gardner et al., 2009). When there are low display rule perceptions, high self-monitors will recognize that there are few demands which they will need to conform to and engage in less surface- or deep-acting (Gardner et al., 2009). When there are high display rule perceptions, high self-monitoring leaders will engage in more surface- and deep-acting. Low self-monitoring leaders, because they do not conform to situational demands, will engage in less surface- and deep-acting regardless of whether display rules are strong or weak.

Since research has shown that emotional labor may be both beneficial and detrimental, to those performing emotional labor and the "recipients," the current study examined how emotional labor may positively and negatively impact both leaders and followers. The emotional labor strategies leaders employed should create feelings of

emotional dissonance, an internal state that leaders experience when expressing emotions inconsistent with how they genuinely feel. The dissonance leaders' experience will result in leaders feeling emotionally exhausted and less authentic. When followers sense that their leader is faking emotional expressions followers will view their leader as less authentic. However, if leaders are engaging in emotional labor in order to ensure their expressions are consistent with display rules, this should result in more favorable impressions from followers (Gardner et al., 2009). Leaders' deep acting and expression of naturally felt emotions was expected to result in more positive follower ratings of their emotional displays and leaders feeling more authentic. Leaders' surface acting was expected to result in more negative follower ratings of their emotional displays, and to negatively impact leaders by increasing their feelings of emotional exhaustion and inauthenticity.

While emotional labor was expected to impact authenticity, this study also focused on the impact authentic leadership had on followers. Authentic leaders, because they are aware, transparent, behave morally, and solicit and consider others' viewpoints, earn the trust of their followers. In addition, the potential influence of follower familiarity with the leader on perceptions of authenticity was controlled for; participants were asked how long they had been acquainted with the individual assigned as their leader in order to control for this influence.

## Hypotheses

### Justification for Hypothesis 1

Leaders' emotional labor strategies will be related to their felt authenticity. Performing emotional labor decreases an individual's feelings of authenticity (Ashforth

& Tomuik, 2000; Brotheridge & Lee, 2002). Surface acting has been found to negatively relate to authenticity and deep acting to positively relate to authenticity (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002). Gardner et al. (2009) question whether authentic leadership can occur in situations where leaders must manage their emotions in conjunction with other demands. If leaders are authentic when engaging in emotional labor, they should utilize strategies that align their emotional expression with their internal feelings.

*Hypothesis 1a*: Leaders' surface acting will be negatively related to their felt authenticity.

*Hypothesis 1b*: Leaders' deep acting will be positively related to their felt authenticity.

*Hypothesis 1c*: Leaders' naturally felt emotional expressions will be positively related to their felt authenticity.

**Justification for Hypothesis 2**

Leader emotional labor will be related to their followers' perceptions of their leader's authenticity. Gardner et al. (2009) suggest that emotional labor will be tied to follower's perceptions of a leader's authenticity. Groth et al. (2009) found that when customers perceive employees to be surface acting they evaluate them less favorably. When leaders engage in surface acting, given it can be detected as an attempt to feign an unfelt emotion, followers will be less likely to perceive their leader as authentic. When leaders express genuine emotion or attempt to experience the emotions they express, followers should be more likely to perceive their leader as authentic (Gardner et al., 2009).

*Hypothesis 2a*: Leaders' surface acting will be negatively related to follower ratings of leader authenticity.

*Hypothesis 2b*: Leaders' deep acting will be positively related to follower ratings of leader authenticity.

*Hypothesis 2c*: Leaders' naturally felt emotional expressions will be positively related to follower ratings of leader authenticity.

## Justification for Hypothesis 3

Display rule perceptions will be related to emotional labor strategies. Gardner et al. (2009) suggested that display rule perceptions may influence the choice of emotional labor strategy. Since display rules prescribe the appropriate emotions to display, the presence of display rules should increase the likelihood that emotional displays are regulated (Diefendorff et al., 2005). Display rule perceptions have been found to positively relate to surface- and deep-acting and negatively relate to naturally felt emotion (Diefendorff, Croyle, & Gosserand, 2005; Diefendorff & Richard, 2003).

*Hypothesis 3a*: Positive and negative display rule perceptions will be positively related to leaders' surface acting.

*Hypothesis 3b*: Positive and negative display rule perceptions will be positively related to leaders' deep acting.

*Hypothesis 3c*: Positive and negative display rule perceptions will be negatively related to leaders' naturally felt emotional expression.

## Justification for Hypothesis 4

Leader self-monitoring will be related to emotional labor strategies. Self-monitoring has been shown to predispose individuals use certain emotional labor

strategies (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Diefendorff et al., 2005). High self-monitors alter their behavior to adhere with display rules and may be more capable of feigning emotion (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002). In contrast, low self-monitors tend not to alter their behavior according to situational demands. High self-monitors have been found to engage in more surface acting (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Diefendorff et al., 2005) and deep acting (Bono and Vey, 2007) and express less naturally felt emotion (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002). Self-monitoring is expected to interact with display rule perceptions to influence a leader's choice of emotional labor strategy (Gardner et al., 2009).

Self-monitoring is not only expected to directly influence a leader's choice in emotional labor strategies, but also moderate the relationship between display rule perceptions and emotional labor. Leaders high on self-monitoring will be more likely to perceive and attend to emotional display rules, and then to alter their emotional expressions to meet those demands (Gardner et al., 2009). When leaders' display rule perceptions are low, high self-monitors will recognize that there are few demands which they will need to conform to and engage less in surface- or deep-acting (Gardner et al., 2009). When display rules are perceived as high, high self-monitoring leaders will engage in more surface- and deep-acting. Low self-monitoring leaders, because they do not conform to situational demands, will engage in less surface- and deep-acting regardless of whether display rules are low or high.

*Hypothesis 4a*: Self-monitoring will be positively related to surface- and deep-acting and negatively related to naturally felt emotion.

*Hypothesis 4b*: Self-monitoring will interact with display rules, such that when display rule perceptions are high, high self-monitoring leaders will engage in more surface- and deep-acting and express less naturally felt emotion compared to low self-monitors.

**Justification for Hypothesis 5**

Leaders' emotional labor will be related to favorable follower impressions, specifically their impressions of leader emotional displays. Gardner et al. (2009) suggested consistency between emotional display rules and emotions by leaders will relate to favorable follower impressions. In addition to behaving consistently with display rules, an individual's positive emotional display can generate positive affect in others (Pugh, 2001). Emotional labor strategies, including surface- and deep-acting, have been found to relate to impressions from others, such as clients and customers, in service interactions (Grandey, 2003; Groth et al., 2009).

> *Hypothesis 5a*: Leaders' surface acting will be negatively related to follower ratings of a leader's emotional displays.
>
> *Hypothesis 5b*: Leaders' deep acting will be positively related to follower ratings of a leader's emotional displays.
>
> *Hypothesis 5c*: Leaders' naturally felt emotional expression will be positively related to follower ratings of a leader's emotional displays.

**Justification for Hypothesis 6**

Favorable follower impressions, specifically emotional displays, will be related to follower trust in leadership. Emotions and affective responses to situations can influence how individuals evaluate their level of trust in another (Schoorman, Davis, & Mayer,

2007). Dunn and Schweitzer (2005) found that emotions, even unrelated to the trustee or situation, were related to feelings of trust. They found that positive emotions increased feelings of trust, whereas negative emotions decreased feelings of trust.

> *Hypothesis 6*: Followers' ratings of a leader's emotional displays will be
>
> positively related to follower trust.

## Justification for Hypothesis 7

Follower perceived authenticity will be related to follower trust. Follower ratings of leader authenticity will be positively related to follower trust. Leaders acting consistently with their own words and with principles acceptable to followers (i.e., display rules) are acting with integrity and authenticity, which builds trust (Gardner et al., 2009; Schoorman et al., 2007). Leader authenticity has been found to positively relate to trust in leadership, both for individual followers (Clapp-Smith et al., 2009) and groups (Walumbwa et al., 2011).

> *Hypothesis 7*: Followers' ratings of authenticity will be positively related to
>
> follower trust in their leader.

## Justification for Hypothesis 8

Leader emotional labor and felt authenticity will be related to leaders' emotional exhaustion. Emotional labor has been shown to tax workers; surface-acting has been positively related to employees' experience of emotional exhaustion (Grandey, 2000; 2003). Gardner et al. (2009) discussed how leaders' sense of authenticity can weaken when they feel their behavior is less self-controlled and more constrained by the context. When leaders engage in emotional labor their feelings of authenticity tend to decrease

(Brotheridge & Lee, 2002). This decrease in authenticity, then, can lead to increased emotional exhaustion; research has found authenticity can explain the relationship between emotional labor and emotional exhaustion (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002).

*Hypothesis 8a*: Leaders' surface- and deep-acting will be positively related to and naturally felt expression will be negatively related to their emotional exhaustion.

*Hypothesis 8b*: Leaders' felt authenticity will be negatively related to their emotional exhaustion.

# CHAPTER THREE

## METHOD

### Participants

Participants were students at a mid-sized university in the southern United States. Participants were treated according to the American Psychological Association (APA; 2012) ethical guidelines for human subject research. There were no criteria barring participation in the study, provided participants were at least 18 years of age and completed an informed consent prior to participating in the study. Participation was voluntary and participants were free to withdraw from the study at any time with no penalty.

### Power Analysis

Using the software G*Power 3.1.4 (Faul, 2012), an a priori power analysis was conducted using criteria recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2009) of Type-I error $(\alpha) = .05$, Type-II error $(\beta) = .20$, and power $(1-\beta) = .80$. For a significant effect $(r^2 = .20$ or $f^2 = .25)$ using linear multiple regression with five predictors, the estimated minimal sample size was 58 observations. For data analyzed at the team-level, given teams sized between 3-5 members, this translated into approximately 232 participants.

## Measures

### Demographic Questionnaire

The demographic questionnaire (Appendix A) contained questions about the participant's age, class rank, ethnic group, academic major, previous length of relationship with other team members, formal supervisory experience, employment status, number of hours worked a week, and current job title.

### Emotional Labor

Emotional labor was measured using 14 items from Diefendorff et al.'s (2005) Surface-, Deep-Acting, and Naturally Felt Emotions scales Appendix B). Items were adapted to apply to the team task such that the items referred to "team members" rather than "customers" and to "the task" rather than the "job." Surface acting was measured using seven items, deep acting was measured using four items, and naturally felt emotions was measured using three items. An example surface acting item is, "I put on an act in order to deal with team members in an appropriate way." An example deep acting item is, "I tried to actually experience the emotions that I must show to team members." An example item for naturally felt emotions is, "The emotions I express to students are genuine." Responses were made using a five-point Likert-type scale (1="strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree"). Previous research has estimated the reliability of the surface acting scale to be .91, deep acting to be .82, and naturally felt emotions to be .75 (Diefendorff et al., 2005). A factor analysis was conducted on data from this study to confirm that the three emotional labor strategies were measured distinctly.

**Display Rule Perceptions**

Display rule perceptions were measured using seven items adapted from Diefendorff et al.'s (2005) Positive and Negative Display Rule Perceptions scales (Appendix C). Items were adapted to apply to the team task such that the items referred to "the task" rather than the "job," to "my team members" rather than "my workplace" or "my organization," and to "team members" rather than "customers." Positive display rule perceptions consisted of four items. An example positive display rule perceptions item is, "My team expects me to try and act excited and enthusiastic in my interactions with team members." Negative display rule perceptions consisted of three items. An example item for negative display rule perceptions is, "My team expects me to try to pretend that I am not upset or distressed." Responses were made using a five-point Likert-type scale (1= "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree"). Previous research has estimated the reliability of positive display rule perceptions to be .73 and negative display rule perceptions to be .75 (Diefendorff et al., 2005). A factor-analysis was conducted on data from this study to confirm that positive and negative display rule perceptions were measured distinctly.

**Emotional Displays**

Emotional display ratings were collected using six items adapted from Diefendorff and Richard's (2003) Emotional Display Behaviors scale (Appendix D). Items were adapted to apply to the team task such that the items referred to "the task" rather than the "job" or "work". Team members filled out the items in reference to the leader's emotional displays during the task. An example emotional display item is, "Remains positive during the task even when he/she may be feeling otherwise."

Participants were asked the extent to which they agreed that each statement described their leader's behavior. Responses were made using a five-point scale (1="strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree"). Previous research has used these scales to have others, such as coworkers or supervisors, provide ratings of an individual's emotional displays; the reliability of the emotional displays scale to be .82 (for supervisors) and .85 (for coworkers) (Diefendorff & Richard, 2003).

## Positive and Negative Affect

Positive and negative affect were measured using the 20-item Positive Affect Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS; Appendix E) (Watson et al., 1988). The PANAS consisted of a list of emotions, ten positive and ten negative. Some examples of positive emotions are, "enthusiastic, excited, inspired," and some examples of negative emotions are, "upset, distressed, nervous." Participants were asked to rate the extent to which they experience these emotions. Responses were made using a five-point Likert-type scale (1="very slightly or not at all", 2="a little", 3="moderately", 4="quite a bit", 5="very much"). The PANAS has been used to measure trait affect in emotional labor research before, and reliability for the positive affect scale has been estimated to be .89 and negative affect to be .87 (Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000).

## Authentic Leadership

Authentic leadership was measured using the 16-item Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ). The ALQ is copyrighted material from Mind Garden. The publisher was contacted and permission was granted to use the ALQ (Appendix F). The ALQ captures four dimensions of authentic leadership: self-awareness, transparency, ethical/moral, and balanced processing. An example self-awareness item is, "Know when

it is time to reevaluate my position on important issues." A transparency example item is,

"Display emotions exactly in line with feelings." An ethical/moral example item is,

"Make difficult decisions based on high standards of ethical conduct." An example

balanced processing item is, "Listen carefully to different points of view before coming

to conclusions." These four dimensions have been found to tap a higher-order factor,

authentic leadership (Walumbwa et al., 2008). An overall authentic leadership score was

created by aggregating scores across the four lower-order factors. The ALQ has a self-

and other-form that were filled out by leaders and followers, respectively, in reference to

the leader's behaviors. The ALQ completed by leaders (self-form) was used to measure

felt authenticity, whereas the ALQ completed by followers (other-form) was used to

measure perceived authenticity. Responses were made using a five-point Likert-type

scale (1= "not at all", 2="once in a while", 3="sometimes", 4="fairly often",

5="frequently, if not always"). Previous research has estimated the reliability of the self-

awareness scale to be .85 in two different samples, transparency to be .74 and .78,

ethical/moral to be .78 and .82, and balanced processing to be .74 and .77 (Walumbwa et

al., 2008).

**Self-Monitoring**

Self-monitoring was measured by the ten-item International Personality Item Pool

(IPIP; ipip.ori.org) version of Snyder's 1974 self-monitoring scale (Appendix G). An

example item from the scale is, "Am likely to show off if I get the chance." Participants

were asked the extent to which they agree that each statement describes them. Responses

were made using a five-point scale (1="strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree"). The

IPIP website reports the reliability of the self-monitoring scale to be .82 (ipip.ori.org).

**Trust**

Follower trust was measured using six items adapted from Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter's (1990) Trust in Leader scale (Appendix H). Items were adapted to apply to the team task such that items referred to team "leaders" rather than "managers". An example trust item is, "My leader manager would never try to gain an advantage by deceiving workers." Participants were asked the extent to which they agreed that each statement described their leader. Responses were made using a five-point Likert-type scale (1="strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree"). Previous research has estimated the reliability of the trust in leader scale to be .90 (Podsakoff et al., 1990).

**Emotional Exhaustion**

Emotional exhaustion was measured using six items adapted from Wharton's (1993) Emotional Exhaustion scale (Appendix I). Items were adapted to apply to the team task such that items referred to "the task" rather than the "job" or "work." An example emotional exhaustion item is, "I feel emotionally drained from the task." Participants were asked the extent to which a statement described how they felt. Responses were made using a six-point Likert-type scale (0= "never felt this way during the task" to 6="felt this way the entire time"). The reliability of the emotional exhaustion scale has been previously estimated to be .87 (Wharton, 1993).

**Procedure**

The principal investigator announced the opportunity in class, after obtaining instructor permission, to participate in the study and offered a brief explanation as to the purpose of the study. Participants were instructed to read and sign an informed consent, stating that they were free to withdraw at any time with no penalty and that their

responses would remain anonymous, before continuing in the study. Participants were instructed to omit any identifying information from the survey materials and informed consents were kept separate from survey materials to ensure anonymity. The participants completed the survey materials which included the demographics questionnaire (Appendix A), emotional labor scales (Appendix B), display rule perception scales (Appendix C), emotional displays scale (Appendix D), PANAS (Appendix E), ALQ, self-monitoring scale (Appendix G), trust in leader scale (Appendix H), and the emotional exhaustion scale (Appendix I). Given the terms and conditions for the use of the ALQ, the full-form of the measure cannot be provided in an appendix.

The team task participants engaged in was taken from Cook and Olson (2006). They used an Experiential Learning Activity (ELA) to teach undergraduate and graduate students concepts in project management. The ELA involved placing students into small teams, between three and five members, and having them construct a model skyscraper. The models were constructed from spaghetti and mini-marshmallows and each team was given 20 minutes to perform the task. The team members used the 20 minutes at their own discretion, allotting as much or as little time in planning versus building as the members deemed fit. The instructions were provided to the teams are as follows:

Your team has 20 minutes to construct a skyscraper made out of spaghetti and marshmallows. The criteria for the skyscraper are it must be durable, tall, and strong. To be successful, the skyscraper must stand for 20 minutes after being built and be able to support a weight equal to 50 sheets of paper. The team with the best skyscraper based on height, durability, and strength will WIN... Good Luck!!! (Cook & Olson, 2006, p. 408)

In addition to following these criteria for constructing the skyscraper, Cook and Olson (2006) set rules for the task. First, resources were restricted by giving each team a limited number of marshmallows. Second, the teams were instructed not to alter the marshmallows in any way, such as pulling them apart into smaller pieces or mashing them together into a large cluster, but to use them in their natural form. Last, teams were instructed not to perform any work on their skyscraper after the time limit had passed. One minute before the end of the time limit teams were reminded that working past the time limit will result in disqualification.

The Cook and Olson (2006) team task was modified so that a team leader was assigned a more critical role throughout the task compared to other team members. Leaders were randomly selected and identified by a symbol placed on the back of their survey materials. After informed consent sheets were signed and survey materials were passed out, leaders were asked to accompany the researcher into the hall. Leaders were then given the only set of instructions as to what the task is and how to complete it. Leaders were told they were responsible for communicating the purpose and requirements of the task to their team members. In addition, leaders were told they were responsible for managing the team's materials, time, and team members however they saw fit. While leaders were discussing the task with the researcher, the remaining team members were instructed to generate a team name, symbol, and motto.

Teams were offered an incentive for their performance. Participants were told that each member in the highest performing team would receive a non-cash prize equal to $30.00, and that each member in the second-highest performing team would receive a non-cash prize equal to $20.00. After all individuals had participated, members of the

highest- and second-highest performing teams were contacted via email to claim their non-cash prizes.

## Data Analysis

### Descriptive Statistics, Correlations, Reliability, and Rater Agreement

Descriptive statistics, the mean and standard deviation, were calculated and examined for all variables in the study. Pearson product moment correlations were calculated to examine the degree of association among variables. Additionally, for all scales used in the study, internal consistency reliability ($a$) was calculated. Lastly, group member agreement was assessed using the within-group correlation ($r_{wg}$; James, Demaree, & Wolf, 1993) and intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC; McGraw & Wong, 1996; Shrout & Fleiss, 1979). James et al. (1993) suggested that if group members share perceptions of a measured construct then aggregation may be supported; $r_{wg}$ statistics equal to or greater than .70 have been argued to support aggregation of group data. While there are no clear cutoffs for ICC statistics (Clapp-Smith et al., 2009), the closer the values are to 1.0 the greater the within group agreement (Shrout & Fleiss, 1979).

### Linear Multiple Regression

The relationships among variables was examined using linear multiple regression and ordinary least squares estimation. Linear multiple regression allowed for the examination of linear relationships between several independent variables and one dependent variable simultaneously (Tobachnick & Fidell, 2009). This type of analysis allowed the researcher to estimate the unique relationship between a given independent variable and a dependent variable. It also provided an estimate of the amount of variance

a given model explained ($R^2$); that is, how much variance in the dependent variable was explained by the linear combination of the independent variables. Linear multiple regression was chosen because it allowed for testing the hypothesized direct linear relationships and interactions among variables. In addition, it is useful in testing whether a variable entered in a later step added to the amount of variance predicted by the model (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2009). The "forced entry" method was used for all variables when entering them into the regression because it allowed the researcher to choose which variables remained in the regression when evaluating hypotheses. For each regression model the variance inflation factor (VIF) was examined to determine if multicollinearity was biasing the results. VIF values larger than six or seven indicate excessive multicollinearity (Keith, 2006).

The current study measured eleven variables. There were eight dependent variables, variables which have a directional line pointing to them – surface acting, deep acting, naturally felt emotions, emotional displays, perceived authenticity (comprised of self-awareness, transparency, ethical/moral, and balanced processing), felt authenticity (comprised of self-awareness, transparency, ethical/moral, and balanced processing), emotional exhaustion, and trust. Each of these dependent variables had multiple independent variables as predictors. In order to examine each of the hypothesized relationships, eight multiple regression models were tested, one for each dependent variable. A correction for the inflation of Type-I error was applied dividing the $\alpha = .05$ criterion by the number of tests ($.05/8 = .00625$); significance for the overall regressions was evaluated at $p < .00625$.

**Hypothesis 1**

Hypothesis 1 stated that leaders' emotional labor strategies will be related to perceptions of their authenticity. Leaders will consider themselves to be more authentic when using either genuine emotion or deep acting strategies, and less authentic when surface acting. To test Hypothesis 1, hierarchical regression was used entering (using forced entry method) leader authenticity as the dependent variable. In step one, control variables were entered. Given the affective nature of the emotional labor variables, leader affect was a control. Some emotional labor researchers have also suggested that emotional labor may differ based on sex (e.g., Johnson & Spector, 2007; Hochschild, 1983), so leader sex was also a control. In step 2, the three emotional labor strategies (surface-, deep-acting, and naturally felt emotions) were entered as independent variables.

**Hypothesis 2**

Hypothesis 2 stated that leaders' emotional labor will be related to followers' perceptions of leader authenticity. Leader's deep acting and naturally felt emotional expression will be positively related to follower ratings of leader authenticity. When leaders express genuine emotion or attempt to experience the emotions they express, followers will be more likely to perceive their leader as authentic. To test Hypothesis 2, hierarchical regression was used entering followers' perceptions of leader authenticity as the dependent variable. In step one, control variables were entered. Gardner et al. (2005) suggested that followers' familiarity with the leader may influence their perceptions of leader' authenticity; the length of acquaintance of leaders and followers was a control. Also, given the potential influence of experience, the leader's leadership experience was

a control. In step 2, the three emotional labor strategies (surface-, deep-acting, and naturally felt emotions) were entered as independent variables.

**Hypotheses 3 and 4**

Hypothesis 3 stated display rule perceptions will be related to emotional labor strategies. Positive and negative display rule perceptions will be positively related to surface- and deep-acting and negatively related to naturally felt emotional expression. Hypothesis 4 stated self-monitoring will be related to emotional labor strategies. Self-monitoring will be positively related to surface- and deep-acting and negatively related to naturally felt emotion. Also, self-monitoring will interact with display rule perceptions such that high self-monitors will engage in more surface- and deep-acting and express less naturally felt emotion when display rule perceptions, both positive and negative, are high. In contrast, low self-monitors tend not to alter their behavior according to situational demands. Hypotheses 3 and 4 were tested using the same set of regression models.

To test Hypotheses 3 and 4, hierarchical regression was used entering each of the emotional labor strategies (surface-, deep-acting, and naturally felt emotions) as a dependent variable in separate regressions. In step one, positive and negative display rule perceptions were entered as independent variables. Along with the display rule perceptions entered in step one, scores from the self-monitoring scale were also entered as an independent variable. In step 2, the interaction terms between display rule perceptions, positive and negative, and self-monitoring were entered as independent variables. The interaction terms were computed first by centering variables, taking the difference of observed values and the mean for a given variable, in order to reduce

multicollinearity, an elevated association between the original variable and interaction term (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2009). After the variables were centered, the product of each variable was computed for positive display rule perceptions and self-monitoring and negative display rules and self-monitoring, resulting in the interaction terms. For significant interactions, an analysis of simple slopes was conducted to determine the nature of the interaction (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2009).

**Hypothesis 5**

Hypothesis 5 stated leaders' emotional labor will be related to favorable follower impressions, specifically their impressions of leaders' emotional displays. Leaders' surface acting will be negatively related to follower ratings of leaders' emotional displays. Leaders' deep acting and naturally felt emotional expression will be positively related to their followers' ratings of leader' emotional displays. To test Hypothesis 5, hierarchical regression was used entering followers' ratings of leader emotional displays as the dependent variable. In step one, affect was entered as a control. In step 2, the three emotional labor strategies (surface-, deep-acting, and naturally felt emotions) were entered as independent variables.

**Hypotheses 6 and 7**

Hypothesis 6 stated favorable follower impressions, specifically emotional displays, will be related to follower trust in leadership. Followers' ratings of leaders' emotional displays will be positively related to follower trust. Hypothesis 7 stated followers' ratings of leader' authenticity will be positively related to follower trust. To test Hypotheses 6 and 7, regression was used entering follower trust as the dependent

variable. Followers' ratings of authenticity and emotional displays were entered as independent variables.

**Hypothesis 8**

Hypothesis 8 stated leaders' ratings of emotional labor and felt authenticity will be related to leaders' emotional exhaustion. To test Hypothesis 8, regression was used entering emotional exhaustion as the dependent variable. The three emotional labor strategies (surface-, deep-acting, and naturally felt emotions) and leaders' ratings of authenticity were entered as independent variables.

# CHAPTER FOUR

## RESULTS

### Participants

Participants consisted of undergraduate and graduate students at a mid-sized Southern university in the U.S. A total of 59 groups comprised of 216 individuals voluntarily participated in this study. The conditions for the performance of the task were substantially altered for one group of four individuals participating during a campus-wide blackout. Therefore, this group was removed from any analyses. This resulted in a total of 58 groups comprised of 212 individuals. The 58 groups were made up of 31 groups of three members, 16 groups of four members, and eleven groups of five members. The sample consisted of 20.7% freshman, 13.8% sophomore, 24.1% junior, 20.7% senior, and 20.7% graduate students. The sample was predominantly Caucasian (69%) and African American (22.4%). Most of the sample was female (65.5%) and the average participant age was 22.31 (SD = 4.47).

### Missing Data

Data from participants who skipped entire scales were removed. In cases where data were missing from part of a scale, a response was omitted from an item or items on a given measure, the missing data were replaced with the mean for the item. Missing data were only replaced if there was less than 5% total missing data for a participant.

Researchers have suggested that any imputation procedures are acceptable when there is little missing data (5% or less) and data are missing randomly (Scheffer, 2002; Tobachnick & Fidell, 2009). Missing data were determined to be random by running a MANOVA and Pearson product-moment correlations. There were no significant mean differences (Wilks' $\lambda$ = .98, $F(1, 208)$ = .31, *ns*) based on missing data for any of the variables included in this study, nor were there any significant correlations between missing data and any of the variables included in this study.

## Confirmatory Factor Analyses

Confirmatory factor analyses using maximum likelihood estimation were performed for scales measuring display rules and emotional labor in order to examine whether positive and negative display rules, and surface acting, deep acting, and naturally felt emotion were empirically distinct. Table 1 presents the results of the factor analyses, including conventional levels for statistics used in determining goodness-of-fit (i.e., Byrne, 2001; Kline, 1998). The display rules scale was modeled with the four items for positive display rules and the three items for negative display rules loading on correlated "positive display rule" and "negative display rule" factors, respectively. The factor loadings for the display rule items are shown in Table 1. The emotional labor scale was modeled with the seven items for surface acting loading on a "surface acting" factor, the four items for deep acting loading on a "deep acting" factor, and the three items for naturally felt emotions items loading on a "naturally felt emotions" factor. Each of the latent factors, surface acting, deep acting, and naturally felt emotions, was correlated in the model.

Table 1

*Factor Loadings for the Emotional Display Rules Scales*

| | Positive Display Rules | Negative Display Rules |
|---|---|---|
| Part of the task was to make team members feel good. | **.61** | |
| My team did not expect me to express positive emotions to others as part of the task. (reverse coded) | .13 | |
| My team members would say that part of the task was to be friendly, cheery to others. | **.78** | |
| My team expected me to try and act excited and enthusiastic in my interactions with team members. | **.59** | |
| I was expected to suppress my bad moods or negative reactions to team members. | | **.70** |
| My team expected me to try to pretend that I was not upset or distressed. | | **.90** |
| I was expected to pretend I was not angry or feeling contempt during the task. | | **.88** |

Note: Loadings ≥.40 in bold.

The factor loadings for the emotional labor items are presented in Table 2. Fit indices reported include the absolute fit statistics $\chi^2/df$, GFI, RMR, and RMSEA, and relative fit statistics NFI and CFI. As shown in Table 3, the fit indices for the display rules and emotional labor models are within conventional levels for evaluating model fit with the exception of the GFI for the emotional labor model (which was just below .90). However, most of the data suggests that the model fit for display rules and emotional labor were acceptable.

Table 2

*Factor Loadings for the Emotional Labor Scales*

|  | SA | DA | NFE |
|---|---|---|---|
| I put on an act in order to deal with team members in an appropriate way. | **.68** | | |
| I faked a good mood when interacting with team members. | **.74** | | |
| I put on a "show" or "performance" when interacting with team members. | **.69** | | |
| I just pretended to have the emotions I need to display for the task. | **.87** | | |
| I put on a "mask" in order to display the emotions I needed for the task. | **.89** | | |
| I showed feelings to team members that are different from what I feel inside. | **.80** | | |
| I faked the emotions I showed when dealing with team members. | **.88** | | |
| I tried to actually experience the emotions that I had to show to team members. | | **.59** | |
| I made an effort to actually feel the emotions that I needed to display toward others. | | **.73** | |
| I worked hard to feel the emotions that I needed to show to team members. | | **.92** | |
| I worked at developing the feelings inside of me that I needed to show to team members. | | **.89** | |
| The emotions I expressed to team members were genuine. | | | **.87** |
| The emotions I showed to team members came naturally. | | | **.90** |
| The emotions I showed team members matched what I spontaneously felt. | | | **.89** |

Note: Loadings ≥.40 in bold. SA=Surface Acting, DA=Deep Acting, NFE=Naturally Felt Emotion.

Table 3

*Confirmatory Factor Analysis Fit Statistics for Display Rules and Emotional Labor*

| Fit Statistics | Convention | Display Rules | Emotional Labor |
|---|---|---|---|
| $\chi^2/df$ | $\leq 3.0$ | 2.71 | 2.51 |
| GFI | $\geq .90$ | .96 | .89 |
| NFI | $\geq .90$ | .93 | .91 |
| CFI | $\geq .90$ | .95 | .95 |
| RMR | $\leq .10$ | .08 | .06 |
| RMSEA | $\leq .10$ | .09 | .09 |

Note: The conventions are based on Byrne (2001) and Kline (1998) and represent less conservative cutoffs. For more conservative criteria, see Byrne (2001) and Kline (1998).

Given adequate fit, items for each scale were retained and the scales were used as indicators of the latent factors. Moreover, these fit indices suggest that positive and negative display rules, and surface-, deep-acting, and naturally felt emotions were measured distinctly. The items for positive and negative display rules loaded highly on the latent positive and negative display rule factors, and the items surface-, deep-acting, and naturally felt emotions loaded highly on their respective latent factors.

## Inter-rater Reliability and Agreement

In order to support the use of aggregated group-level variables, inter-rater reliability and agreement were examined. James et al. (1993) suggested that if group members share perceptions of a measured construct then aggregation may be supported; $r_{wg}$ statistics equal to or greater than .70 have been argued to support aggregation of group data. While there are no clear cutoffs for ICC statistics (Clapp-Smith et al., 2009), the closer the values are to 1.0 the greater the within group agreement (Shrout & Fleiss,

1979). Table 4 shows the reliability statistics for each group-level variable. For each of the three group-level variables – emotional displays, perceived authenticity, and trust – within group correlations $(r_{wg})$ and intraclass correlations (ICCs) were calculated. The model used for reliability was ICC(1,$k$), where each leader was rated by $k$ followers randomly selected from the larger population of raters.

Table 4

*Inter-rater Reliability and Agreement for Group-Level Variables*

|  | ICC | $r_{wg}$ |
|---|---|---|
| Emotional Displays | .76 | .86 |
| Perceived Authenticity | .94 | .80 |
| Trust | .64 | .86 |

Note: Conventions for both ICC and $r_{wg}$ are $\leq$ .70 (e.g., Clapp-Smith et al., 2009).

The ICCs were .76 for emotional displays, .94 for perceived authenticity, and .64 for trust. The lower reliability for trust may be due to the reverse-coded item, "I have a divided sense of loyalty toward my leader," which may have been interpreted differently by team members. This seems to be the case, as removing this item improved the reliability of the trust scale to .82. However, the reverse-coded item was retained in order to be comparable to the original Podsakoff et al. (1990) scale. Nonetheless, these variables had acceptable reliability, although trust fell below typically accepted levels of "modest" reliability (.70) (e.g., Kaplan & Saccuzzo, 2001; Kline, 2005). However, some have suggested that ICC values between .50 and .70 represent "marginal" or "moderate" agreement and that values below .50 represent poor or weak agreement (Klein et al., 2000; LeBreton & Senter, 2008). Dixon and Cunningham (2006) state that various cutoff

criteria, some more stringent, are used to support aggregation and that the context and other statistics should be considered. As such, within-group agreement was also considered. Group agreement, the extent to which members had a shared perception of these variables, was examined using a within-group correlation ($r_{wg(j)}$), which examines the average variation among raters across $j$ items compared to what would be expected based on raters providing random ratings. The $r_{wg}$ were .86 for emotional displays, .80 for perceived authenticity, and .86 for trust. Coefficients for $r_{wg}$ equal to or greater than .70 have been used to support aggregation because group members are seen as having similar perceptions of the construct in question (e.g., Clapp-Smith et al., 2009). Therefore, follower ratings for emotional displays, perceived authenticity, and trust were aggregated to the group level.

## Statistical Analyses

Descriptive statistics, correlations, and reliabilities are reported in Table 5. Each of the variables had reliability estimates ($\alpha$) equal to or greater than the conventional .70, with the exception of positive display rule perceptions which had a reliability of .64. The lower reliability for positive display rules may be due to the reverse-coded item, "My team did not expect me to express positive emotions to others as part of the task." The confirmatory factor analysis of the scale revealed this item had a small loading (.13) on the latent factor. Perhaps the language of the reverse-coded item led individuals to interpret this item differently from the other positive display rule items. Participants were high on positive affect (M = 37.95, SD = 6.76) and low on negative affect (M = 19.47, SD = 6.69).

Table 5

*Descriptive Statistics, Correlations, and Reliabilities*

| | Mean | SD | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Leadership Experience | .62 | .49 | - | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Length of Acquaintance | 24.59 | 47.27 | -.01 | - | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3. Sex | .66 | .48 | -.12 | -.13 | - | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 4. Positive Affect | 37.95 | 6.76 | -.09 | .12 | .18 | **.90** | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 5. Negative Affect | 19.47 | 6.69 | .09 | .01 | .11 | -.35** | **.87** | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 6. Positive Display Rule | 13.86 | 2.69 | -.19 | -.04 | .19 | .05 | -.06 | **.64** | | | | | | | | | | |
| 7. Negative Display Rule | 8.71 | 3.07 | -.13 | -.07 | .25 | .03 | .13 | .36** | **.86** | | | | | | | | | |
| 8. Self-Monitoring | 27.48 | 6.28 | .28* | -.07 | -.14 | -.08 | -.10 | -.06 | -.04 | **.77** | | | | | | | | |
| 9. Surface Acting | 13.60 | 5.96 | -.05 | -.10 | .08 | -.24 | .16 | .15 | .32* | .22 | **.94** | | | | | | | |
| 10. Deep Acting | 12.37 | 4.44 | .03 | .13 | .25 | .22 | .08 | -.10 | .18 | .03 | .32* | **.91** | | | | | | |
| 11. Naturally Felt Emotion | 13.02 | 2.05 | .11 | .05 | .02 | .08 | -.08 | -.07 | -.19 | -.25 | -.66** | -.33* | **.90** | | | | | |
| 12. Felt Authenticity | 64.24 | 9.01 | .11 | .09 | .14 | .29* | -.10 | .23 | .04 | .08 | -.18 | -.04 | .23 | **.89** | | | | |
| 13. Emotional Exhaustion | 6.72 | 7.84 | -.04 | -.01 | .32* | .10 | .06 | -.30* | .11 | .10 | .29* | .40** | -.14 | -.20 | **.90** | | | |
| 14. Emotional Displays | 23.79 | 2.45 | -.09 | .18 | -.08 | -.37** | .06 | .16 | .18 | -.15 | -.02 | -.12 | .03 | -.06 | -.27* | **.76ᵃ** | | |
| 15. Perceived Authenticity | 59.92 | 9.80 | .09 | .34** | .11 | -.04 | .19 | .16 | .09 | -.04 | -.08 | .09 | -.09 | .06 | -.05 | .44** | **.94ᵃ** | |
| 16. Trust | 24.14 | 2.48 | -.06 | .35** | .17 | .12 | .00 | .08 | .11 | .09 | .02 | .09 | -.06 | -.07 | -.12 | .48** | .58** | **.64ᵃ** |

Note: Reliabilities ($\alpha$) bolded in diagonal.
*$p < .05$, two-tailed
**$p < .01$, two-tailed
N=58

They also generally felt authentic (M = 64.24, SD = 9.01) and were perceived as authentic (M = 59.92, SD = 9.80) and trustworthy (M = 24.14, SD = 2.48). Relationships among variables were examined using correlation.

Notably, there was a moderate to strong negative relationship between positive and negative affect ($r$ = -.35, $p$ < .01), positive relationship between positive and negative display rules ($r$ = .36, $p$ < .01), and negative relationship between positive affect and emotional displays ($r$ = -.37, $p$ < .01). There were also moderate to strong relationships between the emotional labor strategies – surface acting and deep acting were positively related ($r$ = .32, $p$ < .05), surface acting and naturally felt emotion were negatively related ($r$ = -.66, $p$ < .01), and deep acting and naturally felt emotion were negatively related ($r$ = -.33, $p$ < .05). Leader emotional displays and perceived authenticity ($r$ = .44, $p$ < .01), emotional displays and trust ($r$ = .48, $p$ < .01), and perceived authenticity and trust ($r$ = .58, $p$ < .01) were also strongly positively related.

## Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 stated that leaders will consider themselves to be a) less authentic when surface acting and b) more authentic when deep acting or c) expressing naturally felt emotion. Hypothesis 1 was tested using hierarchical regression, entering leader felt authenticity as the dependent variable. In step one leaders' sex, positive affect, and negative affect were entered as control variables. Sex was used as a control because some have found that the use of emotional labor strategies differed based on sex (e.g., Johnson & Spector, 2007; Lovell, Lee, & Brotheridge, 2009). Controlling for sex did not likely impact results, as sex was not significantly related to any of the emotional labor strategies. Given the affective nature of the emotional labor variables, affect has also

been suggested as a control (e.g., Gosserand & Diefendorff, 2005). In step two leaders'
emotional labor - surface acting, deep acting, and naturally felt emotion - was entered.
The test of Hypothesis 1 is presented in Table 6.

Table 6

*Regression of Felt Authenticity on Emotional Labor*

|  | Felt Authenticity | |
|---|---|---|
|  | Step 1 | Step 2 |
|  | $\beta$ | $B$ |
| Sex | .10 | .10 |
| Positive Affect | .27* | .28* |
| Negative Affect | -.02 | .00 |
| Surface Acting |  | .03 |
| Deep Acting |  | -.07 |
| Naturally Felt Emotion |  | .20 |
| $R^2$ | .09 | .14 |
| $\Delta R^2$ |  | .05 |

*$p < .05$, one-tailed
N=58

The overall regression was non-significant at step one($R^2 = .09$, *ns*), and remained
non-significant at step two ($\Delta R^2 = .05$, *ns*). Leaders' emotional labor strategies were not
significantly related to their felt authenticity. Hypotheses 1a, 1b, and 1c were not
supported.

**Hypothesis 2**

Hypothesis 2 stated that leader's will be perceived as a) less authentic when
surface acting, and b) more authentic when deep acting and c) expressing naturally felt

emotion. Hypothesis 2 was tested using hierarchical regression, entering perceived authenticity as the dependent variable. In step one leadership experience and the length of acquaintance between leaders and followers were entered as controls. Gardner et al. (2005) suggested that followers' familiarity with the leader may influence their perceptions of leader' authenticity; thus the length of acquaintance between leaders and followers was controlled. Also, given the potential influence of experience, the leader's leadership experience was controlled. Participants did not provide continuous data for their self-reported leadership experience (i.e., participants did not report the length their experience). Therefore, leadership experience was dichotomized – those reporting "yes" they had experience and those reporting "no" they did not have leadership experience (dummy coded "0" for no experience, "1" for leadership experience). In step two surface acting, deep acting, and naturally felt emotional labor strategies were entered into the regression. Table 7 presents the results of the hierarchical regression for Hypothesis 2. The overall regression was significant at step one ($R^2$ = .12, $p$ < .05). Length of acquaintance between leader and followers significantly positively related to leaders being perceived as authentic ($\beta$ = .34, $p$ < .05). Step two of the regression was non-significant ($\Delta R^2$ = .04, $ns$). Length of acquaintance remained significant ($\beta$ = .33, $p$ < .05); however, leaders' emotional labor strategies were not related to their felt authenticity. Hypotheses 2a, 2b, and 2c were not supported.

Table 7

*Regression of Perceived Authenticity on Emotional Labor*

| | Perceived Authenticity | |
| | Step 1 | Step 2 |
| | $\beta$ | $\beta$ |
|---|---|---|
| Leadership Experience | .09 | .10 |
| Length of Acquaintance | .34** | .33* |
| Surface Acting | | -.22 |
| Deep Acting | | .03 |
| Naturally Felt Emotion | | -.25 |
| | | |
| $R^2$ | .12* | .16 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | | .04 |

*$p < .05$, one-tailed
**$p < .01$, one-tailed

N=58

## Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3 stated positive and negative display rule perceptions will be a) positively related to surface acting, b) deep-acting and c) negatively related to naturally felt emotion. Hypothesis 3 was tested using hierarchical regression. Three separate regressions models were examined entering surface acting, deep acting, and naturally felt emotion as dependent variables. In step one positive and negative display rules were entered.

The results of the test for Hypothesis 3 are shown in Table 8. For surface acting, the overall regression was significant in step one ($R^2 = .16$, $p < .05$). Negative display rule perceptions positively related to surface acting ($\beta = .31$, $p < .05$), indicating that leaders

who were more aware of rules for displaying their negative emotions surface acted more. This provided partial support for Hypothesis 3a because negative display rules, but not positive display rules, were related to surface acting.

For deep acting, the overall regression was non-significant in step one ($R^2$ = .06, *ns*). Thus, no significant relationships were found between display rules and deep acting. This did not support Hypotheses 3b. For naturally felt emotion, the overall regression was non-significant in step one ($R^2$ = .10, *ns*). There were no relationships between naturally felt emotions and display rules. Thus, Hypothesis 3c was not supported (see Table 8).

**Hypothesis 4**

Hypothesis 4 stated self-monitoring will a) be positively related to surface acting, deep-acting and negatively related to naturally felt emotion, and b) interact with display rules such that relationships between emotional labor and display rules will be stronger for high self-monitors. Hypothesis 4 was tested using hierarchical regression. Three separate regressions models were examined entering surface acting, deep acting, and naturally felt emotion as dependent variables. In step one self-monitoring was added. In step two the interaction between positive display rule perceptions and self-monitoring and negative display rule perceptions and self-monitoring was entered in model 1 and 2, respectively. The interaction terms were computed first by centering variables, taking the difference of observed values and the mean for a given variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2009).

Table 8

*Regression of Perceived Authenticity on Emotional Labor and Self-Monitoring*

| | Surface Acting | | | Deep Acting | | | Naturally Felt Emotion | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | $\beta$ | $R^2$ | $\Delta R^2$ | $\beta$ | $R^2$ | $\Delta R^2$ | $\beta$ | $R^2$ | $\Delta R^2$ |
| Step 1 (Models 1 and 2) | | .16* | | | .06 | | | .10 | |
| Positive Display Rule | .05 | | | -.19 | | | -.01 | | |
| Negative Display Rule | .31** | | | .25* | | | -.20 | | |
| Self-Monitoring | .24* | | | .03 | | | -.25* | | |
| | | | | | | | | | |
| Step 2 (Model 1) | | .21* | .05ᵃ | | .06 | .00 | | .16ᵃ | .06ᵃ |
| Positive Display Rule | .11 | | | -.18 | | | -.08 | | |
| Negative Display Rule | .29** | | | .24* | | | -.18 | | |
| Self-Monitoring | .32** | | | .05 | | | -.35** | | |
| PDR x Self-Monitoring | -.24ᵃ | | | -.05 | | | .27ᵃ | | |
| | | | | | | | | | |
| Step 2 (Model 2) | | .16* | .00 | | .10 | .03 | | .10 | .00 |
| Positive Display Rule | .05 | | | -.18 | | | -.10 | | |
| Negative Display Rule | .31** | | | .25* | | | -.20 | | |
| Self-Monitoring | .23* | | | .05 | | | -.25* | | |
| NDR x Self-Monitoring | -.03 | | | .18 | | | .03 | | |

Note: PDR is Positive Display Rule, NDR is Negative Display Rule.
**$p < .10$, one-tailed
*$p < .05$, one-tailed
ᵃ$p < .10$, two-tailed
N=58

Variables were centered in this way because, according to Tobachnick and Fidell (2009), this is an effective way to reduce multicollinearity among independent variables. After the variables were centered, the centered variables were then multiplied together to create interaction terms.

The results of the tests for Hypothesis 4 are shown in Table 8. For surface acting, the overall regression was significant in step one ($R^2$ = .16, $p$ < .05). Self-monitoring was significant ($\beta$ = .24, $p$ < .05) and related positively to surface acting. This supported Hypothesis 4a. Step two tested the effect of the interaction between self-monitoring and positive and negative display rules. Kirk (2008) suggested that researchers may adopt the .10 level of significance (i.e., marginal significance) in situations where Type I errors may be preferred to Type II errors, such as in low-risk exploratory research. Step two was marginally significant, meaning the rejection region for the test statistic was determined at $\alpha$ = .10, for the model including the positive display rule interaction ($\Delta R^2$ = .05, $p$ < .10). The $\alpha$-level was adjusted in order to lower the $\beta$-level, which was determined to be about .56 based on a post-hoc power analysis. This adjustment lowered the $\beta$-level to .43 and resulted in power of .57 to detect an effect, closer to the criteria of $\beta$ = .20 and power of .80. The relationships between surface acting and negative display rules ($\beta$ = .29, $p$ < .05) and self-monitoring ($\beta$ = .32, $p$ < .05) remained significant and in the same direction. For the model including the negative display rule interaction, step two was non-significant ($\Delta R^2$ = .00, $ns$). This did not support Hypothesis 4b.

A simple slopes analysis plots the slopes of the interaction at one standard deviation above and below the mean of the moderator variable to see if the slope of the regression line significantly differs from zero and is recommended to examine the nature

of an interaction (Aiken & West, 1991; Keith, 2006; Tobachnick & Fidell, 2009). A simple slopes analysis was conducted to further examine the interaction effect between self-monitoring and positive display rules. The analysis included only the two independent variables used to create the interaction and the interaction term itself. Figure 1 shows a graphical depiction of the interaction between positive display rules and self-monitoring related to surface acting. The simple slopes analysis revealed the interaction was marginally significant ($b = -.081, p = .065$). At +1 SD for self-monitoring (i.e., high self-monitoring), the relationship between surface acting and positive display rules was non-significant ($b = -.011, p = .974$). High self-monitors tend not to surface act more when they perceived high positive display rules.
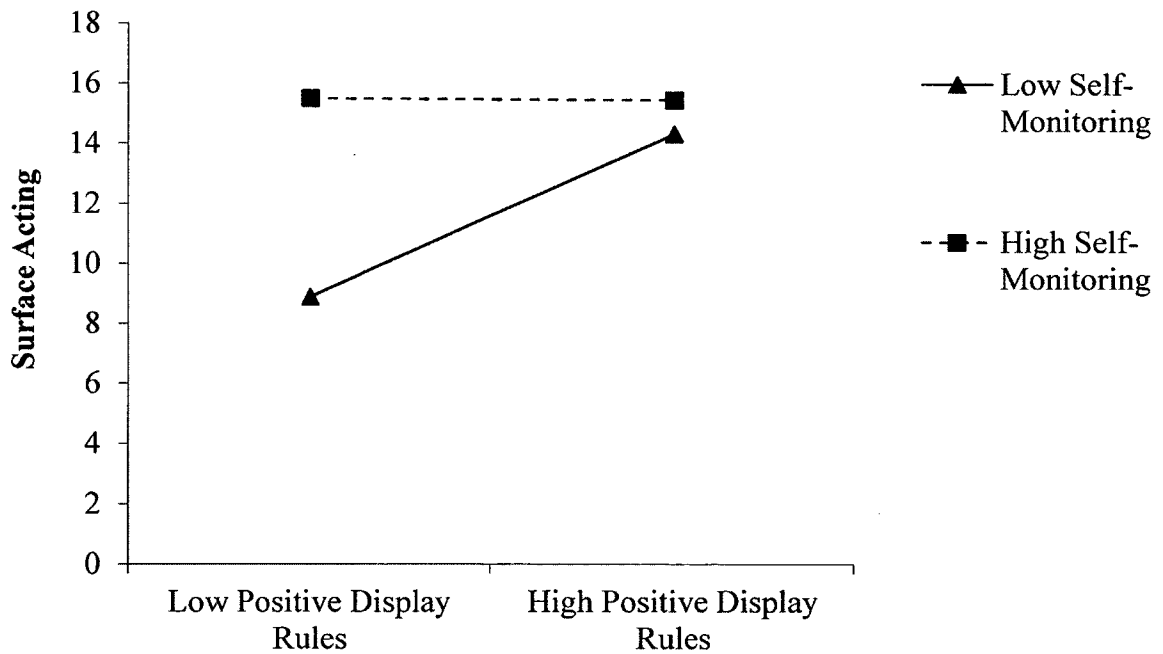


Figure 1 *Interaction between Positive Display Rules and Self-Monitoring related to Surface Acting*

At -1 SD for self-monitoring (i.e., low self-monitoring), the relationship between surface acting and positive display rules was significant and positive ($b = 1.005, p = .027$). Low self-monitors tend to surface act more when they perceived high positive display rules. These findings are contrary to Hypothesis 4b. Therefore, Hypothesis 4b was not supported. For deep acting, the overall regression was non-significant in step one, ($R^2 = .06$, $ns$). In step two for models 1 and 2, testing the interactions with positive ($\Delta R^2 = .00$, $ns$) and negative display rules ($\Delta R^2 = .03$, $ns$), the regression remained non-significant. Thus, no significant relationships were found with deep acting. This did not support Hypotheses 4a or 4b.

For naturally felt emotion, the overall regression was non-significant in step one ($R^2 = .10$, $ns$). Step two was marginally significant for the model including the positive display rule interaction ($\Delta R^2 = .06, p < .10$). The $\alpha$-level was adjusted in order to lower the $\beta$-level, which was determined to be about .41 based on a post-hoc power analysis. This adjustment lowered the $\beta$-level to .29 and resulted in power of .71 to detect an effect, closer to the criteria of $\beta = .20$ and power of .80. Naturally felt emotion was negatively related to self-monitoring ($\beta = -.35, p < .05$). This supported Hypothesis 4a. For the model including the negative display rule interaction, step two was non-significant ($\Delta R^2 = .00$, $ns$). This did not support Hypothesis 4b.

A simple slopes analysis was conducted to further examine the interaction effect. Figure 2 shows a graphical depiction of the interaction between positive display rules and self-monitoring related to naturally felt emotion. The simple slopes analysis revealed the interaction was significant ($b = .030, p = .048$). At +1 SD for self-monitoring (i.e., high self-monitoring), the relationship between naturally felt emotion and positive display

rules was non-significant ($b = .078, p = .515$). High self-monitors did not to express more natural emotion when they perceived high positive display rules. At -1 SD for self-monitoring (i.e., low self-monitoring), the relationship between naturally felt emotion and positive display rules was significant and negative ($b = -.298, p = .055$). Low self-monitors tend to express less natural emotion when they perceived high positive display rules. These findings are contrary to Hypothesis 4b. Hypothesis 4b was not supported.
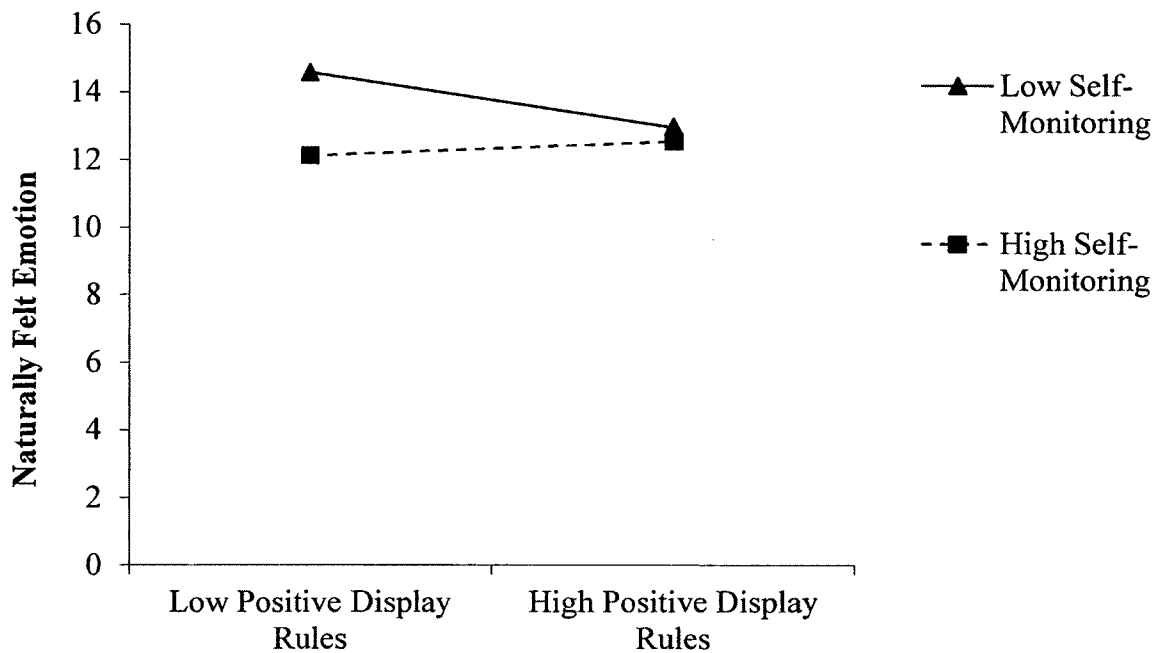


Figure 2 *Interaction between Positive Display Rules and Self-Monitoring related to Naturally Felt Emotion*

**Hypothesis 5**

Hypothesis 5 stated that leaders' emotional displays will be a) negatively related to leaders' surface acting, and b) positively related to leaders' deep acting and c) expression of naturally felt emotion. Hypothesis 5 was tested using hierarchical

regression, entering leader emotional displays as the dependent variable. In step one

positive and negative affect were entered as controls. In step two surface acting, deep

acting, and naturally felt emotional labor strategies were entered. Table 9 presents the

results for Hypothesis 5. The overall regression was significant in step one ($R^2$=.14, $p$ <

.05). Leader positive affect was negatively related to followers' ratings of their leader's

positive emotional displays ($\beta$=-.40, $p$ < .01). Step two did not result in a significant

change in variance account for in emotional displays ($\Delta R^2$=.04, $ns$). Leaders' emotional

labor did not relate to their followers' evaluations of leaders' emotional displays.

Hypotheses 5a, 5b, and 5c were not supported.

Table 9

*Regression of Emotional Displays on Emotional Labor*

| | Emotional Displays | |
| --- | --- | --- |
| | Step 1 | Step 2 |
| | $\beta$ | $\beta$ |
| Positive Affect | -.40** | -.43** |
| Negative Affect | -.08 | -.07 |
| Surface Acting | | -.12 |
| Deep Acting | | .02 |
| Naturally Felt Emotion | | -.02 |
| $R^2$ | .14* | .01 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | | .15 |

*$p$ < .05, one-tailed
**$p$ < .01, one-tailed
N=58

**Hypothesis 6**

Hypothesis 6 stated favorable followers' perceptions of their leader's emotional

displays will be related positively to follower trust in leadership. Hypothesis 6 was tested

using regression, entering follower trust as the dependent variable. Leaders' emotional

displays were entered as an independent variable. The findings for Hypothesis 6 are

shown in Table 10. The regression was significant ($R^2 = .40, p < .01$). Trust was

positively related to emotional displays ($\beta = .28, p < .01$). These results support

Hypothesis 6.

Table 10

*Regression of Follower Trust on Emotional Displays and Perceived Authenticity*

|  | Trust |
| --- | --- |
|  | $\beta$ |
| Emotional Displays | .28** |
| Perceived Authenticity | .46** |
| | |
| $R^2$ | .40** |

**$p < .01$, one-tailed
N=58

**Hypothesis 7**

Hypothesis 7 stated follower perceptions of leader authenticity will be positively

related to follower trust. Hypothesis 7 was tested using regression, entering follower trust

as the dependent variable. Followers' perceptions of their leader's authenticity were

entered as an independent variable. The findings for Hypothesis 7 are presented in Table

10. The regression was significant ($R^2 = .40, p < .01$). Trust was positively related to

followers' perceptions of authenticity ($\beta = .46, p < .01$). These results support Hypothesis

7.

**Hypothesis 8**

Hypothesis 8 stated leader emotional exhaustion would be a) positively related to

surface- and deep-acting and negatively related to naturally felt emotion, and b)

negatively related to leader felt authenticity. Hypothesis 8 was tested using regression.

Leader emotional exhaustion was entered as the dependent variable. Emotional labor

strategies and leader felt authenticity were entered as independent variables. The results

for Hypothesis 8 are presented in Table 11. The regression was significant ($R^2 = .23, p <$

.01). Deep acting significantly positively related to emotional exhaustion ($\beta = .37, p <$

.01), and surface acting was positively related to emotional exhaustion ($\beta = .27, p < .05$).

These findings support Hypotheses 8a and 8b.

Table 11

*Regression of Emotional Exhaustion on Emotional Labor and Felt Authenticity*

|  | Emotional Exhaustion |
| --- | --- |
|  | *B* |
| Surface Acting | .27 * |
| Deep Acting | .37 ** |
| Naturally Felt Emotion | .20 |
| Felt Authenticity | -.18 |
| $R^2$ | .23 ** |

\*\*$p < .01$, one-tailed
\*$p < .05$, one-tailed
N=58

## Accuracy Checks

For each regression analysis, potential multicollinearity was examined using the variance inflation factor (VIF). VIF values larger than six or seven indicate excessive multicollinearity (Keith, 2006). No VIF values were greater than two for any variables included in any of the regression models, indicating multicollinearity was not a problem. Finally, the use of several regression models may have inflated the Type-I error rate, resulting in significant findings actually due to chance. An adjustment was applied dividing the $\alpha = .05$ criteria by the number of tests conducted to examine each dependent variable $(.05/8 = .00625)$ (Field, 2009). Evaluating the significance of the overall regression models based on $p < .00625$ resulted in only one regression model being significant. This was the regression of follower trust on leader emotional displays and perceived authenticity, which tested Hypotheses 8a and 8b. Thus, the results for the regressions examining each of the other Hypotheses may be due to chance. Alternatively, this adjustment for Type-I error may be better understood as a test of the "universal null hypothesis' that none of the variables in this study were related (Perneger, 1998). This means the universal null hypothesis test is like an omnibus test, similar to that used in ANOVA, and can be used to determine if further interpretation of results is warranted. Given a significant finding for at least one regression at $p < .006$, this hypothesis can be rejected. The present findings may be best understood by interpreting the individual regression models used to test each hypothesis.

# CHAPTER FIVE

# SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

This study may extend the understanding of the relationship between emotional labor and authentic leadership in several ways. First, this study sheds light on the interactions between leaders and followers and examines whether the manner in which leaders regulate their emotions impacts their feelings of authenticity and whether followers view them as authentic. Results showed that there was no relationship between leaders' use of emotional labor strategies and their felt or perceived authenticity. This suggests that the relationship between emotional labor and authentic leadership may be more complex than previously proposed. There may be some variables not examined here, such as role identification, which allow leaders to perform emotional labor without feeling less authentic.

Second, this study was concerned with whether emotional labor performed by leaders leads to similar effects seen when emotional labor is performed in other work roles. Findings for emotional labor are consistent with findings in previous studies. The emotional labor performed by leaders here functioned similarly to the emotional labor performed by employees in service occupations. Like employees across a variety of occupations (e.g., Diefendorff et al., 2005), leaders' emotional labor was influenced by both situational cues and personality. Additionally, leaders' emotional labor was taxing

and led to emotional exhaustion, much like emotional labor performed by service employees interacting with customers.

Third, the influence of leader emotions and authenticity on followers was examined and results suggest that leaders' emotions and authentic leadership influence the perceptions of their followers, particularly followers' perceptions of trust in their leader. Followers' trust increased when leaders made positive emotional displays and followers placed even greater trust in leaders who were authentic.

## Emotional Labor and Authentic Leadership

The non-significant relationship between emotional labor and authentic leadership may be interpreted in several ways. First, leaders' emotional labor may simply be unrelated to their authenticity. Perhaps the way in which leaders regulate their emotions does not impact their authenticity in the way previous researchers have suggested (e.g., Gardner et al., 2009; Humphrey, Pollack, & Hawver, 2008). Emotion management performed in a leadership role may be unrelated to leaders' sense of authenticity, and followers may not perceive their leader's emotional regulation as diagnostic of authenticity. These findings are also contrary to research finding relationships between emotional labor strategies and felt authenticity (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002). Maybe emotional labor is tied to authenticity, as Brotheridge and Lee (2002) found, but the connection is different for those in leadership roles.

Alternatively, the relationship between emotional labor and authentic leadership may be more complicated than examined in this study. As more research on authentic leadership is conducted, explanations for how the construct is related to other variables may emerge. One framework for understanding the progression of research on a topic is

that of Reichers and Schneider's (1990) three-stage model for the evolution of constructs. This model has recently been applied to leadership concepts (e.g., Gardner, Lowe, Moss, Mahoney, & Cogliser, 2010), and authentic leadership in particular (Gardner et al., 2011). The three steps involve 1) introducing and elaborating on a concept, 2) evaluating and augmenting the concept, and 3) consolidating the concept. While Gardner and colleagues (2011) recently pointed out that the study of authentic leadership generally falls into the first stage, this study may represent a need to begin transitioning into step two. This study examined the direct influence of emotional labor on leader authenticity, but emotional labor may influence authenticity through some other variable that was not examined. In stage two the concept and processes are expanded through considering moderating and mediating variables. Though emotional labor can directly influence authenticity, emotional labor has also been found to work through variables (e.g., Brotheridge & Lee, 2002). For example, surface acting can lead to less rewarding relationships with others, thereby lowering one's sense of authenticity. An examination of such intervening variables may help explain the current finings and clarify the relationship between emotional labor and authenticity.

While there are numerous variables that may influence the relationship between emotional labor and authenticity, perhaps the most compelling influence is an individual's sense of identity (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). Specifically, an individual's identification with his role has been linked to emotional labor and authenticity. Through interviews with employees in customer service occupations, Ashforth and Tomuik (2000) found that role identity influenced the extent to which managing one's emotions on the job related to his sense of authenticity. They found employees in service occupations

reported having to be good actors while on the job, but that, seemingly paradoxically, they also felt that they acted like themselves. Interestingly, Ashforth and Tomuik (2000) found that almost half of the employees sampled reported having to adopt a persona or act like a certain "character", at work. Yet, these employees maintained they were authentic. This simultaneous view of oneself as being authentic and inauthentic can be explained in terms of role identity. Employees who identify deeply with their job role, recognizing that their role will occasionally require them to regulate their emotions, may experience little or no emotional dissonance when expressing emotions they do not feel (Ashforth & Tomuik, 2000). Ashforth and Tomuik (2000) refer to this as "deep authenticity," being true to the role one has identified with *regardless of whether the expression genuinely reflects one's current feelings*" (emphasis in the original, p. 195).

The insights from the Ashforth and Tomuik (2000) study are useful in explaining the results concerning emotional labor and authentic leadership. It is possible that participants identified with their role as leader and/or implicitly viewed the leader role as requiring emotion management. Thus, leaders may not have experienced the emotional dissonance associated with performing emotional labor, and therefore may not have felt less authentic. This explanation only works for certain emotional labor strategies, such as surface acting, which is known to increase emotional dissonance. The increased emotional dissonance associated with surface acting (Grandey, 2000) may be reduced when leaders identify with their role. Conversely, because deep acting and naturally felt emotion result in little or no emotional dissonance regardless of whether individuals identify with their role, role identification does not explain why these strategies do not lead to *increased* feelings of authenticity.

The perceptions that followers have of their leader may be influenced by role identity as well. If followers identify the leadership role as requiring emotion management they may not view their leader's emotional labor as indicative of the leader's authenticity. Followers who identify the leadership role in this way may be basing their perceptions of leader authenticity on some other characteristic (e.g., acquaintanceship) while remaining uninfluenced by their leader's emotional labor.

Lastly, the relationships between emotional labor and authenticity may be explained by methodological artifacts. Given the length of the interaction between participants was roughly 45 minutes, participants may have not had enough time or exposure to their leader to make attributions about leader authenticity based upon the emotional labor the leader performed. Authentic leadership may take more time to evaluate because it involves leaders acting consistently with their core values and challenging deeply help positions. Leaders may not have had the opportunity to exhibit these behaviors within this timeframe. Therefore, leaders may not have been able to evaluate themselves based on these criteria and followers may have not been able to observe these behaviors. In addition, it may take a longer period of time for an individual's sense of authenticity to change. Perhaps emotional labor only takes a toll on leaders' sense of authenticity when they must manage their emotions over prolonged periods of time.

## Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 stated that leaders would feel less authentic when surface acting and more authentic when deep acting or expressing naturally felt emotion, and was not supported. None of the emotional labor strategies were related to leaders' felt authenticity. However, leader emotions were tied to authenticity. Leaders' positive affect was positively related to their felt authenticity. This provides some indication that, while the strategy by which leaders regulate their emotions may not make them feel more or less authentic, the emotions leaders experience are connected to their sense of authenticity. Leaders who reported experiencing more positive emotions felt more authentic. Of course, it is difficult to untangle the nature of this relationship – positive emotions may increase feelings of authenticity, or authentic leaders may be more inclined to experience positive emotions.

## Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2 stated that followers' perceptions of their leader's authenticity would be related to the leader's emotional labor, and also received no empirical support. None of the three emotional labor strategies related to follower perceptions of authenticity. However, followers' perceptions of the leader did influence the followers' view of the leader as authentic. The strongest predictor of perceived authenticity was the length of time the followers and the leader had known each other – longer relationships were associated with greater perceptions of authenticity. Researchers have suggested that the length of the relationship between leaders and followers may influence follower perceptions of leader authenticity (e.g., Fields, 2007; Gardner et al., 2005). Followers who know their leader longer are exposed to a greater percentage of their leader's

behaviors and likely know the leader's behaviors well compared to followers who have only known the leader for a few days or hours. This exposure may explain the influence of the length of the relationship between leaders and followers on follower perceptions of leader authenticity (e.g., Fields, 2007). To some extent, the positive relationship between length of relationship and perceptions of authenticity may be explained by mere exposure. The mere-exposure effect refers to the tendency for individuals to develop more positive attitudes toward things that are familiar to them (Myers, 2007). The length of the relationship followers have with their leader results in greater exposure and familiarity, and therefore may have led to more positive evaluations of the leader in terms of authenticity.

## Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3, leaders' perceptions of emotional display rules would relate to which emotional labor strategy they employed, was supported. Negative display rule perceptions related to more surface acting, consistent with Diefendorff et al. (2005). Negative display rule perceptions also related to more deep acting. This means that when leaders expected that they should suppress their negative emotions, they were more likely to manager their emotions by faking expression or trying to "work up" the appropriate emotion. Positive display rule perceptions were not associated with any of the emotional labor strategies. This differs from studies that found positive display rules lead to increased deep acting (Buckner & Mahoney, 2012; Diefendorff et al., 2005). Positive and negative display rules were unrelated to leaders' expression naturally felt emotion, though prior research had tied negative display rules to naturally felt emotion

(Diefendorff et al., 2005). These findings indicate that leaders are subject to emotional display rules and that they surface and deep act more to meet the demands of negative display rules.

## Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis 4 stated that self-monitoring would be related to the emotional labor performed by leaders. Results supported this hypothesis. High self-monitoring leaders engaged in more surface acting. This is similar to previous findings (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Buckner & Mahoney, 2012; Diefendorff et al., 2005). High self-monitoring leaders also expressed less naturally felt emotion, extending relationships with self-monitoring to naturally felt emotions. Based on previous research (Bono & Vey, 2007), high self-monitors were expected to regulate their emotions by engaging in more deep acting. The results did not support this. The results that self-monitoring related to emotional labor for leaders is consistent with previous research; high self-monitoring leaders regulate themselves more through surface acting and express less natural emotion, though they do not necessarily deep act more.

Hypothesis 4 also stated that self-monitoring and display rules would interact to influence emotional labor. High self-monitors, who regulate their behavior, were hypothesized to engage in more emotional regulation (surface and deep acting) in response to display rules. Self-monitoring was found to interact with positive display rule perceptions. However, the relationships were contrary to expectations. High self-monitoring leaders did not surface act more or express less naturally felt emotion when they perceived high positive display rules.

Oddly, low self-monitors seemed to adjust their regulation strategy when faced with positive display rules. When low self-monitors perceived high positive display rules they surface acted more and expressed less natural emotion. This means that leaders who are typically not inclined to regulate themselves actually regulated their emotions more when they felt there were expectations to make positive displays.

Conversely, high self-monitors seemed to engage in high levels of emotional regulation regardless of positive display rules. High self-monitoring leaders regulated their emotions more and expressed less natural emotion even when display rule perceptions were low. Because high self-monitoring leaders are already regulating their emotions when display rules are low, they may not be capable of engaging in more regulation when display rules are high. While research has suggested that self-monitoring and display rule perceptions may have a combined influence on emotional labor (e.g., Gardner et al., 2009), this is the first empirical support provided for this relationship.

**Hypothesis 5**

Providing no support for Hypothesis 5, emotional labor performed by leaders was found not to relate to followers' perceptions of their leader's emotional displays. Regardless of the emotional labor strategy used, leaders were not viewed as making more positive (or negative) emotional displays. This is inconsistent with studies finding that individuals' emotional labor strategies influenced others' ratings of their emotional displays (e.g., Buckner & Mahoney, 2012; Groth et al., 2009). These results may suggest that leaders' emotional labor may not influence their followers' perceptions of the

leader's emotional displays. This may indicate that emotional labor may not necessarily influence others through such processes as emotional contagion, or may only influence others in certain contexts.

These results may be explained in terms of role identification or expectations. If followers view the leader's role as requiring emotional regulation, they may not base evaluations of the leader's emotions on the emotional labor strategy employed. This relationship may also be attributed to interaction time, such as the relatively brief (20 minute) interaction between leaders and followers. This amount of time may not have been sufficient for followers to accurately detect the leader's emotional labor strategy, and thus may not have influenced their evaluations of the leader's emotional displays. This seems unlikely given research has demonstrated customers can accurately detect employees' emotional labor strategy regardless of the degree of contact between them (Groth et al., 2009).

Although leaders' emotional displays did not impact their followers' perceptions of the leader's emotional displays (Hypothesis 5), leaders' emotions did relate to followers' perceptions of the leader's emotional displays. When testing Hypothesis 5, leader' affect (entered as a control) was found to significantly relate to followers' ratings of their leader's emotional displays. Specifically, leader positive affect was related to followers' perceptions of the leader's emotional displays. Strangely, the less positive affect a leader reported the more positively followers rated the leader's emotional displays. This finding may be explained by leaders reporting their general affect which may not have been representative of the emotions they experienced or displayed throughout the task. It is possible that leaders who usually experience less positive affect

enjoyed the task and displayed positive emotions throughout. Also, it may be the case that leaders who experience less positive affect recognize this and adjust by making an effort to have their positive displays noticed. Alternatively, leaders who feel they are generally positive may have made no special effort to have their positive displays recognized. This shows that leaders' emotions did influence their followers, even if they did not regulate the emotions they experienced.

## Hypothesis 6

Follower trust was found to be related to both leaders' emotional displays and leaders' perceived authenticity, which supported Hypothesis 6. One of the most important factors that leader emotions and authentic behaviors influence is follower trust (e.g., Gardner et al., 2009). Trust in leaders can impact other important outcomes, such as group performance (Walumbwa et al., 2011) and organizational commitment (Clapp-Smith et al., 2009; Kliuchnikov, 2011). Trust may be a more proximate influence than leader emotions on follower behaviors (Gardner et al., 2009). When followers viewed their leader as making more positive emotional displays, followers perceived their leader as more trustworthy. This compliments Schoorman and colleagues' (2007) suggestion that emotions can influence individuals' evaluations of trust, and is consistent with Dunn and Schweitzer's (2005) finding that positive emotions increase feelings of trust. This finding provides evidence for the proposition that leaders' emotions can influence their followers through the emotional contagion process (e.g., Humphrey et al., 2008). Leaders' positive emotional displays can be contagious, "caught" by their followers, and can positively affect followers' trust in the leader.

**Hypothesis 7**

Hypothesis 7 stated that followers' perceptions of leader authenticity related to follower trust, and was supported by results. This supported research tying authentic leadership to trust (Clapp-Smith et al., 2009; Norman et al., 2010), and paralleled findings of Walumbwa et al. (2011). Leaders who were more authentic, reporting they were transparent, shared information, considered others' ideas, and behaved ethically, increased their group's trust in them. Other studies have found this relationship through field studies (Clapp-Smith et al., 2009) and experimental studies using "paper-people" (Norman et al., 2010). However, this is the first study to corroborate previous findings by using random assignment and real people in a controlled setting. Thus, we can be more confident that the relationship between authenticity and trust is real, and not a result of potential confounds.

**Hypothesis 8**

Results showed that emotional labor related to a leader's own well-being, which supporting Hypothesis 8. Two emotional labor strategies, surface acting and deep acting, positively related to leaders' emotional exhaustion. When leaders regulated their emotions by feigning, suppressing, or enhancing their feelings, they experienced more emotional exhaustion. The relationship between surface acting and emotional exhaustion corroborates previous findings that surface acting is emotionally exhausting for the performer (e.g., Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Goldberg & Grandey, 2007; Grandey, 2003; Grandey et al., 2005).

Moreover, deep acting was more strongly related to emotional exhaustion than surface acting. Relationships between deep acting and emotional exhaustion have been

contradictory, with some emotional labor researchers explaining why deep acting may result in more emotional exhaustion (e.g., Mancini & Lawson, 2009) while others suggest it results in less emotional exhaustion (e.g., Grandey, 2000). Deep acting requires more effort than surface acting, involving the modification of emotions by recalling an emotional memory or reframing the situation (Grandey, 2000). Deep acting also involves continual effort as it requires monitoring and altering one's emotion. However, deep acting reduces emotional exhaustion because it restores resources by reducing feelings of emotional dissonance and by leading to more positive interactions (e.g., Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Goldberg & Grandey, 2007; Grandey, 2000; 2003). The current finding may be a result of the length of the task. The effects of employing certain strategies may change based on the length of the interaction (Buckner & Mahoney, 2012). Prolonged interaction coupled with the use of strategies that are less emotionally draining (e.g., deep acting, natural expression) may reduce emotional exhaustion by leading to more positive interactions. The duration of the task here, however, may have been too brief for leaders to reap the benefits of deep acting. This would leave leaders depleted from using a more effortful emotional labor strategy.

Leaders' expression of naturally felt emotion was unrelated to their emotional exhaustion. Natural expression was expected to be negatively related to emotional exhaustion because it does not create any feelings of emotional dissonance and may result in more positive interactions. However, leaders' natural emotional expression did not contribute to nor reduce their emotional exhaustion. This could be because expressing naturally felt emotion does not create emotional dissonance, but does not necessarily result in more positive interactions. In addition, a potential relationship between naturally

felt emotion and emotional exhaustion may have been obscured given no distinction was made between positive or negative natural emotion in this study. Studies that have examined positive and negative natural or genuine emotion have shown that genuine emotional expression has different relationships with emotional exhaustion depending on the valence (positive or negative) of the emotion expressed (Mahoney et al., 2011). Leaders expressing natural positive emotion may experience less emotional exhaustion because they are enjoying the task and having positive interactions with followers, while leaders expressing natural negative emotion may experience more emotional exhaustion because they are frustrated and are having unpleasant interactions with their group.

Leaders' felt authenticity was also unrelated to their experience of emotional exhaustion. This differed from Brotheridge and Lee's (2002) study which found a negative relationship between authenticity and emotional exhaustion. Authenticity was expected to reduce emotional exhaustion because authentic leaders should not feel estranged from their own feelings. A relationship between authenticity and emotional exhaustion may not have manifested for the same reasons that emotional labor and authenticity were not related. If leaders identified strongly with their role, the emotional labor they performed may not have left them feeling less authentic. Thus, leaders may not have experienced the emotional exhaustion associated with decreased feelings of authenticity (e.g., Brotheridge & Lee, 2002). This lack of relationship between authenticity and emotional exhaustion may also be due to authenticity taking longer periods to influence or assess – the short-term nature of the task used here may not have been effective at uncovering this relationship.

## General Discussion

This study addressed 1) whether leaders' emotions, emotional labor and authenticity are compatible, 2) whether leaders' emotional labor works like emotional labor in other contexts, and 3) whether leaders' emotional labor and authenticity have an impact on their relationships with followers. This study found that leader emotions and authenticity are important; however, it is not clear how emotional labor relates to authentic leadership. The results suggest that leaders can manage their emotions without sacrificing their authenticity, indicating that emotional labor and authentic leadership are compatible. However, it remains unclear as to why leaders' emotional labor may not affect their authenticity. Until these relationships are uncovered it is only known that leader emotions and behaviors are important because they influence work outcomes. Specifically, leadership behaviors such as emotional labor and authentic behavior impact followers and business. But the question remains – how does emotional labor influence authentic leadership? If emotional labor and authentic leadership are incompatible, as previously suggested, it would be beneficial to find the optimal trade-off between emotional labor and authenticity.

Given authentic leadership has emerged relatively recently, it is not surprising that the relationship between emotional labor and authentic leadership may not work as expected. Using the three-stage framework (Reichers & Schneider, 1990) describing the evolution of a construct, it seems that authentic leadership is beginning to move into stage two. This stage involves clarifying and expanding how the construct relates to other variables by examining mediators and moderators. Identity may be a variable that can clarify the link between emotional labor and authentic leadership. Researchers have

focused on and individual's personal and role identity when examining both emotional labor (e.g., Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Ashforth & Tomuik, 2000) and authentic leadership (e.g., Sparrowe, 2005). Role identification in particular seems to offer an explanation as to why authentic leaders may engage in emotional labor without threatening their authenticity. Interestingly, those in leadership roles may identify more strongly with their role compared to those in other work roles (Humphrey, 2012), and this strong sense of identity may buffer them against feeling inauthentic when they perform emotional labor (Ashforth & Tomuik, 2000). The views that others hold for the role may also influence their perceptions, though this has not previously been proposed in relations to emotional labor and authentic leadership. Others who consider a role as requiring emotional labor may not look upon the "actors" less favorably when they manage their emotions because they understand it is necessary to fulfill the role. If followers view the leadership role in this way, perhaps followers will not fault leaders for having to manage their emotions.

The second purpose of this study was to examine how emotional labor functioned for leaders. The findings here suggest that emotional labor does not work differently for leaders given results are consistent with the literature. Leaders observe situational cues about the demands to express (or not) certain emotions the same as employees in other occupations (e.g., Diefendorff et al., 2005). Leaders' personality, specifically self-monitoring, was found to impact leaders' choice in emotional labor strategies. Lastly, the taxing effect of emotional labor on well-being was shown to occur for leaders. Leaders' emotional labor led to increased feelings of emotional exhaustion. This largely supports

prior research, and indicates that emotional labor researchers have reached an understanding of emotion management that holds across roles.

The third aspect of this study was to examine the impact leader emotional labor and authentic leadership had on the relationships between leaders and followers. Leaders' emotional labor did not influence their followers' rating of the leader's emotional displays. This conflicts with previous research findings (e.g., Buckner & Mahoney, 2012; Groth et al., 2009), and may reflect that there are some differences in how an individual's emotional labor may affect others when the individual is a leader. Perhaps leaders are not able to influence their followers by engaging in emotional labor in the same ways service agents influence customers. For authentic leadership, findings reaffirmed the importance of being authentic. Follower perceptions of authenticity were relatively more important than leaders' emotional displays in gathering followers' trust meaning that, given a choice, it is better for leaders to be authentic than to worry about how they express their emotions.

## Limitations

There are several limitations of the current study. The task used here may have been too brief in duration (approximately 45 minutes to an hour) to assess some of the relationships of interest. In particular, authenticity may be a variable that is less malleable than, for example, an individual's feelings of emotional exhaustion. Leaders may not have felt that their sense of authenticity was threatened by engaging in emotional labor for such a short time period. Likewise, followers may have lacked the requisite time to form accurate evaluations of their leader's authenticity. This could be because leaders did not have an opportunity to demonstrate behaviors indicative of authentic leadership, like

acting consistently with their core values or challenging deeply held beliefs, and thus followers would have been unable to observe these behaviors.

Another limitation to this study is that data collected were cross-sectional and correlational. Measures for emotional labor, authentic leadership, display rule perceptions, trust, and emotional exhaustion took place after the task, and therefore these variables were influenced by participants' experience throughout the task. However, measurement of each of these variables occurred at the same time (i.e., post-task) and thus it is difficult to infer the causal ordering of relationships. Therefore, definitive conclusions cannot be draw as to whether emotional labor influences authenticity, or whether authenticity influences emotional labor.

In addition, the data were collected through self-report measures. Individuals' reports of their own emotions or personality traits may not always be accurate. Self-report data are subject to biases such as socially desirable responding which can distort responses and result in spurious relationships (Type I error) (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Similarly, some of the measures were completed using a similar metric (e.g., Likert-type agreement scales) and source. Same source data were collected from one target on separate variables, such as leaders completing measures of both emotional labor and authentic leadership. Common method bias may influence results by artificially inflating relationships (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). However, Chan (2008) suggested that measurement biases associated with common methods may not necessarily be present or problematic. Further, some of the variables measured in this study were not completed by the same source, and are therefore unlikely to be influenced

by common method bias. For example, leaders' emotional labor and followers' perceptions of leader authenticity were collected from leaders and followers, respectively.

## Future Directions

Future researchers should consider examining factors that may explain the relationship between emotional labor and authentic leadership. Specifically, research should focus on the role of identity to determine if role identification moderates the relationship between emotional labor and authenticity. As Ashforth and Tomuik (2000) suggested, individuals identifying with their work role may not feel their sense of authenticity is threatened when they engage in emotional labor. Empirical research is needed to explore this potential relationship. Also, a longitudinal study examining emotional labor and authentic leadership would allow some light to be shed on whether emotional labor influences authenticity over longer periods of time. There have been limited studies examining authentic leadership longitudinally (e.g., Tate, 2008), and none examining authentic leadership and emotional labor.

In addition, future studies should continue to use controlled laboratory methodologies which are underutilized in leadership research (Hiller et al., 2011). A laboratory study using experimental manipulation would allow for causal inferences to be made concerning relationships among variables. A study experimentally manipulating the presence of authentic leaders, by taking preliminary measures and injecting leaders into pre-existing groups, could draw causal conclusions regarding the impact authentic leaders have on their workgroups. Also, a field study examining real leaders in different organizational contexts may help identify the conditions influencing the relationships for both emotional labor and authentic leadership. For example, a quasi-experimental study

could be conducted examining differences between leaders in for-profit and non-profit organizations. Emotional labor and authenticity may be more or less important for leaders in different types of organizations because of how leaders, or their followers, identify with the leadership role.

Finally, studies should examine relationships between emotional labor and authentic leadership across the numerous levels each are expected to impact. Researchers have suggested that both emotional labor and authentic leadership (e.g., Ashkanasy & Humphrey, 2011; Yammarino et al., 2008) have an effect on individuals, dyads, interactions, groups, and the overall organization. Yet, studies examining emotions and authentic leadership seldom focus on more than one or two of these levels. This study examined relationships at the between-individual and group levels. Studies using similar designs could capture an additional level, within-individuals, by examining individuals over time. Researchers should consider these different levels because relationships often change depending on the level of analysis. For example, a study by Ilies, Scott, and Judge (2006) found that within-individual variations in positive affect were positively related to engaging in OCBs. However, this relationship changed when considering differences between individuals. The relationship was only present for disagreeable people – agreeable individuals' positive affect did not predict their OCBs.

## Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between emotional labor and authentic leadership. Researchers have suggested that leaders perform emotional labor (Humphrey et al., 2008), and that emotional labor may have a particularly important connection to authentic leadership (e.g., Gardner et al., 2009).

While Gardner and colleagues (2009; 2011) have made a call for researchers to conduct empirical studies examining the relationships between emotional labor and authentic leadership, such studies had yet to be undertaken. This empirical study provided some insight into these relationships. Notably, leaders' emotional labor was unrelated to their felt or perceived (by followers) authenticity. This result may be due to how individuals view and identify with the leadership role; emotional labor may be unrelated to authenticity when leaders strongly identify with their role (e.g., Ashforth & Tomuik, 2000). Nevertheless, finding no relationship between emotional labor and authenticity may be promising, as it suggests that emotional labor and authentic leadership are compatible. Leaders may be able to manage their emotions when interacting with followers while remaining authentic.

# APPENDIX A

# GENERAL DATA QUESTIONNAIRE

1. What is your age, in years?

2. What year are you in school?

a. Freshman, Sophomore, Junior, Senior, Graduate Master's Student, Graduate Doctoral Students

3. With which ethnic group do you most identify? (Check any that apply)

a. American Indian or Alaskan Native, Black or African American, Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander, White, Some Other Race, Hispanic or Latino, Non Hispanic or Latino

4. What is your academic major?

5. Did you know any of your fellow group members prior to participating in this study?

a. Yes/No

6. What is the approximate length of your relationship with each (days/months/years)?

a. I have known the first group member _____

b. I have known the second group member _____

c. I have known the third group member _____

d. I have known the fourth group member _____

7.   Do you have any experience supervising others in a formal capacity? Briefly

explain.

8.   Are you currently employed?

9.   How many hours a week do you work, on average?

What is your job title?

# APPENDIX B

# SURFACE ACTING QUESTIONNAIRE

Surface Acting

1.    I put on act in order to deal with team members in an appropriate way.

2.    I faked a good mood when interacting with team members.

3.    I put on a "show" or "performance" when interacting with team members.

4.    I just pretended to have the emotions I need to display for the task.

5.    I put on a "mask" in order to display the emotions I needed for the task.

6.    I showed feelings to team members that are different from what I feel inside.

7.    I faked the emotions I showed when dealing with team members.

Deep Acting

8.    I tried to actually experience the emotions that I had to show to team members.

9.    I made an effort to actually feel the emotions that I needed to display toward others.

10.    I worked hard to feel the emotions that I needed to show to team members.

11.    I worked at developing the feelings inside of me that I needed to show to team members.

Expression of naturally felt emotions

12.    The emotions I expressed to team members were genuine.

13.    The emotions I showed to team members came naturally.

14.    The emotions I showed team members matched what I spontaneously felt.

# APPENDIX C

## POSITIVE DISPLAY RULE PERCEPTIONS

## QUESTIONNAIRE

Positive display rule perceptions

1.     Part of the task was to make team members feel good.

2.     My team did not expect me to express positive emotions to others as part of the task.

3.     My team members would say that part of the task was to be friendly, cheery to others.

4.     My team expected me to try and act excited and enthusiastic in my interactions with team members.

Negative display rule perceptions

1.     I was expected to suppress my bad moods or negative reactions to team members.

2.     My team expected me to try to pretend that I was not upset or distressed.

3.     I was expected to pretend I was not angry or feeling contempt during the task.

# APPENDIX D

## EMOTIONAL DISPLAY QUESTIONNAIRE

Emotional display

1. The team leader remained positive during the task even when he/she may be feeling otherwise.

2. The team leader kept a positive attitude despite obstacles or difficulties.

3. The team leader let negative events affect his/her mood.

4. The team leader displayed excitement and enthusiasm during the task.

5. The team leader monitored his/her emotions to make sure they were appropriate.

6. The team leader concealed negative feelings about the task or others.

# APPENDIX E

# AFFECT QUESTIONNAIRE

Affect

1. Enthusiastic

2. Interested

3. Determined

4. Excited

5. Inspired

6. Alert

7. Active

8. Strong

9. Proud

10. Attentive

11. Scared

12. Afraid

13. Upset

14. Distressed

15. Jittery

16. Nervous

17. Ashamed

18. Guilty

19. Irritable

20. Hostile

# APPENDIX F

# PERMISSION TO USE THE AUTHENTIC

# LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE

To whom it may concern [John E. Buckner V],

This letter is to grant permission for the above named person to use the following copyright material;

Instrument: Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ)

Authors: Bruce J. Avolio, William L. Gardner, and Fred O. Walumbwa

Copyright: "Copyright © 2007 Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ) by Bruce J. Avolio, William L. Gardner, and Fred O. Walumbwa. All rights reserved in all medium." for his/her thesis research. Three sample items from this instrument may be reproduced for inclusion in a proposal, thesis, or dissertation. The entire instrument may not be included or reproduced at any time in any other published material.

Sincerely,

Robert Most

Mind Garden, Inc.

www.mindgarden.com

# APPENDIX G

## SELF-MONITORING QUESTIONNAIRE

Self-Monitoring

1.   Would make a good actor.

2.   Put on a show to impress people.

3.   Am likely to show off if I get the chance.

4.   Am the life of the party.

5.   Am good at making impromptu speeches.

6.   Like to attract attention.

7.   Use flattery to get ahead.

8.   Hate being the center of attention.

9.   Would not be a good comedian.

10.   Don't like to draw attention to myself.

# APPENDIX H

# TRUST IN LEADER QUESTIONNAIRE

Trust in Leader

1.    I feel quite confident that my team leader will try to treat me fairly.

2.    My team leader would not try to gain an advantage by deceiving team members.

3.    I have complete faith in the integrity of my team leader.

4.    I feel a strong loyalty to my team leader.

5.    I would support my team leader in almost any emergency.

6.    I have a divided sense of loyalty toward my team leader.

# APPENDIX I

## EMOTIONAL EXHAUSTION QUESTIONNAIRE

Emotional Exhaustion

1.    I feel emotionally drained from the task.

2.    I feel used up by the end of the task.

3.    I dread continuing on with the task.

4.    I feel burned out from the task.

5.    I feel frustrated by the task.

6.    I feel I'm working too hard on the task.

# APPENDIX J

# HUMAN USE COMMITTEE

# APPROVAL FORM

# LOUISIANA TECH
## U N I V E R S I T Y

### MEMORANDUM

OFFICE OF UNIVERSITY RESEARCH

TO:        Mr. John Buckner and Dr. Kevin Mahoney

FROM:      Barbara Talbot, University Research

SUBJECT:   HUMAN USE COMMITTEE REVIEW

DATE:      March 14, 2012

In order to facilitate your project, an EXPEDITED REVIEW has been done for your proposed study entitled:

**"Authentic Leadership, Emotional Labor, and Team Performance"**

**HUC 954**

The proposed study's revised procedures were found to provide reasonable and adequate safeguards against possible risks involving human subjects. The information to be collected may be personal in nature or implication. Therefore, diligent care needs to be taken to protect the privacy of the participants and to assure that the data are kept confidential. Informed consent is a critical part of the research process. The subjects must be informed that their participation is voluntary. It is important that consent materials be presented in a language understandable to every participant. If you have participants in your study whose first language is not English, be sure that informed consent materials are adequately explained or translated. Since your reviewed project appears to do no damage to the participants, the Human Use Committee grants approval of the involvement of human subjects as outlined.

Projects should be renewed annually. *This approval was finalized on March 14, 2012 and this project will need to receive a continuation review by the IRB if the project, including data analysis, continues beyond March 14, 2013.* Any discrepancies in procedure or changes that have been made including approved changes should be noted in the review application. Projects involving NIH funds require annual education training to be documented. For more information regarding this, contact the Office of University Research.

You are requested to maintain written records of your procedures, data collected, and subjects involved. These records will need to be available upon request during the conduct of the study and retained by the university for three years after the conclusion of the study. If changes occur in recruiting of subjects, informed consent process or in your research protocol, or if unanticipated problems should arise it is the Researchers responsibility to notify the Office of Research or IRB in writing. The project should be discontinued until modifications can be reviewed and approved.

If you have any questions, please contact Dr. Mary Livingston at 257-4315.

A MEMBER OF THE UNIVERSITY OF LOUISIANA SYSTEM

# REFERENCES

Adelmann, P.K. (1995). Emotional labor as a potential source of job stress. In S.L. Sauter
& L.R. Murphy (Eds.), *Organizational Risk Factors for Job Stress* (pp. 371-381).
Washington, D.C.: American Psychological Association.

Ahlfinger, N. R., & Esser, J. K. (2001). Testing the groupthink model: Effects of
promotional leadership and conformity predisposition. *Social Behavior and
Personality, 29*(1), 31-42.

Aiken, L. S., & West, S. G. (1991). *Multiple regression: Testing and interpreting
interactions.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Ashforth, B. E., & Humphrey, R. H. (1993). Emotional labor in service roles: The
influence of identity. *Academy of Management Review, 18*(1), 88-115.

Ashforth, B.E., & Tomuik, M.A. (2000). Emotional labour and authenticity: Views from
service agents. In S. Fineman (Ed.), *Emotion in organizations*, 2nd ed.: 184-203.
London: Sage.

Ashkanasy, N. M., & Humphrey, R. H. (2011). Current research on emotion in
organizations. Emotion Review, *3*, 214-224.

Austin, E. J., Dore, T. C. P., & O'Donovan, K. M. (2008). Associations of personality
and emotional intelligence with display rule perceptions and emotional labour.
*Personality and Individual Differences, 44*(3), 679-688.

Avolio, B. J., & Gardner, W. L. (2005). Authentic leadership development: Getting to the
root of positive forms of leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly, 16*, 315-338.

Avolio, B. J., Walumbwa, F. O., & Weber, T. J. (2009). Leadership: Current theories, research, and future directions. *Annual Review of Psychology, 60*, 421-449.

Barsade, S. G., Brief, A. P., & Spataro, S. E. (2003). The affective revolution in organizational behavior: The emergence of a paradigm. In J. Greenberg (Ed.), *Organizational behavior: The state of the science* (2nd Ed.) (pp. 3-52). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Bass, B. M., & Steidlmeier, P. (1999). Ethics, character, and authentic transformational leadership behavior. *Leadership Quarterly, 10*(2), 181-217.

Beal, D. J., Trougakos, J. P., Weiss, H. M., & Green, S. G. (2006). Episodic processes in emotional labor: Perceptions of affective delivery and regulatory strategies. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*(5), 1053-1065.

Bechtoldt, M. N., Rohrmann, S., De Pater, I. E., & Beersma, B. (2011). The primacy of perceiving: Emotion recognition buffers negative effects of emotional labor. *Journal of Applied Psychology.*

Beer, J. S., John, O. P., Scabini, D., & Knight, R. T. (2006). Orbitofrontal cortex and social behavior: Integrating self-monitoring and emotion-cognition interactions. *Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience, 18*(6), 871-879.

Bono, J. E., & Vey, M. A. (2007). Personality and emotional performance: Extraversion, neuroticism, and self-monitoring. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 12*(2), 177-192.

Brief, A. P., & Weiss, H. M. (2002). Organizational behavior: Affect in the workplace. *Annual Review of Psychology, 53*, 279-307.

Brotheridge, C.M., & Grandey, A.A. (2002). Emotional labor and burnout: Comparing two perspectives of "People Work". *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 60,* 17-39.

Brotheridge, C.M., & Lee, R.T. (2002). Testing a conservation of resources model of the dynamics of emotional labor. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 7,* 57-67.

Buckner, J. E., V, & Mahoney, K. T. (2012). Individual differences and emotional labor: An experiment on positive display rules. *Personality and Individual Differences, 53,* 251-256.

Byrne, B. M. (2001). *Structural equation modeling with AMOS: Basic concepts, applications, and programming.*

Chan, D. (2008). *So why ask me? Are self-report data really that bad?* In C. E. Lance & R. J. Vandenberg (Eds.), *Statistical and methodological myths and urban legends* (p.309-336). New York, NY: Taylor & Francis.

Chau, S.L, Dahling, J.J., Levy, P.E., & Diefendorff, J.M. (2009). A predictive study of emotional labor and turnover. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 30,* 1151-1163.

Clapp-Smith, R., Vogelgesang, G. R., & Avey, J. B. (2009). The mediating role of trust at the group level of analysis. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, 15*(3), 227.240.

Cook, L. S., & Olson, J. R. (2006). The sky's the limit: An activity for teaching project management. *Journal of Management Education, 30*(3), 404-420.

Cooper, C. D., Scandura, T. A., & Schriesheim, C. A. (2005). Looking forward but

learning from our past: Potential challenges to developing authentic leadership

theory and authentic leaders. *The Leadership Quarterly, 16*, 475-493.

Cornelius, R. R. (1996). *The science of emotion: Research and tradition in the

psychology of emotion.* Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Cummings, L. L., & Bromiley P. (1996). The organizational trust inventory (OTI):

Development and validation. In R. M. Kramer & T. R. Tyler (Eds.), *Trust in

organizations: Frontiers of theory and research.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage

Publications.

Dahling, J. J., & Perez, L. A. (2010). Older worker, different actor? Linking age and

emotional labor strategies. *Personality and Individual Differences, 48*, 574-578.

Darwin, C. (1965). *The expression of the emotions in man and animals.* Chicago, IL: The

University of Chicago Press. (Original work published in 1872)

Dansereau, F. Jr, Graen, G. and Haga, W.J. (1975). A vertical dyad linkage approach to

leadership within formal organizations: A longitudinal investigation of the role

making process. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 13*, 46-78.

Day, D. V., & Zaccaro, S. J. (2007). Leadership: A critical historical analysis of the

influence of leader traits. In L. L. Koppes (Ed.). *Historical perspectives in

Industrial and Organizational Psychology.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum

Associates.

Diefendorff, J. M., Croyle, M. H., & Gosserand, R. H. (2005). The dimensionality and

antecedents of emotional labor strategies. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 66*,

339-357.

Diefendorff, J. M., & Gosserand, R. H. (2003). Understanding emotional labor process: A control theory perspective. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 24,* 945-959.

Diefendorff, J. M., & Richard, E. M. (2003). Antecedents and consequences of emotional display rule perceptions. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88*(2), 284-294.

Dixon, M. A., & Cunningham, G. B. (2006). Data aggregation in multilevel analysis: A review of conceptual and statistical issues. *Measurement in Physical Education and Exercise Science, 10*(2), 85-107.

Dunn, J. R., & Schweitzer, M. E. (2005). Feeling and believing: The influence of emotion on trust. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 88*(5), 736-748.

Ekman, P. (1973). *Darwin and facial expression: A century of research in review.* New York, NY: Academic Press.

Erickson, R. J., & Ritter, C. (2001). Emotional labor, burnout, and inauthenticity: Does gender matter? *Social Psychology Quarterly, 64*(2), 146-163.

Faul, F. (2012). G*Power (Version 3.1.4).

Fields, D. L. (2007). Determinants of follower perceptions of a leader's authenticity and integrity. *European Management Journal, 25*(3), 195-206.

Gardner, W. L., Avolio, B. J., Luthans, F., May, D. R., & Walumbwa, F. (2005). "Can you see the real me?" A self-based model of authentic leader and follower development. *The Leadership Quarterly, 16,* 343-372.

Gardner, W. L., Cogliser, C. C., Davis, K. M., & Dickens, M. P. (2011). Authentic leadership: A review of the literature and research agenda. *The Leadership Quarterly, 22,* 1120-1145.

Gardner, W. L., Fischer, D., & Hunt, J. G. (2009). Emotional labor and leadership: A threat to authenticity? *The Leadership Quarterly, 20*, 466-482.

Gardner, W. L., Lowe, K. B., Moss, T. W., Mahoney, K. T., & Cogliser, C. C. (2010). Scholarly leadership of the study of leadership: A review of *The Leadership Quarterly* second decade, 2000-2009. *The Leadership Quarterly.*

George, B. (2003). *Authentic leadership: Rediscovering the secrets to creating lasting value.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Gibb, C. A. (1947). The principles and traits of leadership. *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 42*(3), 267-284.

Glomb. T. M., & Tews, M. J. (2004). Emotional labor: A conceptualization and scale development. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 64*, 1-23.

Goldberg, L. S., & Grandey, A. A. (2007). Display rule versus display autonomy: Emotion regulation, emotional exhaustion, and task performance in a call center simulation. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 12*(3), 301-318.

Gooty, J., Connelly, S., Griffith, J., & Gupta, A. (2010). Leadership, affect and emotions: A state of the science review. *The Leadership Quarterly, 21*, 979-1004.

Gosserand, R. H., & Diefendorff, J. M. (2005). Emotional display rules and emotional labor: The moderating role of commitment. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90*(6), 1256-1264.

Graen, G., and Cashman, J. F. (1975). A role making model of leadership in formal organizations: A developmental approach. In J. G. Hunt and L. L. Larson (Eds), *Leadership frontiers*, Kent, OH: Kent State University Press.

Grandey, A. A. (2000). Emotion regulation in the workplace: A new way to

conceptualize emotional labor. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 5*(1),

95-110.

Grandey, A. A. (2003). When "the show must go on": Surface acting and deep acting as

determinants of emotional exhaustion and peer-rated service delivery. *Academy of

Management Journal, 46*(1), 86-96.

Grandey, A.A., Fisk, G.M., & Steiner, D.D. (2005). Must "Service with a smile" be

stressful? The moderating role of personal control for American and French

employees. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90*, 893-904.

Grandey, A. A., Fisk, G. M., Mattila, A. S., Jansen, K. J., & Sideman, L. A. (2005). Is

"service with a smile" enough? Authenticity of positive displays during service

encounters. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 96*, 38-55.

Grandey, A., Foo, S. C., Groth, M., & Goodwin, R. E. (2011). Free to be you and me: A

climate of authenticity alleviates burnout from emotional labor. *Journal of

Occupational Health Psychology.*

Gross, J. J. (1998a). The emerging field of emotion regulation: An integrative review.

*Review of General Psychology, 2*(3), 271-299.

Gross, J. J. (1998b). Antecedent- and response-focused emotion regulation: Divergent

consequences for experience, expression, and physiology. *Journal of Personality

and Social Psychology, 74*(1), 224-237.

Groth, M., Hennig-Thurau, T., & Walsh, G. (2009). Customer reactions to emotional

labor: The roles of employee acting strategies and customer detection accuracy.

*Academy of Management Journal, 52*(5), 958-974.

Hersey, P., & Blanchard, K. H. (1996). Management and organizational behavior: Utilizing human resources (7<sup>th</sup> ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hill.

Hiller, N. J., DeChurch, L. A., Murase, T., & Doty, D. (2011). Searching for outcomes of leadership: A 25-year review. *Journal of Management, 37*(4), 1137-1177.

Hobföll, S.E. (1989). Conservation of resources: A new attempt at conceptualizing stress. *American Psychologist, 44,* 513-524.

Hochschild, A. R. (1983). *The managed heart: Commercialization of human feeling.* Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.

Holman, D., Chissick, C., & Totterdell, P. (2002). The effects of performance monitoring on emotional labor and well-being in call centers. *Motivation and Emotion, 26*(1), 57-81.

Howell, R. J., & Avolio, J. M. (1992). The ethics of charismatic leadership: Submission of liberation. *Academy of Management Executive, 6,* 43-54.

Humphrey, R. H. (forthcoming, 2012). How leading with emotional labour creates common identities. In *Leadership as Emotional Labour: Management and the Managed Heart,* M. Iszatt-White (Ed.). Routledge.

Humphrey, R. H., Pollack, J. M., & Hawver, T. (2008). Leading with emotional labor. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 23*(2), 151-168.

Illies, R., Morgeson, F. P., & Nahrgang, J. D. (2005). Authentic leadership and eudaemonic well-being: Understanding leader-follower outcomes. *The Leadership Quarterly, 16,* 373-394.

International Personality Item Pool: A scientific collaboratory for the development of advanced measures of personality traits and other individual differences <http://ipip.ori.org>.

Janis, I. L. (1982). Groupthink: Psychological studies of policy decisions and fiascoes (2$^{nd}$ ed.). New York. NY: Houghton Mifflin.

James, L. R., Demaree, R. G., & Wolf, G. (1993). $r_{wg}$: An assessment of within-group interrater agreement. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 78*(2), 306-309.

Jenkins W. O. (1947). A review of leadership studies with particular reference to military problems. *Psychological Bulletin, 44*, 54–79.

Jensen, S. M., & Luthans, F. (2006). Entrepreneurs as authentic leaders: Impact on employees' attitudes. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 27*(8), 646-666.

Johnson, H. A. M., & Spector, P.E. (2007). Service with a smile: Do emotional intelligence, gender and autonomy moderate the emotional labor process? *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 12*, 319-333.

Judge, T. A., Woolf, E. F., & Hurst, C. (2009). Is emotional labor more difficult for some than for others? A multilevel, experience-sampling study. *Personnel Psychology, 62*, 57-88.

Kalat, J. W. (1992). *Biological Psychology* (4$^{th}$ ed.). Pacific Grove, CA: Wadsworth, Inc.

Kaplan, R. M., & Saccuzzo, D. P. (2001). *Psychological Testing: Principle, Applications and Issues* (5$^{th}$ ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Keith, T. Z. (2006). *Multiple regression and beyond*. Pearson.

Kellet, J. B., Humphrey, R. H., & Sleeth, R. G. (2002). Empathy and complex task

    performance: two routes to leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 13, 523-544.

Kernis, M. H. (2003). Toward a conceptualization of optimal self-esteem. *Psychological*

    *Inquiry*, *14*(1), 1-26.

Kiffin-Petersen, S. A., Jordan, C. L., & Soutar, G. N. (2011). The big five, emotional

    exhaustion and citizenship behaviors in service settings: The mediating role of

    emotional labor. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *50*, 43-48.

Klein, K. J., Bliese, P. D., Kozlowski, S.W., Dansereau, F., Gavin, M. B., Griffin, M. A.,

    et al. (2000). Multilevel analytical techniques: Commonalities, differences, and

    continuing questions. In K. J. Klein & S.W. J. Kozlowski (Eds.), *Multilevel*

    *theory, research, and methods in organizations: Foundations, extensions, and*

    *new directions* (pp. 512–553). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Kline, R. B. (1998). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling*. New York,

    NY: The Guilford Press.

Kline, T. J. B. (2005). *Psychological testing: A practical approach to design and*

    *evaluation*. Sage.

Kliuchnikov, A. (2011). Leader's authenticity influence on followers' organizational

    commitment. *Emerging Leadership Journeys*, *4*(1), 70-90.

Koppes, L. L., & Pickren, W. (2007). Industrial and Organizational Psychology: An

    evolving science and practice. In L. L. Koppes (Ed.). *Historical perspectives in*

    *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum

    Associates.

Ladkin, D., & Taylor, S. S. (2010). Enacting the "true self": Towards a theory of

    embodied authentic leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly, 21*, 64-74.

Leana, C. R. (1985). A partial test of Janis' groupthink model: Effects of group

    cohesiveness and leader behavior on defective decision making. *Journal of*

    *Management, 11*(1), 5-17

LeBreton, J. M., & Senter, J. L. (2008). Answers to 20 questions about interrater

    reliability Norman, S. M., Avolio, B. J., & Luthans, F. (2010). The impact of

    positivity and transparency on trust in leaders and their perceived effectiveness.

    *The Leadership Quarterly, 21*, 350-364.

Lord, R. G., & Kanfer, R. (2002). Emotions and organizational behavior. In R. G. Lord,

    R. J. Klimoski, & R. Kanfer (Eds). *Emotions in the workplace: Understanding the*

    *structure and role of emotions in organizational behavior.* San Francisco, CA:

    Jossey-Bass.

Lovell, B., Lee, R. T., Brotheridge, C. M. (2009). Gender differences in the application of

    communication skills, emotional labor, stress-coping, and well-being among

    physicians. *The International Journal of Medicine, 2*(3), 273-278.

Luthans, F. (2002). The need for and meaning of positive organizational behavior.

    *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 23*, 695-706.

Luthans, F., & Avolio, B. (2003). Authentic leadership development. In K. S. Cameron, J

    . E., Dutton, & R. E. Quinn (Eds.). *Positive organizational scholarship:*

    *Foundations of a new discipline.* San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler Publishers,

    Inc.

Mahoney, K. T., Buboltz, W. C., Jr., Buckner V, J. E., & Doverspike, D. (2011).

Emotional Labor and American University Professors. *Journal of Occupational*

*Health Psychology, 16*(4), 406-423.

Mancini, M. A., & Lawson, H. A. (2009). Facilitating positive emotional labor in peer-

providers of mental health services. *Administration in Social Work, 33*, 3-22.

Mann, S., & Cowburn, J. (2005). Emotional labour and stress within mental health

nursing. *Journal of Psychiatric and Mental Health Nursing, 12*, 154-162.

Maslach, C., & Schaufeli, W. B. (1993). Historical and conceptual development of

burnout. In W. B. Schaufeli, C. Maslach, & T. Marek (Eds.). *Professional*

*burnout: Recent developments in theory and research.* Washington, D. C.: Taylor

& Francis.

May, D. R., Hodges, T. D., Chan, A. Y. L., & Avolio, B. J. (2003). Developing the moral

component of authentic leadership. *Organizational Dynamics, 32*(3), 247-260.

Mayer, R. C., Davis, J. H., & Schoorman, F. D. (1995). An integrative model of

organizational trust. *Academy of Management Review, 20*(3), 709-734.

McGraw, K. O., & Wong, S. P. (1996). Forming inferences about some intraclass

correlation coefficients. *Psychological Methods, 1*(1), 30-46.

Meier, M. (2009). *The invisibility of emotional labor: A case study of faculty members at*

*small liberal arts colleges.* Saarbrücken, Germany: VDM Verlag Dr. Müller

Aktiengesellschaft & Co. KG.

Michie, S., & Gooty, J. (2005). Values, emotions, and authenticity: Will the real leader

please stand up? *The Leadership Quarterly, 16*, 441-457.

Mills, C. W. (1975). *White collar: The American middle class*. New York, NY: Oxford

University Press. (Original work published in 1951)

Morris, J. A., & Feldman, D. C. (1996). The dimensions, antecedents, and consequences

of emotional labor. *Academy of Management Journal, 21*, 989-1010.

Myers, D. G. (2007). *Psychology* (8th ed.). New York, NY: Worth Publishers.

Norman, S. M., Avolio, B. J., & Luthans, F. (2010). The impact of positivity and

transparency on trust in leaders and their perceived effectiveness. *The Leadership

Quarterly, 21*, 350-364.

Northouse, P. G. (2007). *Leadership: Theory and practice* (4th Ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA:

Sage.

Nunnally, J. C., & Bernstein, I. H. (1994). *Psychometric theory* (3rd ed.). New York, NY:

McGraw-Hill.

Perneger, T. V. (1998). What's wrong with Bonferroni adjustments. *British Medical

Journal, 18*, 1236-1238.

Peterson, S. J., & Luthans, F. (2003). The positive impact and development of hopeful

leaders. *Leadership & Organizational Development Journal, 24*, 26-31.

Pielstick, C. D. (2000) Formal vs. informal leading: A comparative analysis. *The Journal

of Leadership Studies, 7*(3), 99-114.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method

biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended

remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88*(5), 879-903.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Moorman, R. H., & Fetter, R. (1990). Transformational leader behaviors and their effects on followers' trust in leader, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *Leadership Quarterly*, *1*(2), 107-142.

Pugh, D. S. (2001). Service with a smile: Emotional contagion in the service encounter. *Academic of Management Journal*, *44*(5), 1918-1027.

Pugh, S. D., Groth, M., & Hennig-Thurau, T. (2011). Willing and able to fake emotions: A closer examination of the link between emotional dissonance and employee well-being. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *96*(2), 377-390.

Reichers, A. E., & Schneider, B. (1990). Climate and culture: An evolution of constructs? In B. Schneider (Ed.), *Organizational climate and culture* (pp. 5–39). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Sandelands, L. E., & Boudens, C. J. (2000). Feeling at work. In S. Fineman (Ed.). *Emotion in organizations* (46-63). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Sarafino, E. P. (2006). *Health psychology: Biopsychosocial interactions* (5th ed.). Hoboken, NJ: John-Wiley.

Scheffer, J. (2002). Dealing with missing data. *Research Letters in the Information and Mathematical Sciences*, *3*, 153-160.

Schoorman, F. D., Mayer, R. C., & Davis, J. H. (2007). An integrative model of organizational trust: Past, present, and future. *Academy of Management Review*, *32*(2), 344-354.

Seery, B.L., & Corrigall, E.A. (2009). Emotional labor: links to work attitudes and emotional exhaustion. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *24*, 797-813.

Shamir, B., & Eilam, G. (2005). "What's your story?" A life-stories approach to authentic leadership development. *The Leadership Quarterly, 16,* 395-417.

Shirom, A. Melamed, S., Toker, S., Berliner, S. & Shapira, I. (2005). Burnout, mental and physical health: A review of the evidence and a proposed explanatory model. *International Review of Industrial and Organizational Psychology, 20,* 269-309.

Shrout, P. E., Fleiss, J. L. (1979). Intraclass correlations: Uses in assessing rater reliability. *Psychological Bulletin, 86*(2), 420-428.

Shuler, S., & Sypher, B. D. (2000). Seeking emotional labor: When managing the heart enhances the work experience. *Managing Communication Quarterly, 14*(1), 50-89.

Snyder, M. (1974). Self-monitoring of expressive behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 30*(4), 526-537.

Sparrowe, R. T. (2005). Authentic leadership and the narrative self. *The Leadership Quarterly, 16,* 419-439.

Sutton, R. I. (1991). Maintaining norms about expressed emotions: The case of bill collectors. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 36,* 245-268.

Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2009). Using multivariate statistics (5th ed.). Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Tate, B. (2008). A longitudinal study of the relationships among self-monitoring, authentic leadership, and perceptions of leadership. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, 15*(1), 16-29.

U.S. Census Bureau. (2010). Employed persons by occupation, sex, and age. <ftp://ftp.bls.gov/pub/special.requests/lf/aa2010/aat9.txt>.

Waldron, V. R. (2000). Relational experiences and emotion at work. In S. Fineman (Ed.). *Emotion in organizations* (64-82). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Walumbwa, F. O., Avolio, B. J., Gardner, W. L., Wernsing, T. S., & Peterson, S. J. (2008). Authentic leadership: Development and validation of a theory-based measure. *Journal of Management, 34*(1), 89-126.

Walumbwa, F. O., Luthans, F., Avey, J. B., & Oke, A. (2011). Authentically leading groups: The mediating role of collective psychological capital and trust. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 32,* 4-24.

Walumbwa, F. O., Wang, P., Wang, H., Schaubroeck, J., & Avolio, B. J. (2010). Psychological processes linking authentic leadership to follower behaviors. *The Leadership Quarterly, 21,* 901-914.

Watson, D., Clark, L. A., & Tellegen, A. (1988). Development and validation of brief measures of positive and negative affect: The PANAS scales. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 54*(6), 1063-1070.

Wharton, A. (1993). The affective consequences of service work: Managing emotions on the job. *Work and Occupations, 20*(2), 205-232.

Yammarino, F. J., Dionnes, S. D., Schriesheim, C. A., Dansereau, F. (2008). Authentic leadership and positive organizational behavior: A meso, multi-level perspective. *The Leadership Quarterly, 19,* 693-707.

Yang, F. H., & Chang, C. C. (2008). Emotional labor, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment amongst clinical nurses: A questionnaire survey. *International Journal of Nursing Studies, 45,* 879-887.

Yukl, G. (2010). *Leadership in organizations* (7th ed.). Prentice Hall.

Yukl, G., & Van Fleet, D. D. (1992). Theory and research on leadership in organizations. In M. D. Dunnette & L. M. Hough (Eds.). *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychology Press, Inc.

Zapf, D. (2002). Emotion work and psychological well-being: A review of the literature and some conceptual considerations. *Human Resource Management Review, 12*, 237-268.