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Organizational Culture's Moderating Relationship on Surface Acting and Psychological Distress

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The Office of the Provost

Walden University
2019

Abstract

Organizational Culture's Moderating Relationship on Surface Acting and Psychological

Distress

by

James A. Judd

MA, William James College, 2014

BS, University of Phoenix, 2012

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Industrial/Organizational Psychology - General Practice

Walden University

August 2019

Abstract

There is a scarcity of research linking surface acting (SA) to psychological distress (PD) in employee-to-employee interactions. Research has demonstrated direct negative effects of SA causing the PD elements of occupational stress (OS), emotional exhaustion (EE), and burnout/depersonalization (DEP) in employee-to-customer interactions. Moreover, little research exists if organizational culture (OC) type plays any role in mitigating these negative effects. Therefore, there was a need to research if the negative effects in the employee-to-customer interactions manifest in the employee-to employee interactions and also, if OC type can possibly moderate this effect between SA and PD. This quantitative study used a cross-sectional design. The research questions determined if the moderating variable of OC culture type (clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy) moderated the relationship between the predictor variable SA and the three PD criterion variables: OS, EE, and DEP. Emotional labor and OC theory helped explain the results of the current study. The study used a sample of 260 employees from various organizations. The current study is one of the earliest to find significant correlations between SA and each PD criterion variables in employee-to employee interactions. Using statistical moderation, results also indicated the clan and hierarchy OC types significantly moderated the relationship between SA and OS. These results can guide researchers and organizations to develop interventions that mitigate the negative SA to OS, DEP, EE effects, whether through a culture change or other methods, to create a more positive work environment. This could create a better home life and work life balance for the employee and less PD concerns for employees and organizations.

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Dedication

I dedicate this significant achievement to my wife, Lara Judd, who without her love, support, and understanding, this journey of 12 years would not be possible. Additionally, to our children, Matt, Katie, Nate, and Trevor, each, who sacrificed their time with me, allowing me to continue on my journey. The journey of a dissertation requires much sacrifice, not only for the person going through the journey, but also for those who support him or her on the journey. Without a complete understanding of the sacrifices of time and family needed to support me on my dissertation journey, I believe the challenges to finish would have been much more difficult to overcome. It is my hope now my completed dissertation, to be able to repay a debt to each of them that is long overdue.

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Nobody walks a dissertation alone, although there are many times one feels like he or she is alone on an island. With this in mind, none of this accomplishment would be possible without the confidence and support of the following people. I would like to acknowledge and express my deepest appreciation for my dissertation chair, Dr. Medha Talpade who was willing to wait for me to get through my course work to become my chairperson. I want to acknowledge Dr. Deborah Peck, my committee member, who helped me understand some of the struggles I faced early on in my dissertation journey. The support and motivation from my chairperson and commitment member during my journey are key reasons why I am now finished. I want to say thank you to Dr. Kathryn Stanley from my graduate school, who influenced me to pursue my PhD in Industrial and Organizational Psychology. Dr. Stanley's advice, support, and mentorship before I started help me prepare for my dissertation journey. Finally, to Dr. Carolyn Basiliere, mentor, confidante, and friend. Through the years, you offered pointed, timely, and much needed advice, and were supportive from the very beginning of my educational journey spanning 12 years. You helped me rationalize concerns I was having and guided me in my thinking to become a professional. I knew whenever I needed advice I just needed to call. I will never be able to express enough how your mentor and friendship help me grow into the professional I am today. Simply, you gave me the confidence I needed to succeed and I will be eternally grateful.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Introduction

Organizational culture (OC) is a complex but real phenomenon in every

organization and carries significant influence on employees (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

OC is a learned and shared set of assumptions, artifacts, beliefs, traditions, and values

across the organization that helps define how work is done and employees behave

(Martinez, Beaulieu, Gibbons, Pronovost, & Wang, 2015). These characteristics of an

organization's culture help define what and who the organization is to the outside world,

as well as the organizational norms for policies, problem solving, and employee behavior

(Kim, Tracy, Biegel, Min, & Munson; 2015). Recent research reveals OC exerts

influence on important organizational areas, to include employee turnover (Cronley &

Kim, 2017), organizational performance (Martinez et al., 2015), and employee

psychological distress (PD; Dextras-Gauthier & Marchand, 2016). However, with these

known components of OC, there was not much literature seeking to understand

employee-to-employee surface acting (SA) because most of the previous research was

about employee-to-customer interaction (Hu & Shi, 2015; Nixon, Bruk-Lee, & Spector,

2017).

Using previous research as my guide, the current study focused on how OC type

may also demonstrate an influence on the negative PD relationships to SA. Surface

acting, a construct of emotional labor, derives from people faking emotions in an

interaction with other employees or customers (Hoffmann, 2016; Hu, & Shi, 2015). The

faking of emotions over prolonged periods of time, or SA, leads to organizational

concerns, such as lower job satisfaction (Bhave & Glomb, 2016), decrease in organizational commitment (Zito et al., 2018), emotional exhaustion (Lee, An, & Noh, 2015), and increased stress (Hur, Moon, & Han, 2015). Surface acting's negative relationships are not limited to the workplace, but they can also spill over into the home life of the employee, creating tension and stress at home. Deng, Walter, Lam, and Zhao (2017) found not only does a negative customer interaction resulting in SA create the possibility of a negative interaction with another employee, but also with someone at home. Therefore, individuals may experience negative outcomes relating to SA both at work and at home.

To help address these concerns, I looked for the presence of a moderating relationship of OC type between SA and occupational stress (continued workplace challenges), emotional exhaustion (the draining of psychological resources), and burnout (defined as depersonalization or not caring about other's feelings). The social implications of the study may help organizations understand the type of OC types that decrease SA. With this understanding, they can work to create these OC types. If actualized, any positive effects of decreased SA from the creation of these OC types at work has the potential to decrease negative outcomes at home. In the following chapter, I discuss and present the study's research background, problem statement, study purpose, research questions, and hypotheses. I further offer information on the study's theoretical framework, nature of the study, definitions, assumptions, scope, delimitations, limitations, and significance before offering a chapter summary.

Background

Since the recognition of OC as an influential organizational construct, research continues to grow to help better elucidate the many apparent influences of OC. In a search of peer-reviewed literature from 1979 to 2015, over 69,000 articles had OC in the titles. However, over 18,000 of these peer-reviewed articles found publishing since 2015. Such a significant increase in OC article publications in the past 3 years compared to the previous 36 years may suggest the researches popularity. Additionally, may include the importance of understanding the many influences of OC and possible bandwagon effect or people doing something because it was popular (Shaikh, Malik, Akram, & Chakrabarti, 2017).

Research suggests favorable organizational and employee outcomes in both the clan (collaborative and family atmosphere) and adhocracy (creativity and autonomy). However, less employee friendly in the market (pressure and productivity) and hierarchy (rules and control) OC types (Cameron & Quinn, 2009). The literature on the clan or human systems OC type reflects an increase in job satisfaction (Kim & Han, 2017) and an organization with an adhocracy or open system type OC shows increased organizational performance (Yildiz, 2016). The market and hierarchy type cultures, research suggests, may not necessarily be the best for employees. Reis, Trullen, and Story (2016) noted leaders in the market type culture are seen as hard drivers with a focus on profit and productivity, while leaders in the hierarchy type OC want to have control and look for predictability. These leader characteristics of the marker and hierarchy OC

types can cause employees to experience low authenticity and engagement in both these culture types (Reis et al., 2016).

Concerning SA, the characteristics of some of the OC types lead to increases in SA, such as the adhocracy OC type. The adhocracy OC type reflects greater autonomy and innovation are constant parts of the organization (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Langfred and Rockmann (2016) suggested organizations have issues with ceding control when trying to grant greater amounts of autonomy, as when giving up control can create tension with and between the employees. Furthermore, in organizations with hierarchical OC types emphasize control, employees are often afraid to speak up, intimidated by superiors, and susceptible to bullying, each of which may cause employees to use SA to avoid confrontation (Pope, 2017).

Organizational culture research has also found relationships to the PD elements of occupational stress (OS), emotional exhaustion (EE), and depersonalization (DEP). The adhocracy culture may promote increased stressed because of a perceived injustice system with risk-taking between those who like taking risks and those who do not (Zhang, Long, & Zhang, 2015). The market OC type, which is productivity driven, can lead employees to have increased stress levels, resulting in EE because of trying to meet the demands of the organization (Jourdain & Chênevert, 2015). Brett, Uhl-Bien, Huang, and Carsten (2016) found managers working in goal orientation cultures, who also have to deal with employee resistance to this type of culture, experience emotional exhaustion. Reis et al. (2016) further postulated the hierarchy OC type tends to have lower engagement, job satisfaction, and usually has organizational norms preventing employees

from being authentic at work, suggesting employees need to wear masks and fake emotions.

These previous research findings indicated both the complexity and importance of OC in organizations. Research shows the influence of OC extends into the employee behaviors that can result in the displaying of SA, which lay the foundation for the causation of OS, EE, and burnout (Lee et al., 2015; Mesmer-Magnus, Asencio, Seely, & DeChurch, 2018; Olmos-Vega, Dolmans, Vargas-Castro, & Stalmeijer, 2017). However, what was yet uncovered was whether certain OC culture types moderate the relationship of SA on OS, EE, and burnout (BO), and if organizations would be better off with certain OC types over others? With this study, I sought to address this question because of the possible implications to both organizations and employees.

Problem Statement

Empirical literature highlights the connection between SA and OS, EE, and BO (Bhave & Glomb, 2016; Jeung, Kim, & Chang, 2018; Marchand, Durand, Haines, & Harvey, 2015; Sloan, 2014). Researchers have also established that OC carries significant influence over employee behaviors (Cameron & Quinn, 2011; Lindquist & Marcy, 2016; Olmos-Vega, Dolmans, Castro, & Stalmeijer, 2017; Pilch & Turska, 2015; Tong & Arvey, 2015). In light of these connections, addressing an organization's OC may help decrease SA. Although there was a substantial amount of literature on the influence of SA and OS, EE, and BO in employee-to-customer interaction, there was a limited amount of literature investigating these same relationships in employee-to-employee interactions (Ozcelik, 2013). Concurrently, there was also a lack of

understanding whether OC can be a moderator to the SA negative relationships; even though the literature expressed the significant role OC plays in employee behaviors.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative study was to investigate whether an organization's culture type (clan, adhocracy, market, or hierarchy) moderated the relationship between internal employee-to-employee SA and the PD elements of OS, EE, and BO. The criterion variables (CV) for the study were occupational stress, emotional exhaustion, and burnout. The predictor variable (PV) was SA. The moderating variable (MV) were the four OC types: clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy. As previously mentioned, research has linked a number of PD concerns to SA, such as OS, EE, and BO. Concurrently, various OC types have shown to carry significant influence on employee behaviors. Knowing whether OC type can moderate the negative relationships of employee-to-employee SA on occupational stress, emotional exhaustion, and burnout can inform both organizations and employees and find ways to mitigate the negative impact of SA by considering the role of the OC type.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

To address the purpose of the study, I used the following research questions and associated hypotheses.

Research Question 1: What is the relationship between surface acting and stress, as moderated by the organizational culture type?

$H_0 1$: Organizational culture type does not moderate the relationship between SA and stress.

H_a1: Organizational culture type does moderate the relationship between SA and

stress.

Research Question 2: What is the relationship between surface acting and

emotional exhaustion, as moderated by the organizational culture type?

H_02: Organizational culture type does not moderate the relationship between SA

and emotional exhaustion.

H_a2: Organizational culture type does moderate the relationship between SA and

emotional exhaustion.

Research Question 3: What is the relationship between surface acting and

burnout, as moderated by the organizational culture type?

H_03: Organizational culture type does not moderate the relationship between SA

and burnout.

H_a3: Organizational culture type does moderate the relationship between SA and

emotional exhaustion.

Theoretical Framework for the Study

The theoretical framework for the current study came from emotional labor theory

(ELT) and organizational culture theory (OCT). Emotional labor theory not only

expresses a definition of emotional labor but also what causes emotional labor. The

theory, developed by Hochschild (1979, 1983, 2012), has been used extensively in

customer service oriented organizations. The theory further explains the effects of the

theory's two constructs SA and deep acting, in which SA was the main construct in the

current study (Walsh, Dahling, Schaarschmidt, & Brach, 2016). Emotional labor theory

further explains how people manage their emotions when in a difficult situation where there was a conflict between expected display rules and felt emotions.

Another theory that helped interpret the results was organizational culture theory. Organizational culture theory suggests there is a dynamic process between the employees and the assumptions, artifacts, beliefs, traditions, and values espoused by the organization (Schein, 1995; Williams, Glisson, Hemmelgarn, & Green, 2017). These facets are taught to the new employees as they assimilate to the organization's culture. Moreover, helps them understand how things are done in the organization, as well as help determine the employee behaviors within the organization. Application of these two theories aided in understanding of the relationships seen in the research's data.

Nature of the Study

The nature of the study was quantitative and looked to investigate whether OC type moderates the relationship between the PV of SA and the criterion variables of PD, occupational stress, burnout, and emotional exhaustion. To understand any possible moderation, the current study used the predictor variable of SA, the three criterion psychological distress variables of occupational stress, emotional exhaustion, and burnout and four moderating variables of OC type, clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). The study used survey methodology and statistical analysis to assess any moderating relationship of OC type on the predictor variable of surface acting and the psychological distress criterion variables of occupational stress, emotional exhaustion, and burnout. To help address the gap in the literature, this study assessed the

relationship of SA in employee-to-employee interactions and considered the impact of

OC as a moderator to the relationship of SA (see Figure 1).
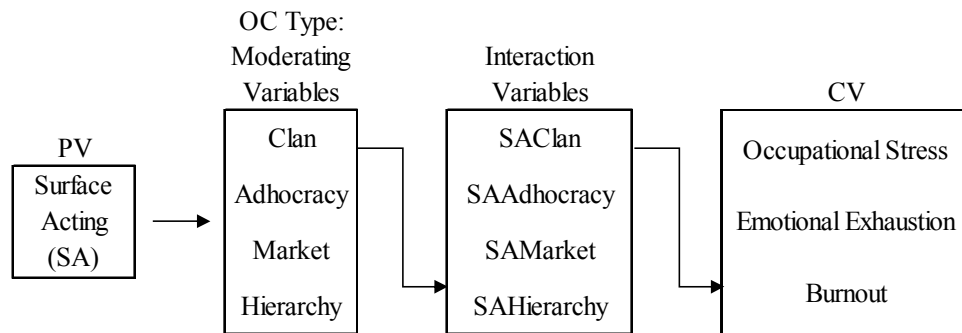
Figure 1. Explanation of relationships between, PV, CVs, and moderating variables.

Specifically, this study used a cross-sectional quantitative design. To understand

any moderating relationship, I used descriptive statistics to assess any relationship of SA

seen in each PD variable of occupational stress, burnout, and emotional exhaustion. I

then used moderation statistics to assess the presence of a moderation between OC type

on the PV and CVs. Field (2013) noted moderation was an appropriate statistic when

looking to assess whether a third variable influences the relationship between two other

variables.

Instruments used in the study are the organizational culture assessment instrument

(OCAI), which measured the current culture type perception by the participants. The

surface acting scale (SAS) developed by Diefendorff, Croyle, and Gosserand (2005a) and

measured the level of the participant's SA. The Iverson, Olekalns, and Erwin (1998b)

emotional exhaustion subscale (EES) from the burnout inventory measured the

participant's level of emotional exhaustion. To measure employee stress levels, the

current study used the occupational stress index (OSI) by Motowidlo, Packard, and

Manning (1986b). The depersonalization subscale (DSS) from the burnout inventory by

Iverson et al. (1998a) collected the data on the level of employee burnout. The study's

methodology and data collected with the used instruments, combined with the use of

moderation statistical analysis, helped determine any moderation relationship between the

PV and CVs. The collection of the data came from a research panel purchased through

Qualtrics. To assist in the data analysis, I used the statistical program SPSS.

Definitions

For the current study, the operational definitions were as follows:

Burnout: Characterized as depersonalization, where the employee does not look at

people as people, but as objects, which allows one to distance themselves from the

interaction and care less about the outcome (Jackson, Schwab, & Schuler (1986).

Display Rules: The emotional display rules organizations expect of their

employee when in interactions with customers or other employees (Lee, An, & Noh,

2015).

Emotional Exhaustion: The result of the depletion of both physical and emotional

resources the employee uses to interact with other employees throughout the workday

(Medler-Liraz & Seger-Guttmann, 2018).

Emotional Labor: How people internally manage their emotions that will affect

the outcome of the interaction with another person (Hochschild, 1983, 2012).

Occupational Stress: The environmental factors an employee can do nothing

about that creates a psychological tension in the employee because of a perceived lack or

loss of control (House et al., 1979).

Organizational Culture: A set of beliefs, artifacts, traditions, values, and assumptions taught to a new employee, which help define and describe the organization, expected behaviors, and how to accomplish the work in the organization (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

Organization Culture Type: Specific traits of organizational culture that underlies how employees behave and what the organization believes are its value drivers and focus (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

Psychological Distress: The emotional wellbeing of a person that covers many types of psychological concerns, such as occupational stress, emotional exhaustion, and burnout used in this study (Keith & Schafer, 1986).

Surface Acting: The inability of a person to express outwardly truly felt emotions, but instead faking emotions when in interactions with others (Hochschild, 1979).

Assumptions

One assumption for the proposed study is, because the data collected were self-reported and administered on-line participants would be truthful in their responses. Another assumption is that the measures were appropriate for the study. I chose to use preexisting scales to measure emotional exhaustion and burnout because research suggested these scales were useful as standalone scales to measure the intended variables with adequate reliability and validity (Iverson, Olekalns, & Erwin, 1998c; Koeske & Koeske, 1989).

The main theories guiding the analysis and reporting of the results of the study were emotional labor theory and organizational culture theory. Emotional labor theory

states when people are in interactions they manage their internal emotions and outward expression of these emotions one of two ways, through deep acting or SA (Hochschild, 1979). Organizational culture theory suggest organizations have an underlying set of beliefs, values, artifacts, assumptions, and traditions that are taught to a new employee, so they understand how to behave and work within the organization. Therefore, using a synthesis of both theories helped explain how OC type clarified any moderating relationship between SA and PD variables of occupational stress, emotional exhaustion, and burnout.

Scope and Delimitations

The scope of the study was to assess only the variables needed to address the research questions. I also chose to measure the construct of SA instead of both SA and deep acting. Research shows deep acting (feeling, thinking, and expressing the same emotion) has a positive influence on the employees (Becker & Cropanzano, 2015; Hochschild, 1979). However, the current study intended to address the relationships of SA; therefore, there was no collection of deep acting data from participants. The study used two of the subscales from the burnout inventory, the emotional exhaustion and depersonalization subscales to measure these two CVs. Additionally, as the study seeks to assess occupational stress, I did not assess the causes of stress that are considered outside the workplace (i.e., family). I also based my decision to use the current variables because within the literature, OC has an influence on employee behaviors that result in SA and PD (Carmeli, Brammer, Gomes, & Tarba, 2017; Golparvar, 2016; Gyorffy, Dweik, & Girasek, 2016; Nixon et al., 2017).

Limitations

The current study had the following limitations. The variables in the study are each measured using a self-report survey. Although I could use quantitative self-report data collection method to help understand the perception of a respondent, these perceptions are not always accurate measurements of reality and possibly diluted by measurement error (Brenner & DeLamater, 2016). Another limitation concerns the study's design. It was cross-sectional; thus, took place at one point in time. As a cross-sectional design, it was prone to response bias, and causal relationships would be hard to infer (Setia, 2016). However, because I looked at relationships and the extent to which CV variance was attributed to SA and moderated by OC, there was not a need for identifying casual inferences. The study also used a convenience sampling method to sample the population. In using this type of sampling method, one cannot guarantee each person in the organization has an equal chance to participate and as such, I cannot make inferences or generalizations beyond the study's population (Creswell, 2014). However, I did benchmark the findings with that of the workforce.

Significance

The current research looked to help close the gap in the current understanding of the negative influence SA has on employee-to-employee interactions. Hu and Shi (2015) and Ozcelik (2013) noted there was little research that looks at the employee-to-employee dynamic and its relationship to the negative influence that result in occupational stress, emotional exhaustion, and burnout. The current study was unique, as it not only attempted to assess whether OC has a moderating relationship on SA and occupational

stress, emotional exhaustion, and burnout, but it also offered OC type as an antecedent to predicting levels of SA. Because research expressing SA influences the relationship to the PD outcomes of occupational stress, emotional exhaustion, and burnout (Hülsheger, Alberts, Feinholdt, & Lang, 2013; Kinman, McFall, & Rodriguez, 2011), OC type may illustrate the types of OC where there are decreased levels of SA.

Organizations are becoming increasingly aware of OC's importance; thus, understanding the culture type, which is optimal for the employee, may offer positive benefits to the organization and the employees (Hogan & Coote, 2014). Practitioners looking to help organizations develop their culture type may find the results of this research is a roadmap by suggesting what OC types increase occupational stress, emotional exhaustion, and burnout. Concerning the spillover effect seen in how PD at work leads to issues outside of the workplace, understanding how to mitigate SA has not only organizational implications, but also the personal life of the employee (Sok, Blomme, & Tromp, 2014). Therefore, having the right OC type may not only decrease SA and psychological issues at work but may also decrease them in the personal life of the employee and lead to positive social change in other environments.

Summary

The importance of OC to both the organization and employee cannot be understated. If there are aspects of an OC that hinder the effectiveness of employees and organizations, examining the OC may help with the understanding of any interaction or causation. My intention in this study was to understand the relationship between SA and OS, EE, and BO as it relates to employee-to-employee interactions, an under-researched

relationship by using emotional labor and organizational culture theories. In

understanding any relationship, I can then assess the types of OCs that may help or hinder

the manifestation or moderation of SA on the OS, EE, and BO relationships. These

results can help organizations identify the OC types that work best for not only the

organization, but also the employees, as the interactions between the employees and the

OC are inseparable. In the following chapter, I offer details on each of the study's

variables, as well as how they do and can interact with each other.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

Organizational culture (OC) is perhaps the most influential aspect of an organization (Bellot, 2011). Cameron and Quinn (2011) suggested OC is the life of the organization, touches every employee, and among many things can help mitigate or escalate employee concerns. One possible area of OC influence is helping to mitigate the negative relationship effect of surface acting (SA), a construct of emotional labor (Gabriel, Daniels, Diefendorff, & Greguras, 2015; Song, Tsui, & Law, 2009). Surface acting happens when an individual does not internalize emotions, but instead fakes them when in a negative confrontation or continued stressful situations. Surface acting has been shown to increase elements of psychological distress (PD including stress, emotional exhaustion, and burnout in employees (Huhtala, Tolvanen, Mauno, & Feldt, 2015; Wagner, Barnes, & Scott, 2014). Surface acting's negative outcomes to the three PD elements result from a conflicting balance between organization display rules and the regulation of employee emotions during an interaction to maintain these organizational display rules (Kinman, 2009; Kinman, McFall, & Rodriguez, 2011). Much of the research, however, focuses on SA in employee-to-customer interactions, such as in nursing and hotel industry jobs (Kim, Jung-Eun Yoo, Lee, & Kim, 2012; Sawbridge & Hewison, 2013).

An organization's OC includes employee-to-employee interactions. Ozcelik (2013) pointed out not every employee interacts with customers but does have employee-to-employee interactions, which may result in the same negative SA relationship seen in

employee-to-customer interactions. Supporting research by Hu and Shi (2015) examined the effects of SA in peer-to-peer and peer-to-supervisor interactions inside an organization and found evidence of SA's influence in the internal organizational interactions and not just with customers. Continuous PD caused by SA has been found to lead to issues including increased workplace violence, work-family conflicts, and a decrease in psychological health (Glaser & Hecht, 2013; Huang, Chen, Du, & Huang, 2012; Magnavita, 2014). With these negative social impacts, Hu and Shi (2015) suggested conducting further research for a better understanding of employee-to-employee SA.

To explore any moderating relationship between SA and the PD elements of stress, emotional exhaustion, and burnout this study used four OC types as moderating variables. Organizational culture research suggests organizations are composed of aspects from four main culture types: clan, adhocracy, hierarchy, and market. Each type has a set of values, beliefs, and compositions that identify internal and external foci, including varying levels of control for individuals in the organization and expected behaviors (Cameron & Quinn, 2011; Lindquist & Marcy, 2016). Employees working in a specific OC type may experience various emotions in daily interactions with other employees. Grabowski, Neher, Crim, and Mathiassen (2015) suggested the emotions expressed in each of the culture types guides the behaviors of the employees.

Research suggested links from SA to the culture types. Two of the culture types, clan and adhocracy, result in heightened positive emotions for employees. Cameron and Quinn (2011) noted the clan and adhocracy culture types are more person-centered and

offer greater amounts of autonomy. The positive employee benefits of the clan and adhocracy OC types may suggest organizations would consider these OC types if their current culture type found SA causing occupational stress, emotional exhaustion, and burnout. Lindquist and Marcy (2016) noted a dominant clan culture has a foundation in collaboration and friendly atmosphere, where communication, commitment, mentoring, and the human perspective is paramount. Employees working in such a culture may experience more decreased levels of SA than those in the other culture types because the clan culture focuses more on the human factors (Tong & Arvey, 2015).

Richard, McMillan-Capehart, Bhuian, and Taylor (2009) noted even though there are benefits to the clan culture type, some employee-to-employee interactions would create SA tension in a clan culture type. One such concern was creating co-dependency or disrespect among employees, a subtle yet real occurrence even in the clan culture type (Tong & Arvey, 2015). Furthermore, even though the clan culture type offers many positive traits for employees, there are times when an employee's personality may supersede the culture type, which creates interactions with other employees that are negative (Pilch & Turska, 2015). Therefore, it is reasonable an employee may consistently mask true emotions when in interactions with certain employees to avoid confrontation or issues with that employee.

A dominant adhocracy culture is a culture type, which supports positive employee outcomes by supporting creativity, autonomy or empowerment, entrepreneurship, and transformation, and has flexibility and external focus as a foundation (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). The adhocracy culture additionally offers the

opportunity for employees to align their creativity to personal values and goals. Reis et al. (2016) suggested because employees in the adhocracy culture have the organizational support to be creative and work more autonomously are more likely to align their creativity to personal values, goals, and beliefs. Increased autonomy, however, can also lead to some employee concerns. Having too much autonomy requires employees to work independently, which may hinder the positive effects of autonomy. Research supports increased individual autonomy in some employees, creates less work engagement and greater communication concerns in teams (Langfred, 2004; Littman-Ovadia, Oren, & Lavy, 2013). This may suggest an increase in the effects of SA (Olmos-Vega, et al., 2017).

Results drive a dominant market culture, with a foundation of high productivity and performance and leaders are seen as hard drivers and competitive (Lindquist & Marcy, 2016). The market culture type fosters competition and emphasizes productivity, which can have a negative effect on employees. Culture types that place importance on increased productivity and performance may cause increased employee expectations, resulting in increased psychological stressors (Jensen, Patel, & Messersmith, 2013). Characterized by competitive and hard driving leadership, leadership style in a market culture type is transactional. Yao, Fan, Guo, and Li (2014) found a transactional leadership style increases employee stress, which increased negative behaviors as well as interpersonal conflicts. Yao et al. (2014) further found as pressure increased to maintain high performance and a focus on competitiveness, interpersonal exchanges in the workplace would also cause employees to fake emotions when interacting. Ozcelik

(2013) wrote a major reason for this was employees in negative situations will still seek acceptance, a sense of belonging, and are choosing to maintain job security or obtain additional job-related resources even if it means hiding their emotions. Thus, employees in a dominant market OC type may work to reduce the chances of increasing interpersonal issues in a possibly already volatile working environment by using SA.

The hierarchy culture type is the stereotypical culture type seen in many organizations (Cameron and Quinn, 2011). A dominant hierarchy OC type expresses the highest degree of possible SA concerns because it focuses more on control than on employees (Lavine, 2014). The hierarchy culture type expresses a highly structured organization, where command, control, and rules are prevalent and the expectations of leaders is to be efficient and organized, resulting in stability and predictability (Lindquist & Marcy, 2016). Although the hierarchy culture type is the most common, it comes with employee issues that can lead to increased SA (Song et al., 2009). Pilch and Turska (2015) found a significant positive correlation between the hierarchy culture and workplace bullying. In bullying, it is reasonable the bullied employee will not express his or her true emotions for fear of escalating a negative interaction with the employee doing the bullying (Glaso & Notelaers, 2012). There is a possibly that as the bullying continues, a sensitization of the bullied individual occurs, which serves to increase the degree of emotional experience or increased SA (Branch, Ramsay, & Barker, 2013). Thus, an individual may fake emotions to remove him or herself from being the target of bullying.

The current study examined how levels of SA change with organizational culture types. Organizations may prefer these OC types because of the employee benefits when developing a culture or changing from one that has increased SA. Understanding which culture type is conducive to the goals of the organization can help organizations understand the behaviors most likely to manifest in employees (Grabowski et al., 2015). Organizations should work to understand both the positive and negative influences of each culture type. Even the culture types that present positive affect to employees, the clan and adhocracy OC types, may also have a negative affect (Olmos-Vega, Dolmans, Castro, & Stalmeijer, 2017; Tong & Arvey, 2015). Concurrently, even though the market and hierarchy culture types are less employee focused, they do present positive aspects to the organization, such as greater control, stability, internal focus, and organizational performance (Cameron & Quinn, 2011; Pinho, Rodrigues, & Dibb, 2014).

This chapter so far has discussed the three elements of PD outcomes commonly associated with prolonged SA; occupation stress, emotional exhaustion, burnout (Huhtala et al., 2015; Yoon & Kim, 2013). Organizational stress research has shown evidence of causation for stress residing at the OC level. Spurgeon, Mazelan, and Barwell (2012) noted occupational stress could travel downstream in the organization and become an experience felt by the employees that often creates the pressures and tensions associated with stress outcomes. Organizations also share a common concern about employee burnout. Montgomery, Todorova, Baban, and Panagopoulou (2013) suggested OC outlines the behaviors seen within an organization, which directly influences how members within the organization treat each other, which can influence the development

of burnout. Current research also provided a link from OC to emotional exhaustion.

Conway, Fu, Monks, Alfes, and Bailey (2016) suggested when employees have a voice in

outcomes that affect them, such as seen in the clan culture OC type, even if the outcomes

are negative employees may express less emotional exhaustion (Conway et al., 2016).

Further, provided the literature context for the four OC types used in this study,

clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy. Researchers noted the culture of an organization

has the potential to influence many parts of an organization. Cameron and Quinn (2011)

noted how an organization functions, how it does its work, and how behaviors develop

among employees are among some of OC's influences. With an organization's culture

carrying this much influence, organizations should find ways to leverage their

organization's culture to the mutual benefits of the organization and employees (Adisa,

Mordi, & Osabutey, 2017; Ristino & Michalak, 2018). Cameron and Quinn (2011)

further noted each of the OC types offer different types of behaviors resulting from how

the organization views itself, the employees, as well as the need for an internal or

external focus that can influence how employees interact.

In the following chapter's sections, I provide support for my research questions to

help address the gap identified in the literature and my literature search strategy. I

describe the theoretical foundation of the study followed by the empirical foundation. I

offer context on emotional labor (EL) and its constructs, as well as the three CVs within

PD, occupational stress, emotional exhaustion, and burnout. I discuss details on OC and

the four culture types. I offer the relationship between OC to emotional labor, as well as

OC and its relationship to PD.

The purpose of the this study was to investigate quantitatively if organization culture type (clan, adhocracy, market, or hierarchy) can moderate the relationship between employee-to-employee SA and the PD elements of occupational stress, emotional exhaustion, and burnout. The PV was SA and the criterion variables for the study were occupational stress, emotional exhaustion, and burnout. Knowing if a moderation exists may allow for the creation of interventions to help mitigate the negative effects of stress, emotional exhaustion, and burnout seen not only at work, but also in a spillover effect to the home life.

Literature Search Strategy

Researching for relevant data to provide the breadth and depth needed for the current study, an extensive search of the literature helped find the articles reviewed in the study. Databases, to include ProQuest, EBSCOhost, ERIC, PubMed, Jstor, Elsevier, Wiley Online Library, Sage Journals, and Google Scholar offered literature on EL, OC, PD, as well as relationships between these variables and their constructs. Conducting a search of peer reviewed articles from 2013 through 2018 reveled the following number of articles, in parenthesis, using these major key search terms, *emotional labor theory (19), SA (543), deep acting (313), organizational culture theory (21), organizational culture types (79), employee behaviors (3,385), employee emotions (239), employee faking (2), PD (20,311), occupational stress (385), employee burnout (246), and emotional exhaustion (3,150), SA and OC (0),* and *SA and PD (0).* Furthermore, the use of filters during these searches allowed for the mining of seminal articles, empirical articles, studies, scholarly or peer-reviewed articles, and articles by disciple, such as psychology,

business, sociology, and medicine. Dissertations and reference sections of articles offered other relevant article sources.

The search for instruments concerned reviewing numerous studies that used the same or similar scales as found in this study. Reviewing multiple studies allowed for the consideration of the use of each instrument and its use in a particular setting and population. In the sections that follow, theoretical foundation support and the empirical and recent literature for each section and variable. Relevant findings seemed to express links between SA to PD, SA and the four OC types, as well as OC to the three variables of PD.

Theoretical Foundations

Emotional Labor Theory

The theoretical basis for the current study came from emotional labor theory (ELT) and organizational culture theory (OCT). Literature explaining emotional labor (EL) and its influence extends back through almost four decades of organizational research from EL's appearance in the literature (Hochschild, 1979, 1983). The theory developed by Arlie Hochschild found extensive use in customer service oriented organizations and further explains the effects of the two constructs SA and deep acting, in which SA was the main construct in this study (Hochschild, 2012). Moreover, ELT explains how people manage their emotions when in difficult situations where there is a conflict between expected display rules and felt emotions.

Emotion research on the negative effects of SA continues to finds increased importance because of its negative effects on employees. Ozcelik (2013) suggested

because much of the literature relating to SA describes negative outcomes related to employee-to-customer interactions, these same negative outcomes can happen within an organization in employee-to-employee interactions. However, current literature continues to study SA through the lens of employee-to-customer interactions (Hur, Moon, & Han, 2015; Wang & Groth, 2014; Yoo, & Arnold, 2016). It was important to note, however, that some SA research indicates that employee-to-employee interactions have the same negative effects as employee-to-customer interactions (Cui, GU, & Tang, 2017; Hu & Shi, 2015; Nixon et al., 2017; Shanock et al., 2013), and was therefore a gap this study intends to help fill.

Organizational Culture Theory

The foundation of OC theory goes back to Andrew Pettigrew's first mentioning of the theory in 1979 (Pettigrew, 1979). After the presentation of the theory, the anthropology, sociology, and psychology disciplines sought to understand life inside of the organization using their version OCT. From anthropology came the thoughts of Edgar Schein, who postulated OC needs an overarching dominate culture, even if it means there are different sub-cultures within each organization (Schein, 1990; Schein, 1992). Furthermore, and the main premise of Schein's theory was, OC derives from the shared meaning and experiences of the employees, which starts with the owner setting expectations and moves through the longevity of the organization (Schein, 1996). Bellot (2011) further supported Schein's supposition and agreed employees form behavioral patterns that center on artifacts, basic assumptions, and values. These help the employees understand the expectations of the culture, as well as how to act and how the work gets

done in the organization. Schein (1990) also noted as these facets of the organization's culture became known and accepted by the employees, these traits are taught to newer employees as part of the assimilation process into the organization's culture. The assimilation process, in turn, helps define and control the behavior (Bellot, 2011). Kim, Tracy et al. (2015) suggested it was these processes, which influence the employee's behavior, performance, and effectiveness. Therefore, OC can help or hinder the establishment of processes, procedures, and protocols, as well as influence the social norms and interactions of employees in the organization.

With the anthropology perspective presented, sociology offered its views of OC theory. Deal and Kennedy (1983) suggested symbols used within the organization give meaning to the organization's culture, and that Schein's assertion that meaning came from artifacts, beliefs, and shared assumptions were secondary to symbols. Alvesson (2002) suggested OC theory centers more on the interpretation of events, rituals, stories, experiences, and myths that are told, which help shape the experience of the employees. Schein further suggested the shared meanings among employees are socially constructed between employees and in how they choose to display these symbols (Alvesson, 2002; Wilson, 2001). Uzkurt, Kumar, Kimzan, and Lu (2013) referred to the sociology view when speculating OC was a critical part of the organization, as it drives performance and innovation.

The psychological perspective of OC centered more on the less observable and unconscious behaviors outside of the observable field of research (Cameron & Ettington, 1988). The psychological viewpoint on OC theory centers on employees acting

unconsciously to behave in similar ways to other employees or social acceptance.

Schneider, Gonzalez-Roma, Ostroff, and West (2017) wrote the psychological

perspective on OC has grounding in Gestalt theory, where the experiences and

perceptions of the employees create the whole of the OC. Therefore, one can see there

was more than one way to view OC. However, what people seem to agree on was, OC

does exist and carries great influence in the organization and employee behaviors.

The research on OCT appears to suggest a congruent understanding across

disciplines that the use of OCT helps explain the type of behaviors one can expect to see

in a certain OC type orientation. Kim et al. (2015) suggested the type of OC orientation

helps explain the behaviors seen within the organization. Additionally, OCT can further

offer support for how employees may treat one another inside an organization, as

behaviors will often follow how employees may interact with one another (Cameron &

Quinn, 2011). Dimotakis, Scott, and Koopman (2011) noted events seen within the

workplace lead to employee attitudes and behaviors that act as antecedents to employee

interactions. Huhtala, et al. (2015) found employees who work in an ethical type culture,

which has congruent traits with the clan culture (Cameron, Quinn, Degraff, & Thakor,

2014), are more likely to share information, treat each other respectfully, and produce

positive employee interactions. Employees, who act in this manner, ELT would suggest

have decreased their experience of SA, as employees are likely to express their true

emotions more openly in interactions with other employees. With these more positive

interactions and a decrease in the chances of high SA, this would further decrease the

chances of issues with occupational stress, emotional exhaustion, and burnout because

there would be less psychological demands on the employee (Marchand et al., 2015).

Therefore, OCT may help identify the types of employee behaviors one can expect in an OC type. With this information, a researcher could infer the types of employee interactions that could derive from the culture type. From the interactions inference, using ELT, one could hypothesize the level of SA and the outcomes associated with the interactions employees might encounter in the culture. With the information obtained using OCT and ELT, one could then deduce what types of OC would cause high levels of SA that lead to employee occupational stress, emotional exhaustion, and burnout.

Empirical Foundation

Emotional labor**.** Emotional labor (EL) focuses on how people manage their emotions in various types of situations to influence an interaction's outcome (Babatunde, 2016). Early research on managing emotions examined social interactions, suggesting people might regulate their emotions during an interaction to avoid confrontation or become more socially acceptable. Rotter (1960) suggested people have an internal need for acceptance and during interactions find themselves struggling between the pressures of the environmental interaction and their internal needs. It was within this struggle to fulfill both the internal needs and wanting acceptance that people will fake or manage their emotions to strike a balance between these two needs. Snyder (1974) further suggested people would continually use self-monitoring techniques, such as changing facial expressions to help alter or mask their true emotions to deescalate situations. Therefore, the foundation for EL finds roots in sociology research. Thus, it was no

surprise a sociologist, Arlie Hochschild, who would create ELT and bring the monitoring, faking, changing, or altering of emotions in interactions into the research of interactions in the workplace.

With her seminal article and the publishing of her book, "The Managed Heart: Commercialization of Human Feeling," (Hochschild, 1979, 1983, 2012), Hochschild forwarded the sociology perspective people will manage their emotions in various interactions with customers into organizational research. After making these assertions in her article and book, Hochschild (1983) needed to defend her position in response to Theodore Kemper's repudiation, suggesting it was the positivist who own the domain of the social structure of emotions. Whereas, Hochschild asserted a more constructionist approach when she was looking at the workplace and the managing of emotions in interactions. Hochschild further suggested that power and status, as well as the physiological relationship mentioned by Kemper (1983), were not the only methods to deduce how emotional outcomes are determined or expressed. Rather, people construct their emotions from the environment when the person was constructing social events and not only when there are biological influences (Hunsaker, 1983).

Other researchers were quick to offer thoughts on Hochschild's EL inference about the development of emotions. Hunsaker (1983), in his comments to Kemper (1983), suggested not all emotion was attached to some physiological link, but rather Kemper's view deviated little from revisiting William James's inference that as the body changes as a result of a physical act, it was that act in of itself that creates a feeling, which was the emotion. Russell (2003) noted, traditional emotion construction can be

thought of as an emotional episode, where the event leads to the emotion, which further translates into various emotional manifestations, such as subjective feelings, nonverbal signals, autonomic patterns, and instrumental action. Shaked and Clore (2017) were further able to support a constructionist view when suggesting emotions are the result of psychological evaluation and appraisal value of various events. Furthermore, the meaning of emotions was constructed in the moment, which further guides one to keep current or alter behavior.

Ongoing support and research from the sociology and psychology community helped EL find its way into organizational research. Employee EL became increasingly important for organizations to understand because of the negative outcomes associated with EL, especially SA. One could argue employees may use emotional labor to navigate an organization to find acceptability, as seen in social acceptability research (Rotter, 1960) and specifically seen in new employees assimilating to an organization (Liu, 2017; Mastracci, 2015; Shani, Uriely, Reichel, & Ginsburg, 2015). However, it was Hochschild (1983), who suggested it was how the organization expected employees to act in interactions with customers or following display rules that caused EL.

Display rules. The study of understanding display rules has roots in early developmental research concerning emotional regulation. Ekman and Friesen (1975) postulated people control various types of expressions using the tone of their voice and facial expressions to regulate their emotions in various situations. Research by Saarni (1979) suggested people learn display rules in early infancy, as children learn to express emotions in ways they are feeling at the time of the emotional expression. With children

needing to find ways to express themselves, they learn during development the appropriate ways to express certain needs (Ekman & Friesen, 1975). As children start to express a higher degree of cognitive development, they will begin to understand emotional regulation and display rules, which can help one become more socially acceptable or avoid negative situations, such as confrontation, and these rules can change by culture (Saarni, 1979). People, as they move through childhood, adolescence, and into adulthood use emotional regulation and display rules. Okur and Corapci (2016) suggested it was display rules that inform people how they can express their emotions, with whom, and where it was acceptable. Therefore, display rules find use in every aspect of people's lives and culture.

Safdar et al. (2009) suggested culture display rules have further regulations, boundaries, and a foundation in the type of society, such as collectivist or individualistic, where display rules can even vary by gender. Here, the expectations and emotions of the men and women are different regardless of how they may internally feel (Uppalury & Racherla, 2014). In a collectivist culture, one may expect people to express emotions that make the immediate environment better for the group, such as expressing, regardless of true individual emotions, emotions that are more positive. Whereas, when looking at an individualistic society, people will act and express emotions that are more beneficial to themselves than to the group (van Hoorn, 2015). Display rules used by people in the individualistic culture express a bias toward the individual because the individual is looking to change a situation or interaction using emotional regulation to fit the situations display rules to their benefit (van Hoorn, 2015). Therefore, it is reasonable that people

will regulate emotions to deal with an expected or unexpected needed response to an interaction with another person or situation to be more culturally acceptable or to prevent provocation, including in the workplace.

Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) posited that in the workplace, display rules concern the way employees will express emotions in relation to organizational expectations. Lee et al. (2015) noted organizations have 'display rules' or expectations about how their employees are to act when interacting with customers. The purpose of these display rules was to start a positive rapport with the customer using a smiling face, a friendly greeting, and expressing a willingness to help (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002). Organizations work toward controlling how employees abide by the organizational display rules through socialization, which would also concern the assimilation to the organization's culture (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Yagil & Medler-Liraz, 2014).

Display rules are not always a way to create a rapport. Employees use display rules to present the expected emotional display to keep others from reacting or keep the situation calm and comforting, such as in using professional display rules. Badolamenti, Sili, Caruso, and FidaFida (2017) suggested professional display rules are those commonly found in caring or healthcare professions, such as with physicians and nurses, where professionally, each acts with great care, empathy, compassion, and understanding regardless of how they may internally feel. The expected display rules for an emergency room nurse in a hospital to keep a patient calm would concern using these traits even if the interaction between the nurse and a patient were difficult (Martínez-Iñigo, Totterdell, Alcover, & Holman, 2009; Sawbridge, & Hewison, 2013; Schmidt & Diestel, 2014). The

foundation of display rules uses both past and present research and centers on the

regulation of emotions to change or enhance a situation by either expressing one's true

emotions or canceling and presetting other emotions for an alternative purpose.

Therefore, with display rules finding constant expression in organizational life, the

individule cognizant of the outcomes, which are associated with using or the organization

insisting on following display rules.

Deep acting. Deep acting is one of two constructs of EL and is the one that

expresses the most positive outcomes for employees, customers, and organizations when

used by the employee (Hochschild, 1979). Grandey (2003), attempting to support the

earlier research of Hochschild (1979, 1983), as well as Ashforth and Humphrey (1993)

noted deep acting was the act of the employee using strategies, such as empathy when in

an emotional regulation situation and trying to maintain display rules. Grandey (2003)

further hypothesized it was the awareness of these display rules that will cause deep

acting because employees are motived to adhere to the display rules to show their support

for the organization and provide good customer service.

However, there was no support in the results for one of Grandey's (2003)

hypothesis. The results showed deep acting did not occur because the customer

recognized the faking of the emotions by the employee, which was commonly caused by

the employee dissatisfied with the organization for reasons, such as the lack of autonomy

or low job satisfaction (Groth, Hennig-Thurau, & Walsh, 2009; Huang, Chiaburu, Zhang,

Li, & Grandey, 2015). These results suggest, the happier the employee is with the

organization, the more likely the employee was to adhere to the display rules and use

deep acting measures for the best employee-customer interaction outcome. This may support the current study's supposition the organization's culture helps determine the employee's type of emotional labor used in interactions, both inside and outside the organization.

Hoffmann (2016) suggested an interesting alteration to the expression of emotions; employees can decide to change or alter their emotions from a posture where they cannot internalize the emotions to one where they can, expressing deep acting. One reason for Hoffman's conclusion may be the employees of an employee-owned business have a stake in the organization and want it to succeed. Hoffman (2016) reasoned in a business owned by the employees, this requires the employees to re-assess how they would normally express emotions because now, the expression of the emotions carries an impact across a group and not just to themselves (Becker & Cropanzano, 2015). For this reason, as seen in research on groups and EL, employees may decide to change how they regulate and internalize emotions during an interaction because a change to deep acting would better benefit the group than if they were individual employees (Becker, Cropanzano, Van Wagoner, & Keplinger, 2018).

Surface acting. On the opposite end of the ELT continuum from deep acting is SA. Employees, who modify their outward expressions in an interaction, but do not internalize them, show a demonstration of SA or faking of emotions (Grandey, 2003; Hochschild, 1979; Hoffmann, 2016). Surface acting, as noted by Rupp, Silke-McCance, Spencer, and Sonntag (2008), takes a toll on those who continually express faked emotions. The amount of effort to continually fake emotions can be psychologically

draining, leading to negative outcomes. Chau, Dahling, Levy, and Diefendorff (2009) suggested, when people are constantly rejecting their true emotions to fake emotions, the psychological strain will lead to an internal struggle to remove the cause of the strain, such as leaving the organization.

Current research supported a negative relationship between SA and lower employee job satisfaction (Bhave & Glomb, 2016). Jiang, Jiang, and Park (2013), hypothesizing a negative link between SA and job satisfaction, were able to demonstrate the SA and job satisfaction negative relationship in China. The results reported by Bhave and Glomb (2016) and Jiang et al. (2013) supported earlier research by Ashforth and Humphrey (1993), Pugliesi (1999), and Zhang and Zhu (2008) on the negative link of SA to job satisfaction. Continued SA research has shown a link with psychological issues. Wang and Groth (2014) suggested the prolonged use of SA could lead to emotional dissonance because people generally wish to express their true emotions.

Searching for a further understanding of how SA influences employee behavior, research started to review emotional dissonance and its interaction with SA. Abraham (1999) examined specifically how emotional dissonance, caused by SA or acting adjustment through self-monitoring, influenced organizational commitment and turnover intention. The results of the study suggested prolonged self-monitoring to conform to organizational display rules or to fit in puts undue stress on the mental state of the employee (Abrahams, 1999). The stress in turn creates the emotional dissonance, which negatively affects both organizational commitment and turnover intention (Kim & Back, 2012; Zito et al., 2018). Given these results, if the employee continually uses SA for

these reasons and has these negative outcomes, the results may have an impact on the organization.

Seeking to understand the effect of emotional dissonance in marketing, Julian (2008) found employees using SA, over time, feel taken advantage of by the company and start to feel detached. An interesting part of the Julian study suggested that with the right amount of training and organizational support, the effects of prolonged SA and emotional dissonance might decrease. The Julian results suggested training and support came from promoting a certain type of OC, which may lend support to OC type influence on SA for employees.

Negative employee outcomes resulting from SA are not exclusive to within the workplace. Early research suggested a link between what happens at work does spillover into the home (Doby, & Caplan, 1995; Van Der Hulst & Geurts, 2001). More currently, research turned to gaining a better understanding of how the emotions expressed or not expressed at work can also influence work-to-home balance. Yanchus, Eby, Lance, and Drollinger (2010) studied the specific interaction between emotional labor and the home life. Although the study received a 12% response rate of 238 participants, the results support the belief that SA continues to have a negative effect even after leaving the workplace. These results support employees cannot just shut off their emotions after leaving work.

Expanding the research of Yanchus et al. (2010), Sanz-Vergel, Rodríguez-Muñoz, Bakker, and Demerouti (2012) wanted to determine if SA in the workplace spilled over into the home and if it reduced psychological health. Their results revealed SA does

transfer from the workplace into the home life and over time will decrease psychological health. The results further showed the transference of negative effects to the significant other of the person who experienced the SA. Therefore, similar to the results of a non-smoker living with a smoker and still developing negative outcomes (Chivese, Esterhuizen, & Basson, 2015), one does not need to experience SA, but only needs to be living with someone who was experiencing the negative SA effect.

Research by Wagner, Barnes, and Scott (2014) further supported to transference of SA's negative outcomes from the workplace in to the home. Their research showed the work environment created the SA, which in turn led to negative outcomes of insomnia, home conflict, and emotional exhaustion. Their research also supported the environment or the culture at work has a considerable effect on whether or not the employee will bring SA from the workplace back home. Reinforcing the conclusion OC may play a role in the SA transference supposition, Sok et al. (2014) found a supportive dominant OC type, such as the clan and adhocracy culture types, presents a positive spillover effect from work to home. These results add further support that the type of OC can influence the relationship to SA, as well as help with the transference of negative or positive affect from the workplace to the home. Therefore, the research on the negative effects of SA covers many areas, with increasing research attempting to link SA to the resulting PD experienced by the employee.

Psychological Distress

During the evolution of behavioral research, broad terms were used to encapsulate multiple meanings, such as PD, started to be seen in the literature. The Keith and Schafer

(1986) article was one of the first to use PD in its title and described PD as stress, depression, and psychological well-being caused by the relationship distribution of work in the household, sex-roles, and work-family roles. Keith and Schafer believed it was the tension between these various roles and gender differences, which created the PD. Cook (1990) further suggested the differences of living in the day-to-day world between genders, and the challenges seen by females as opposed to males, caused the need for creating a psychological adjustment that overtime creates increased stressors for females. These two articles expressed, one does not see a definitive or even theoretical definition of PD, but rather it was a term malleable to the needs of the researcher.

Workplace research expressed the same lack of definition, as Kushner and Melamed (1991) wanted to understand how PD effects the perceived control and workload in employees with Type A or Type B personalities. The authors suggested PD concerns occupational stress, irritability, and burnout. Therefore, though there did not appear to be a consensus of a true definition of PD, stress appears certainly at its foundation.

Research in the workplace garnered greater interest with the concern of the effects of emotions and behaviors in the workplace in the 1980s. Although some researchers might agree these topics were of interest much earlier than 1980, a search of peer-reviewed articles revealed more than 8000 articles touched on these factors after this date, with over 1000 in business alone. One such area of research was conducted by Nielsen, Hetland, Matthiesen, and Einarsen (2012) concerning bullying in the workplace. The authors suggested PD results from a sense of the person's well-being perceived as

threatened. When an individual believe they are threatened, there is the changing emotions, behaviors, or the environment to help control the pain of the interaction; thus suggesting the use of EL strategies. These results find support by Berry, Gillespie, Fisher, Gormley, and Haynes (2016) concerning bully behaviors in nursing. Berry et al. found the results of bullying behaviors caused by loss of control over one's environment or the lack of resources to help mitigate the negative interactions lends to increased stress, anxiety, and posttraumatic stress. Interestingly, Berry et al. further suggested that the coping mechanisms found most useful in dealing with these occurrences focus on suppressing or changing emotions or avoiding the person causing the issues, again supporting the use of EL strategies.

Continued research on PD in the workplace seemed to suggest many mental health outcomes would soon fall under the umbrella term of PD. Noting an accepted foundation of PD is considered a mental health outcome, such as stress (Tei-Tominaga & Nakanishi, 2018) and other workplace researchers added additional meaning to PD to fit the behaviors of employees. Marchand and Durand (2011) and Marchand et al. (2015) speculated PD was the result of depression or emotional exhaustion caused by factors seen in the organization, such as OC, abusive supervision, lack of a social network, safety, and inadequate human resource practices, which results in increased psychological demands. Mazzetti, Guglielmi, Chiesa, and Mariani (2016), using a PD definition of stress and anxiety, were able to express PD as emotional exhaustion. Tsui, Chan, and Tin (2016), presented research concerning the effect of bereavement support on health professionals, and demonstrated burnout was a component of PD. Yin-Lang et al. (2016)

found the lack of education from people administering bereavement support increased the chances of burnout. Therefore, research offers a number of negative mental health outcomes under the umbrella of PD, of which occupational stress, emotional exhaustion, and burnout fall under.

Occupational stress. Stress has a long history, as people explored and tried to understand its effects and causation back to the time of Hippocrates and Aristotle (Fink, 2010). Norman (1922) suggested stress was a mental disorder, caused by an emotional crisis within the body, and emotion was nothing more than brain cells becoming full of stimuli that resulted in turmoil in the brain. During this time, though Norman helped start the understanding of stress, researchers paid more attention to the changes in the body that happened during times of fear and change. This led researchers to realize there was a physiological aspect to stress. Goldstein and Kopin (2007) noted French physiologist Claude Bernard was the first researcher to explain the body uses various multicelled organisms to help deal with the effects of stress. Subsequently, in the earlier part of the 1930s, Harvard professor Walter B. Cannon created two terms relevant to stress and the body, homeostasis or maintaining the body's equilibrium and fight-or-flight, which was a response to a situation where one feels he or she is in a threatening situation and must run or deal with the issue at that moment. However, even though this research had taken place, eventually someone crystalized the word stress, a term that would carry on through future research, and this was Hans Hugo Bruno Selye. Hans Selye, also known as, the "Father of Stress Research" (Robinson, 2018) often made sure people knew he was not the first to use the term, but he did discover the stress response.

Initial stress outcome research came from the physiological domain for many years and in many respects still does in current research. Some researchers tried to identify the stress' relationship to cardiovascular issues (Wolff, 1950), General Adaptation Syndrome (Selye, 1950), and coronary disease (Rollin, 1960). Current research also focused on the negative influences of stress on obesity (Sørensen, Fisker, Agner, Clemmensen, & Ebbehøj, 2017), depression (Ludwig, 2015), gastrointestinal problems (Beshai, Mishra, Mishra, & Carleton, 2017), and more. Though an abundance of research exists that helps define and describe stress and its influences, it was not until the early 1950s the term occupational stress, or stress caused by the workplace, was used in the literature. Until that time, a lack of literature existed about the psychological causations of stress. In 1958 an article first used the term occupational stress to explain how behavior and emotion in the workplace led to stress, which in turn elevated the chances of heart disease (Frideman, Rosenman, & Carroll, 1958; House, 1974; Li, Zhang, Loerbroks, Angerer, & Siegrist, 2015) suggesting a psychological foundation of stress.

Research conducted by Frideman et al. (1958) challenged the then current assumption American females had some sort of physiological advantage over American males when it came to eating high fat foods, but yet not exhibiting any of the negative effects that might be associated with eating too many fats, but also less stress. The researchers used accountants as participants because of the thought they worked in a high stress occupation. The authors suggested stress was the real cause of high cholesterol and other heart issues seen in those who ate high-fat foods. The findings suggested during high-stress periods, caused by the accounts work during certain times of the year, stress

itself was the cause of the increased cholesterol readings, which increased the risk of heart issues in the participants. House, Wells, Landerman, McMichael, and Kaplan's (1979) findings provided evidence for health-related issues due to occupational stress, by studying factory workers, who continually lived in environmental conditions that may cause stress. House et al. (1979) postulated when employees perceive they can do nothing about stressors, this could cause health issues, suggesting a link of psychosomatic concerns to stress outcomes. The hypothesis of the study emphasized the environmental factors within the organization employees had no control over resulted in a loss of employee perceived control, and it was this loss of control, which caused the stress that leads to health issues (House et al., 1979). The results of the House et al. (1979) study supported that stress, even on a perceptual level, can lead to serious health-related issues.

Although there was increasing research to support the early stress to heart issue link, some studies found a lack of support for heart-related issues caused by stress. Biglari et al. (2016) research, using 224 intercity cab drivers in Iran, found even with this considered high-risk population for occupational stress there was a lack of correlation between the high stress and cardiovascular issues. However, the authors noted the study had some limitations, such as its cross-sectional design and poor cooperation of the participants. Nonetheless, these results supported research by Franke et al. (2010) who found even though their participant's occupation (state police) may have increased the participant's level of stress, they found no significance between stress and an increased risk for cardiovascular issues. Although Biglari et al. (2016) and Franke et al. (2010) did not link occupational stress to health outcomes, there remains much recent literature that

argues against this supposition (Basu, Qayyum, & Mason, 2017; Garbarino, & Magnavita, 2015; Mohammad, 2014; Quick, & Henderson, 2016). Therefore, these results suggest the occupational stress relationship to health outcomes are not simple and may have influencing factors, such as culture, job types, and environmental contributors.

Burnout. Congruent with EL, burnout is a complex multi-dimensional variable that holds three distinct constructs: depersonalization, inefficacy, and emotional exhaustion (Maslach, 1978; Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Swider and Zimmerman (2010) suggested burnout was a devastating problem for employees and organizations caused by individuals who experience chronic emotional and interpersonal stressors at work, which manifests in how these employees respond to co-workers, the organization, tasks, and clients. Freudenberg (1974) first mentioned burnout when self-reflecting and suggesting burnout concerns observable indications, psychological signs, and psychological changes in employees who work in clinics. Freudenberg further postulated the loss of an effective leader could start the burnout process, which leads to sleep issues, risk-taking behaviors, addiction, and becoming cynical. Emener (1979) suggested burnout was the depletion of psychological and physical resources that are the result of frustrations at work in obtaining these resources, interrelationships, and productivity. This supposition follows the tenet of Hobfoll's (1989) conservation of resources theory, which suggest people try to build, keep, and conserve emotional resources and any situation, real or imagined that creates stress, depletes these resources.

Even though these negative outcomes surfaced in the literature, it was not until the mid to late 1990s burnout started to find influence through increased research. At this

time, researchers recognized a serious psychological phenomenon taking place inside of organizations that was causing debilitating effects on employees. Jackson, Schwab, and Schuler (1986) conducted research that expressed additional causes for burnout, to include unmet expectations, lack of role clarity, role conflict, and when employees do not feel any personal satisfaction in the work. With the results it makes sense when employees do not have the resources to do their work, are not clear on responsibilities, or have no connection to their work, frustration ensues. If employees do not understand how their roles fit into the success of the organization, employees may find little meaning in their work. As such, after a long period, these frustrations could deplete the psychological resources of the employee and lead to burnout. Maslach and Leiter (2008) indicated that research shows a correlation between both role clarity and lack of resources to burnout. Current supporting research suggested the organizational consequences of burnout as negative interpersonal performance (Hashemnia, Abadiyan, & Fard, 2014), dysfunctional leadership (Leary et al., 2013), incivility (Loh & Loi, 2018), and negative mental health outcomes for employees (Whitebird, Asche, Thompson, Rossom, & Heinrich, 2013).

Maslach's (1978) burnout theory posited the roots of burnout are in the increased stress seen within the organization, caused by the evolution of work becoming more service related and has significant ties to the interactions between staff and clients. This assumption appears directly tied to the suppositions of Hochschild's (1979) research that produced the first reports of emotional labor. Perhaps it was the change in work, as well as the research on burnout, which propelled Hochschild's ELT research forward or at the

least offered a way to understand emotional labor's origin. Additionally, with prolonged stress considered the beginnings of the path to burnout, as suggested in the research (Deligkaris, Panagopoulou, Montgomery, & Masoura, 2014; Gyorffy et al., 2016), then the ties between stress, burnout, and the negative outcomes of EL have increased clarity and relevance.

Maslach (1978) also suggested, as the service industry has grown, there are more customer-client interactions. When these interactions become negative or hostile, employees will depersonalize the person they are talking to as a way to distance themselves psychologically from the interaction. Examining depersonalization, Jackson et al. (1986) offered depersonalization was evident when people, such as employees, start treating clients or others as objects and distancing themselves emotionally from the interaction. Lee, Ok, Lee, and Lee (2018) supported this assertion, as their research in the airline industry showed some employees would use depersonalization strategies when experiencing SA in an encounter with a customer. Conversely, research by Charoensukmongkol, Moqbel, and Gutierrez-Wirsching (2016) found when organizations offer high levels of support to deal with negative interactions, depersonalization decreases, and positive employee outcomes increase. However, some suggests it may not be the organization or lack of support for employees that increases burnout. Hoffarth (2016) argued the rise of burnout has origins to when employees started wanting more self-fulfillment in their work to help create self-worth that was more important than just doing the job. Perhaps it was this conflict between the work and needing self-fulfillment that may lead to the second construct of burnout, inefficacy.

Employee inefficacy was in the literature under many definitions when relating to burnout, such as feelings of low personal accomplishment (Jackson, Schwab, & Schuler (1986), feelings of personal failure (Cole, Walter, Bedeian, & O'Boyle, 2012), and recently feelings of a reduction in one's professional capacity and accomplishments (Hill, 2018). Regardless of definition, summarizing inefficacy would suggests it was a feeling the individual's accomplishments did not matter and were not creating the type of worth in performing the work that would help create fulfillment. These definitions further support the research suggested by Hoffarth (2016) that people want more in their work than just the work; there needs to be meaning, a sense of accomplishment, value, and fulfillment. One may wonder if this research was a result and a moniker on the Millennials who are in the work force. One stigma suggests Millennials do not just want work, they want work that is engaging, meaningful, and requires technology, with an organization that offers a great support structure and work-life balance (Fishman, 2016; Hershatter & Epstein, 2010). However, are millennials unique in these feelings and emotions or are they finally expressing what other generations have wanted from work but never expressed; thus opening a Pandora's Box for organizations? If so, perhaps they are holding the older OC's of organizations accountable that propagated the core of burnout, emotional exhaustion.

Emotional exhaustion. Researchers define emotional exhaustion as the core construct of burnout and burnout may not exist without emotional exhaustion (Baer, 2015; Bellou & Chatzinikou, 2015; Boekhorst, Singh, & Burke, 2017). The explanation of emotional exhaustion concerns the physical or psychological draining of one's

emotional resources leading one to becoming emotionally overextended (Cole, Walter, Bedeian, & O'Boyle, 2012; Medler-Liraz, & Seger-Guttmann, 2018). Research on emotional exhaustion was relativity sparse before the 1980s, with the surface of the term in the early 1980s (Gaines & Jermier, 1983). There was research that dated back to the 1920s discussing exhaustion and mental illness. Fatigue (1929) in the Lancet Journal postulated exhaustion caused by prolonged stress, nervousness, or psychic trauma could lead to mental illness. Up to this point, the discussion on exhaustion suggested a primarily physiological concern. However, Fatigue (1929), while acknowledging the physiological symptoms, suggested psychological symptoms, possibly caused by sexual origins, could cause the same physiological concerns.

Two decades later, Haldane and Rowley (1946) discussed the Corps Exhaustion Center (CEC), established specifically for dealing with returning combat soldiers who were psychiatric casualties because of experiencing heavy combat. The authors noted the CEC focused on three main areas of exhaustion: sever stress, men who presented with severe stress caused by neurotic symptoms, and men with a low anxiety threshold. The premise of the exhaustion was the men's ego adaption to reality and the relationship to exhaustion was an extremely complex defense mechanism (Haldane & Rowley, 1946). These conclusions suggested if a soldier had a certain opinion of himself that manifested through personality, if there was an attack or questioning of the personality, then there also was of the ego, which in turn may create a psychologically emotional drain to restore the soldier's ego self-perception. However, the center had limited success, as the assessments varied from one psychiatrist to another, as one psychiatrist might say a

soldier was fit for duty, another may render a different diagnosis. Even though there was early research on exhaustion, it was not until the early 1980s emotional exhaustion, by name, found use in an empirical study.

Further understanding of emotional exhaustion in organizations came from Gaines and Jermier (1983) who offered seminal literature on how high stress influences employee emotional exhaustion. The authors additionally noted that unlike the other constructs of burnout, depersonalization, and inefficacy, emotional exhaustion appears to be generalizable across populations that do not deal with clients, but rather work factors, such as pay equity and promotion opportunities, as well as dealing with other employees. Gaines and Jermier suggested the stress in the employee-to-client interactions, where depersonalization and inefficacy may manifest, might be different from the stress seen in the job and interactions within the organization because it was more about the interaction than the environmental factors. Yagil and Medler-Liraz (2017) suggested the more people engage in SA, the more they may fall victim to emotional exhaustion.

Surface acting that causes emotional labor does not have confinement to the workplace. Krannitz, Grandey, Liu, and Almeida (2015) demonstrated SA used in the workplace depletes the employee's emotional resources and increases the chances of faking emotions at home, causing a significant other to want the employee to leave the job. Employees might use SA techniques in organizations, as Shanock et al. (2013) suggested, many employees use SA in meetings so as not to seem to be disagreeing with others or appearing to be an outsider. The increased use of SA further creates an inauthentic expression of emotions, depleting resources, which leads to emotional

exhaustion and higher intentions to quit the organization (Shanock et al., 2013). With these results, there appears little confliction in suggesting emotional exhaustion has links to SA with negative results to the employee.

A conversation around the link of emotional exhaustion to depersonalization and inefficacy appears in the literature when linking emotional exhaustion to burnout (Gaines & Jermier, 1983). The discussion concerns whether depersonalization and inefficacy are singular constructs under the umbrella of employee burnout or constructs on their own, suggesting emotional exhaustion can happen without either depersonalization or inefficacy. Jackson, Schwab, and Schuler (1986) suggested these three constructs, emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and inefficacy, are assumed to have some kind of empirical relationship to one another, which in turn forms burnout. Additionally, if one considers Gaines and Jermier (1983), it is possible the stress from dealing with external or physiological factors is different from occupational stress, which is dealing with the job itself and other employees (Basu, Qayyum, & Mason, 2017). Therefore, as research suggested emotional exhaustion may happen in the absence of depersonalization (Gaines & Jermier, 1983; Leiter, 1996) or needs to happen to have depersonalization (Leiter & Maslach, 2016; Leiter & Maslach, 2017), it was reasonable to assess these constructs as different variables in the current study.

Organizational Culture

The discussion to define and conceptualize OC found an arena of great debate across a number of disciplines, notably anthropology, sociology, and psychology. The early research noted over 164 definitions of culture (Bidney, 1954). Kilmann, Saxton,

and Serpa (1986) noted, some of the confusion concerning OC centers on trying to discern between cause and effect, as well as possible outcomes and processes used to define OC. Anthropology, in trying to create a theory and staking partial claim to understanding humans, delved into the territory of human behavior, which was set within the psychology and sociology realms (Opler, 1948). The insurgence into these disciplines caused both psychologist and sociologist angst. The results caused both more senior disciplines to let anthropologists know, with psychology covering man and sociology covering society, the only place for anthropology was understanding culture (Opler, 1948).

Since both sociology and psychology left the exploration of culture mainly to the anthropologist, Ouchi and Wilkins (1985) noted those who study OC find their guidance directed by a few anthropologist. Of these, Clifford Geertz was perhaps the best known, and suggested the understanding of signs and their interpretation was important to understanding OC. Geertz (1973) suggested this view as a way to peer linguistically inside the conceptual world of the employees to better understand their lives and communicate with them in their language. Ouchi and Wilkins (1985) suggested the best way to accomplish this task was for the researcher to immerse him or herself into the employee's world of the clustering of symbols that provides the employee a conceptualization of his or her world.

Additional representation of culture in the field of anthropology attempted to understand the social structure of culture through considering how a group uses its beliefs, practices, and cultural elements to guide the development of and maintain the

social structure (Ouchi & Wilkins, 1985). This argument suggests people learn values, beliefs, and practices over time, and the senior employees will teach these to the next generation of their social structure or group. Little (1960) suggested, not only do anthropologists try to explain the organization of people's lives, but also work to translate the values and beliefs of one culture to another. Arensberg (1972) argued cultural anthropology considers how man experiences various aspects of the world and shares them with others, propagating a shared experience. Bennett (1976) suggested anthropology merely offers culture as a part of human behavior, but it does not fully explain said behavior.

As culture research continued, an interest grew to understand culture within organizations. Pettigrew (1979), working to encapsulate the anthropology view, suggested it starts with a shared meaning and one could study OC by understanding the myths, rituals, symbols, and beliefs of the organization, as they would to understand a human culture. However, as the research considered the rituals and symbols, as well as the group as a whole, this suggested a blending of the anthropology and sociology perspectives (Ouchi & Wilkins, 1985). This blending suggested the main concept around culture centered on symbols as a means for language to communicate to others the group's conceptions. One may hypothesize this was congruent with the Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis, which suggested the structure of language influences the behaviors and thoughts of a culture (Hussein, 2012; Perlovsky, 2009).

Pettigrew (1979) wrote the formation of the culture inside an organization lies within the shared meaning employees give to the symbols, which provides context,

structure, purpose, and the vocabulary to the organization. According to Trice and Beyer (1984), employees function within a collective system where they must know and have a sense of what the group's expectations of them are, explained through ceremony, rites, ritual, myths, and beliefs. Trice and Beyer (1984) explained the rites and rituals of the organization carry well-defined roles that set acceptable behaviors and offers benefits and social consequences to the group and individual. These explanations of OC align with the macroanalytic perspective, which studies the group as a whole (Ouchi & Wilkins, 1985).

Noting the multitudes of explanations and conceptualizations appearing to blur the lines between anthropology, sociology, and psychology, research appeared to recognize the complexity of culture as an amalgamation of these disciplines. Considering other than the macroanalytic view of Trice and Beyer (1984) was Edger Schein, who proposed a more nuanced approach. Schein (1990) suggested the creation of OC starts at the individual level, which in turn creates a shared meaning among employees. Ouchi and Wilkins (1985) presented the microanalytic view of OC, and suggested OC was a part of each individual employee and in observation can help one to understand OC through understanding how employees learn, use sense making, and attribute cause and effect.

Schein (1990) further suggested OC derives from a vision, created individually, across the culture's members that form the shared vision, which takes many years to crystalize these OC facets into making the organization's culture. These cultural visions, or artifacts, assumptions, values, and shared beliefs learned by the group help ensure its

survival outside of its internal orientation (Schein, 1990). In support of the Geertz (1973) linguistic assumption, Schein (1993) suggested language also helps shape the OC and was a central aspect of any kind of organizational transformation. The main reason for Schein's (1993) assertion was organizations are becoming increasingly complex and multinational, which causes many organizations to break down into subgroups, each with its own subculture. The Sapir-Whorf hypothesis also states, "…speakers of different languages think and perceive reality in different ways and each language has its own world view" (Hussein, 2012, p. 642). Schein (1993) inferred because of these various subcultures, the organization would need to create mental models using language to help cut though the various subcultures to align to a singular overarching OC, while still allowing for the sub-culture type nuances.

Schein's supposition found recent support by Chapman (2013), who was able to show how the use of language within an organization will help determine the type of culture created. However, the authors also noted this was a small-scale study, with a need to replicate the study on a larger scale to offer greater validity to the findings. These findings caused other researchers to offer validation to the importance of language to OC development. Using a larger population and a mixed methodology, Sarros, Luca, Densten, and Santora (2014) were able to support the findings of Chapman (2013). The results suggested the use of language, through telling stories, providing information channels, and recognizing outstanding workers who gave a lot to the organization gives meaning to the employees of the organization's culture (Sarros, et al., 2014). Srivastava and Goldberg (2017) not only suggested the importance of the use of language in

developing and understanding OC, but also in their analysis of 500,000 reviews on an internet hiring and job offer website, which found the language used by those who wrote reviews on jobs aided the researchers in understanding how people adapt to the organization's culture. Therefore, one can see there was not one discipline that can offer an explanation to the complexity of defining OC, but it is a blend of several disciplines. However, there does seem to be ample agreement that a shared meaning was at the foundation of OC (Arensberg, 1972; Pettigrew, 1979; Schein, 1990; Schein, 1993).

Organizational culture dimensions. Challenging, as it seems for researchers and theorists to explain OC, there appears to be the same challenge in explaining the dimensions that make up an Organization's culture. Jung et al. (2009) noted within the literature over 100 various dimensions exist that appear to have an association with OC. Seeing such a high number of dimensions trying to offer conceptualizations of the dimensions of OC, there was a need for further empirical research to gain meaningful access to working with the OC construct. Hofstede et al. (1990), trying to help close the literature gap, using multivariate analysis and offered empirical research to address the OC dimension concerns. Their research, suggested OC expressed six main factor loadings that describe six dimensions: results-oriented versus goal oriented, employee-oriented versus job-oriented, parochial versus professional, open system versus closed system, loose control versus tight control, and normative versus pragmatic. The authors, although intimating the only true way to understand an organization's culture was to be immersed in it, suggested the dimensions defined in their framework offer utility to make

practitioners aware of the OC dimension differences when organizations are merging, doing strategic planning, or deciding on a OC.

Schein (1990) argued that to try to understand OC was to understand its foundations reside in the perceptions of the organization's employees and that these perceptions came from the unconscious mind. Schein's notion suggested a deeper psychological aspect to OC than perhaps previously considered in the research. Based upon the research of Hofstede, et al. (1990), as well as a desire to consolidate further the various dimensions of OC, Detert, Schroeder, and Mauriel (2000) suggested the schemata in which people organize their worlds was similar to the general dimensions of OC. However, the understanding of the complexity of schemata remained firmly within the world of psychology. As such, DiMaggio (1997) recommended sociologist would do well to team with a psychologist to understand the cognitive aspects associated with culture, culture change, and the schemata associated with them.

People may use schemata to understand their lives and as such, a reasonable supposition concerns they will use familiar schemata in organizations to make it easier to understand information, how to function, and socialize within the organization. Probert and James (2011) argued organizations tend to attract employees with similar backgrounds and use congruent schemata in how they view various situations, such as organizational leadership. Walsh (1995) reasoned that by using the schemata, the employee gave meaning and language to the organization, as well as freed up the employee's mental resources, which allowed the employee to perform additional complicated information processing. Concurrently, these very similar views and

schemata helped organize and understand the various stimuli received from external sources in the organization, as well as may have the ability to help shape the dimensions of an organization's culture.

   Organization culture types. The many dimensions of OC required researchers to try to find a way to narrow down the number of dimensions but not loose meaning, so they started to cluster these dimensions into types of OCs. However, before there was conversation concerning OC types, Harrison (1972) discussed types as organizational ideologies. Harrison described these ideologies as the company's character or personality, and these drive the organization and employee's behavior. Furthermore, ideologies let the employee know what was acceptable, the types of relationships, and what the organization views as its values and goals. Providing the foundation for OC frameworks, Harrison proposed four types of ideologies are common in an organization. First was the power orientation, a type that looks to dominate and remove all competition and barriers in its environment, where internal control stands above all else in importance. Then, the role orientation, where espousing rationality, legitimacy, and responsibility are important, as well as process and procedures, and the expectation of strict adherence to rules. Next, the task orientation, where the goal is the most important aspect and that there was nothing that should ever get in the way of achieving the goal. Lastly, the person orientation, where the employees are the greatest asset to the organization and where power gives way to compromise and employees should behave and act in ways that are not against their own goals and values. However, it was Handy

(1983), who further defined Harrison's work and used the term culture instead of ideology to describe types of culture.

Handy (1983) also used symbols in relation to culture types to help people identify with each culture type, a wheel or web for power, a temple for role, a net for task, and a cluster diagram for person. Thompson and Wildavsky (1986) offered a competing view of the types of OC when suggesting the types as fatalism, markets, hierarchies, and sects. Here, the authors offer fatalism to suggest everything happens by chance and people are helpless to act against chance. Networking concerns, people believe the social network and connection to the outside world are key to survival (Thompson & Wildavsky, 1986). However, the authors further noted, in a hierarchy OC type, people act according to their role in the hierarchy and understand those above them have the most power and decision-making, as well as one should never go against those above them. The sect OC type has no hierarchy and is where the most important aspect of the culture is protecting the group from information that may threaten the group (Thompson & Wildavsky, 1986). These frameworks of OC were still in their infancy when concurrently more condensed and precise models, expressing empirical validity and reliability, were in the literature.

Of the models, perhaps the two best-known OC frameworks seen in the literature today are the Denison Organizational Culture Model (DOCM) and the Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) model. Although the Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) model predates the DOCM, each offers an empirically valid and reliable framework and instrument to assess OC (Nazir & Lone, 2008; Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983). The DOCM proposed by Denison

and Mishra (1995) was a result of mixed methodology research, and suggested OC was complex and there was a need to broaden how researchers measure OC. Denison and Mishra (1995) use both qualitative and quantitative methodology to measure OC. These researchers felt OC's true measurement was in mixed methodology and cautioned in using only quantitative research because researchers tended to over generalize quantitative findings (Denison, 1984). Nonetheless, the initial model proposed by Denison and Spreitzer (1991) was their classification of OC typologies set within a competing values approach, congruent with the Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1981) model proposed years earlier. In the DOCM, there are four OC typologies adaptability, mission, involvement, and consistency with the same two contrasts as the Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) model, internal versus external and stability versus change (Denison & Mishra, 1995).

Adaptability is an OC type focused on the ability of the organization to adapt to external change. Here, the organization has the ability to change rapidly when the external environment changes but does not require the organization to change its character. Furthermore, the organization must develop a set of values, norms, and beliefs the employees can buy into that helps change behaviors when needed. The mission typology was an OC type that does not value change but prefers stability and control. The mission OC type further suggests the mission is the most important aspect to the organization and the work defines who the organization is to the external environment and gives purpose to the employees (Denison & Mishra, 1995).

Denison (1984) described the involvement OC type was congruent with what creates high engagement in an organization, which concerns the depth the employee can see their contributions accomplishing the organizational goals. According to Denison and Mishra (1995), involvement was the participatory type of OC, where the humanistic approach and empowering employees are critical to the organization success. However, Denison and Mishra noted too much of this type of culture could lead to insularity, where too much focus is on the humanistic and internal aspects, and where the external demands and change can harm the organization. Consistency, noted by Denison and Mishra, was an OC of predictability, stability, and control. In espousing these traits, the organization is suggesting there was only one-way of doing things, and it is was the organization's way. The normative integration of this OC type may help with effectiveness, but can also lead to personnel concerns because of the bureaucracy (Denison & Mishra, 1995).

Organizational culture type names can be different for each culture type depending on the model, (i.e., market or open systems model, clan or human systems), but the traits of the OC types stay congruent (Cameron & Quinn, 2011; Denison & Mishra, 1995). The model proposed by Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1981), with a foundation in organizational effectiveness research, suggested OC was composed of two major dimensions or organization orientations, internal (people focused) versus external (organizational focus) and the type of structure, control and stability versus flexibility (Cameron and Quinn, 2011). These two dimensions are the same mentioned in the model development and research by Denison (1984) and Denison and Mishra (1995). Intersecting these two dimensions in a cross pattern, one sees there are four types of

cultures, clan (human relations), adhocracy (open system), market (rational goals), and hierarchy (internal process).

The clan OC type (human relations) has a collaborative orientation with an internal focus and is set on the humanistic side of the OC orientation, where people are the most important aspect of the organization (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). In viewing the adhocracy (open systems) OC type, Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) suggested this is an externally oriented OC type centered on creativity, readiness, and flexibility, where the acquisition of resources and growth are cornerstones. The market OC type (rational goal), another externally focused OC type, suggest a competitive culture, where planning, goal setting, and profitability are the drivers for organizational success. The hierarchal OC type centers on stability and control with an internal focus, where the organization manages information and communication; this was the foundation of many older types of OCs (Cameron & Quinn, 2011; Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983). Reviewing the Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) model typologies, one will notice the congruencies with the DOCM OC typologies. Because the Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) model predated the DOCM, it does cause one to pause and consider if the DOCM was actually a meaningful addition to the OC literature by building off the Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) model. However, the use of a Likert scale, as opposed to the ipsative scale of the OCAI, as seen in Denison (1984), has often found use when researchers measure more than OC by itself. Nonetheless, with the congruencies seen between the Harrison (1972) ideologies and both the Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) model and DOCM, perhaps the Harrison (1972) ideologies provided the foundation for the other two models.

Organizational Culture and Surface Acting

Research supports OC greatly influences the personality and identity of an organization (Bellot, 2011; Cameron & Quinn, 2011; Martínez, Pérez, & del Bosque, 2014; Murphy, Cooke, & Lopez, 2013). Concurrently, with OC driving organizational personality and identity, there would be an expectation these organizational traits would drive organizational behavior. According to Mesmer-Magnus et al. (2018), an organization's identity will influence team functioning and behavior. Carmeli et al. (2017) further propose how an organization acts will also influence how employees behave, suggesting if an organization espouses sustainability as a focus, the employees will follow suit. Therefore, with the OC of the organization influencing organizational and employee behavior, there was the possibility of these also influencing increases or decreases of SA. In support of how organizations influence employee behaviors, organizational display rules are one of the main culprits of increased SA, and the organization sets the display rules as part of its identity to the external environment (Lee et al., 2015). If the display rules are constantly non-congruent with how employees are feeling or employees do not have the support or methods to deal with high-stress situations, increased SA will result (Schmidt & Diestel, 2014).

Although display rules set by the organization support how employees may develop SA, the organization's behaviors will also support how employees will treat one another, which can also lead to SA. Nixon et al. (2017) noted, not only does the organization let employees know how they are to treat customers, but also how to treat other employees, as this is part of the organization's culture. Organizations, requiring as

part of their culture how the employees are to treat one another (i.e., respectfully, honestly) set these expectaitons when assimilating the employee. When an employee is upset with another employee, SA techniques are likely used to avoid a confrontation that might be seen as a negative reaction to one of the employees if the altercation occurred. In such a case, the upset employee may use SA techniques, such as fake their true emotions, suppressing how they truly feel. If these interactions continue, with the suppression of emotions, this can increase the possibility of employees experiencing occupational stress, emotional exhaustion, and burnout symptoms because of the depletion of emotional resources in needing to use SA techniques (Marchand et al., 2015).

One can make an argument many organizations express how employees should treat other employees in a positive manner. Concurrently, OC traits are the foundation on whether these recommendations find actualization within the interactions of employees. The clan culture has traits of wanting good moral, focus on the employee, training and development, cohesion, with leaders seen as mentors (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Focusing on the human aspects of the organization, one could expect within the clan culture type, employees receiving training on how to act and work with other employees. One would further expect to see the organization providing resources to help employees navigate difficult times or situations, which would reduce occupational stress, emotional exhaustion, and burnout symptoms. Liden, Wayne, Liao, and Meuser (2014) augmented these assertions in research suggesting a serving culture, which has traits congruent with the clan culture type that will create behavioral norms that increase coworkers support of

one another and more positive coworker interactions. Increasing positive coworker interactions may support a decrease in the need to fake emotions in interactions; thus, decreasing the development of SA.

The adhocracy type culture or the open system model is a culture where creativity, entrepreneurship, freedom, and innovation are important, with an organizational focus on agility and transformation (Cameron & Quinn, 2011; Quinn, & Rohrbaugh, 1983). Sia and Appu (2015) noted organizations that have a successful adhocracy culture type orientation tend to have a leader that supports the employee's creativity, recognize employees for their creativity, and provides for complex enough tasks to motivate the employee. Some might consider the employee's ability to be creative and have increased freedom good traits to have in an OC type; however, this may not be entirely true. Olmos-Vega et al. (2017) suggested, too much freedom given to employees could cause issues with the employee not ready to handle the freedom. Giving employees more freedom, who then cannot meet the expectations of the person who granted the extra freedom, SA techniques may become involved. The employee may fake emotions in interactions with a peer or supervisor to express nothing is wrong, when in fact the employee could be struggling, causing stress. If continued, not only could the person experiencing the stress also feel the negative effects of SA, but also harm to the self in the way of a deteriorating self-efficacy (Thompson & Gomez, 2014).

Cameron and Quinn (2011) define the rational goal or market culture type, as one where the leader is seen as a competitor or hard driver, with the cultural traits as profitability, centralized decision making, with results of productivity and efficiency.

The market culture type expresses an external orientation, and it is reasoned that being efficient and productive are critical to the organizations success. However, competitive leaders want to win, and possibly at any cost; thus, creating an environment where winning is the most important aspect of the culture (Gosling, Dijkstra, Jones, & Sutherland, 2012). Yao et al. (2014) propose this type of leadership would find definition as a transactional leadership style, where only results matter and the employees are only numbers, gaining importance based on contribution. Yao et al. (2014) further noted the transactional leadership style produces high volumes of stress among the employees, creating a myriad of negative work behaviors, including in interactions with other employees. Liu, Liu, and Zeng (2011) suggested leaders who use a transactional style would dampen the effectiveness of teams unless the leader can find something to exchange with the team members to foster creativity. However, when leading using a reward for productivity exchange, or contingent reward, Arnold, Connelly, Walsh, and Ginis (2015), using inter-organization employees in their research, found increased SA.

Congruent with the market type culture's leadership style, the hierarchy culture type offers many of the same concerns with how leaders can influence employee work behaviors. Cameron and Quinn (2011) suggested leaders in the hierarchy culture focus internally on controlling, predictability, coordinating, and effectiveness. Organizations who have this type of culture can have leaders who want to get to the top, regardless of the consequences to others (Rosenblatt, 2012). Leaders, additionally, believe they are better than those who are below them, which promotes inequities that often lead to corruption, which can travel down through levels of supervision (Rosenblatt, 2012).

Organizations using the hierarchy culture, because of structure, may see the employees

start to focus on completing the task instead of offering new ways to complete the task,

decreasing the chances of creating better outcomes (McMillan, Chen, Richard, & Bhuian,

2012). Additionally, the hierarchy culture can create various groups, those who support

and believe in socially dominant groups and those who may see problems with the

leaders, creating in and out-groups with friction seen between groups (Rosenblatt, 2012).

Therefore, in hierarchy type cultures, employees may choose to deploy SA techniques

when around those looking to get ahead, looking to avoid the perceptions of a rival to the

other employees' advancement, or to other considered in-group employees (Pilch &

Turska, 2015)

Organizational Culture and Psychological Distress

Organizational culture has foundational importance to the development of the

three PD variables in this study, occupational stress, emotional exhaustion, and burnout.

Literature suggested occupational stress was one gateway to both emotional exhaustion

and burnout, with understanding stress promoting OC types of particular importance

(Deligkaris, Panagopoulou, Montgomery, & Masoura, 2014; Golparvar, 2016; Gyorffy et

al., 2016; Woodhead, Northrop, & Edelstein, 2016). Reviewing the clan or human

relations culture type, the research supports this culture type promoting a lower stress

environment and perhaps lower SA. Kokt and Ramarumo (2015) found even though

there was a positive correlation between the rational goal (market) OC type and less

stress, the group or clan OC has greater strength in mitigating stress and burnout effects.

Supporting research from Monteiro, Pereira, Daniel, da Silva, and Matos (2017)

suggested organizations that promote a family friendly and supportive management OC, such as the clan (human relations) OC type, tend to have employees with fewer stress perceptions. Therefore, the literature suggests the clan (human relations) OC type, which has the family type atmosphere, and supportive management, presents less occupational stress, emotional exhaustion, and burnout for employees.

Investigating the adhocracy (open system) OC type, one can find conflicting data on the promotion or mitigation of occupational stress, emotional exhaustion, and burnout. Kallio, Kallio, and Blomberg (2015) found OC types that develop employee creativity through building certain types of workspaces for employees have reduced negative employee outcomes. The researchers argued allowing workspaces for employees to express themselves not only offers a way for employees to create a workplace identity, but these office aesthetics can create excitement, calmness, and stimulation among employees. However, Zhang, Long, and Zhang (2015) suggested caution, especially in OC types that have a pay for creativity system. Zhang et al. speculated that in the pay for creativity system some employees may not always want to take risks, in which case they may see an unfair justice system when comparing themselves with those employees that will take risks to gain rewards. The perceptions of injustice can lead to increased stress among the employees who are less risk aversive (Zhang et al., 2015).

The market (rational goal) OC type appears to offer some possible occupational stress, emotional exhaustion, and burnout concerns. Organizational leaders who are seen as hard drivers, with a focus on competitiveness (Cameron & Quinn, 2011), creates a fertile ground for the development transactional leadership (Gosling et al., 2012). The

PD issues with the market OC type would include increases in occupational stress (Siregar, 2018) and emotional exhaustion (Kim & Park, 2015). The Market culture also tends to increase burnout. Jourdain and Chênevert (2015) noted, sick healthcare workers who feel pressured by the organization to still come to work to make sure things run smoothly and to help increase patient satisfaction, experience burnout trying to meet these market and hierarchy OC type goals. Additionally, this OC type espouses its competitive importance, where winning is what matters (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). However, a competitive environment Stebbins and Dent (2011) suggested, is very aggressive, and oftentimes the organization will pit employee against employee to increase competition, all the while decreasing employees working together.

Of the four culture types, the hierarchy type is perhaps the oldest, most common, and is also known as bureaucratic. A hierarchy OC type, defined by stability and control with an internal focus, leaves little room for creativity, risk, or anything that makes results unstable or unpredictable (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Zhang (2015) offered, in relation to human resource management, a hierarchy OC type could spawn favoritism, nepotism, individualism, and localism, all of which can cause issues between coworkers. Rosenblatt (2012) noted employees in a hierarchy type OC can find themselves assimilating to a culture of corruption, which will eventually find them spiraling downward into status protection, unethical decisions, lack of loyalty, sacrificing their own beliefs and morals, and following ideologies that will keep them from working with their peers. These negative concerns seen in the hierarchy OC type suggest issues among workers could certainly evolve over time.

Summary

In this chapter, I presented both theoretical and empirical foundations used to explain the rationale and outcomes for the current study. Realizing there appears to be a lack of research connecting SA, OC, and occupational stress, emotional exhaustion, and burnout in employee-to-employee interactions, I used a historical foundation for each variable in an attempt to express how each transitioned into helping create the research questions I proposed. The chapter included an explanation of the development of emotional labor, as well as how the construct of SA has negative consequences for organizations, employees, and families. Literature in this study attempted to justify that the organization's display rules may be the foundation that can cause forms of SA. I explained how OC develops over time, its meaning, as well as various dimensions and typologies. I offered links between surface acting and the psychological distress constructs of occupational stress, emotional exhaustion, and burnout. In relating to burnout, I differentiated between how emotional exhaustion, thought to be a stepping stone to burnout, can also be a singular construct to measure. I further offered an comparison between stress and occupational stress, which although congruent in many ways may come from different foundational causations.

I offered both seminal and current literature to explain the links between OC type and SA and OC and psychological distress. However, the main interest for this study concerned the lack of research that examines the role of SA between organizational employees, as much of the literature is on the employee-to-customer interaction. I further proposed the same SA concerns seen in employee-to-customer interactions were similar

in employee-to-employee interactions. I also offered the possible antecedent of the OC, which can increase or decrease the SA concerns. Therefore, this study examined not only whether SA carries the same negative relationship of the employee-to-customer interaction into the realm of the employee-to-employee interaction, but also that the type of OC the organization has influences how these concerns are either mitigated or intensified. In Chapter 3, I explain the research methods I used to test my hypothesis. I show how I test for the relationship between SA and the three CVs of occupational stress, emotional exhaustion, and burnout, as well as how I assess if OC type has any moderating relationship between these variables.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Introduction

This quantitative study investigated whether an organization's culture type (clan, adhocracy, market, or hierarchy) moderated the relationship between internal employee-to-employee surfacing acting (SA) and the psychological distress (PD) elements of occupational stress, emotional exhaustion, and burnout. The predictor variable (PV) is SA and the criterion variables for the study are occupational stress, emotional exhaustion, and burnout. Granularly, the study assessed if there was a moderating relationship caused by the organization culture OC types of clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). In the following chapter, I outline the research design, the rationale for using this design, and its appropriateness for this study. I additionally present the study's methodology. The sampling and sampling procedures section includes the sampling strategy and its justification, the sampling frame, and power analysis. I also offer details regarding choosing the participants, their recruitment, and the data collection. I present the instrumentation and scales used for the data collection, any materials used, and my analysis method. I discuss and explain the operationalization of all variables used in the study and present a data analysis plan. Contained in the instrument section, is a detailed analysis and explanation of the instruments and scales chosen for the study. Concurrently, an explanation as to why each instrument was appropriate for use in the current study. I offer thoughts on any perceived threats to validity, as well as any concerns about the ethics of the study, protection of the participants, institutional permissions, recruitment, and data collection, storage, access to

data, and destruction of the data after the study's completion. I then offer a summary of the chapter.

Research Design and Rationale

The design for the current study was cross-sectional, non-experimental, and used survey methodology for data collection. I chose the cross-sectional design because it allows me to collect the data I need at one time. The study used an online survey, which allowed participants to take the survey at their leisure, promoted autonomy, and created less disruption to an organization than if I requested to do interviews. To answer my research questions, I used moderation analysis. Survey methodology was more cost effective and quicker to obtain the data for analysis (Warner, 2013). I further chose the cross-sectional design over an experimental design because I did not use a control group, conduct random assignment, or use a random sampling method, which are all aspects of an experimental design (Frankfort-Nachmias, Nachmias, & DeWaard, 2015). The collected data allowed for the examination of any relationship between SA (PV) and the three CVs of occupational stress, emotional exhaustion, and depersonalization. Additionally, I assessed the presence of moderation of any relationship between PV and CVs with the clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy OC types (moderating variables). Using the above approach allowed for the assessment of the research questions to determine if there are any moderating effects of OC type on the relationship between SA and the three types of PD, occupational stress, emotional exhaustion, and depersonalization.

As organizations continue to work to understand the effects of OC, the research showed how OC changes the relationships between variables, which included how OC type may moderate effects between variables. Congruent designs with the current moderation study are seen in Mitchell and Pattison (2012), who found OC moderated the relationship between mental health care role involvement and inter-organizational factors. More recently, Anning-Dorson (2017) found OC moderated the relationship between the performance of an organization and the innovation of new products. Therefore, it seemed reasonable to use OC as a moderator in the current study to help expand the literature and understand of the influence of OC on organizational outcomes.

Methodology

Population

The population for the study came from individuals employed by various organizations within the United States. To obtain the number of participants needed to satisfy the minimum number of responses needed for statistical analysis, I purchased a research panel of participants from Qualtrics. For a fee, Qualtrics offers research panels for many social, academic, and market research projects, with panel participants managed by Qualtrics (Qualtrics, 2014). Demographics of the population included gender and age ranging from 18 to 56+. Because of the screening and selection process used by Qualtrics, this ensured the requested panel type represented homogeneity and met the criteria (see Qualtrics, 2014). Crowdsourcing panels for research, such as Qualtrics and Amazon's MTurk are gaining greater importance and utility in quantitative research in both cross-sectional and longitudinal studies, with responses similar to traditional surveys

(Revilla, Saris, Loewe, & Ochoa, 2015). Any respondents that identified they were not working in an organization were excluded from the current study. The reason for this exclusion was that a self-employed individual would not be working within an organization's culture, which was the moderating variable of the current study.

Sampling and Sampling Procedures

The sampling procedure for the current study was a nonprobability design, using a convenience sample. Creswell (2014) described a sample of convenience is when the researcher cannot reasonably assure each sampling unit in the sampling frame has an equal chance of selection of the study. In my study, because I purchased a set number of responses ($N = 260$), there was a chance that not everyone who met the inclusion criteria and was able to participate in the current study. Qualtrics sent out a number of requests to possible participants to be in the study. After the collection of the required number of responses, those responses that came in afterwards would not be in the study. A limitation of the current design was the results might not be representative of the entire population. Concurrently, the entire population of the Qualtrics pool panel selected for the current study had the opportunity to participate in the survey. The sampling units (panel respondents) for the current study came from this sampling frame (Qualtrics panel pool).

A multiple linear regression analysis, using SPSS software, was used to address the research questions. To find the sample size needed for each of the four culture types, it was necessary to know the power (β), alpha (α), effect size, and the number of PVs used in the study (Field, 2013). In the current study there was one PV and four

moderating variables; thus using a β of .80, α =.05, effect size f^2 = .25, the study needed

N=212 respondents for the moderation analysis (see Soper, 2018).

Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection

Recruitment of participants for the current study required an email to go out to the

Qualtrics panel pool from Qualtrics introducing the survey and asking for participation in

the study. The email further contained an explanation of the survey, that the survey was

voluntary and confidential, and estimated the approximant time to complete the survey.

If pool participants met the inclusion criteria, they were allowed to participate in the

study until the limit of $N = 260$ was reached.

Using the research survey platform, I collected the data from those who

participated in the survey. Qualtrics uses a variety of scientific and online secure

methods to keep data safe, private, anonymous, and confidential, and has end users, such

as Microsoft, Yahoo, General Electric, MetLife, CVS, and top business schools of

Harvard, Stanford, Duke, and Dartmouth (Qualtrics, 2018). Participation in the survey

required the respondent click on the provided link that came in the introduction email,

which allowed them to see the entry page of the survey. On the entry page, the

participant read the explanation of what the study was, why the survey was taking place,

and my name as researcher. The entry page additionally contained the informed consent.

The goal of the informed consent was to allow the possible participant to make a

reasonable and informed decision on if he or she would like to participate in the survey

and helped me be mindful of cultural and legal considerations (Frankfort-Nachmias et al.,

2015). According to Creswell (2014), the informed consent allows the possible

participant to review aspects of the study, such as the name of the researcher, purpose of the study, how data was to be sorted and disposed of, and any possible benefits or risks. Additionally, the study was voluntary and participants could withdraw at any time without consequence; I provided my name as contact in case there was an issue during the study (Frankfort-Nachmias et al., 2015). The entry page contained a question that determined if the participant worked in an organization. If the participant did not, the survey did not allow them to participate because the survey only accepted participants who worked in an organization. The introduction email and the informed consent specified this aspect of who can participate in the study.

Instrumentation

Organizational culture type. The current study used the model developed by Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983), commonly known as the competing values framework (CVF) to help assess OC type and any relationship between the PV of SA and the three CVs of PD, occupation stress, emotional exhaustion, and depersonalization. The Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) CVF model presents three dimensions, focus - whether the organization has an internal or external focus, structure - seen as stability and control or flexibility and change - a means to an ends or concern for means or the ends. The model further suggests organizations have a combination of four different types of cultures, human relations or people centered (clan), open system or growth and readiness centered (adhocracy), rational goal or goal setting and planning (market), and internal process or stability and control (hierarchy). Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) theorize that each

organization has a mixture of these culture types, which can also represent sub-cultures; however, only one culture type represents the dominate culture.

Human Relations Model
(the team)

Open Systems Model
(the adhocracy)

Towards decentralization
and differentiation

Towards developing
human resources

Towards expansion
and transformation

Spontaneity / Flexibility

Concern
Commitment
Morale

Insight
Innovation
Adaptation

Discussion
Participation
Openness

External support
Acquiring resources
Growth

Towards maintaining
The system

Internal focus
Long time horizon

Short time horizon
External focus

Towards competitive position
of overall system

Measurement
Documentation
Managing
Information

Accomplishment
Productivity
Profit/Impact

Stability
Control
Continuity

Clarifying
goals
Direction
Decisiveness

Predictability / Order

Towards consolidation
and equilibrium

Towards maximizing
output

Towards centralization
and integration

Internal Process Model
(the hierarchy)

Rational Goal Model
(the firm)

Figure 2: Competing Values Framework. Adopted from "Beyond Rational Management: Mastering the Paradoxes and Competing Demands of High Performance, by Quinn, 1988, p. 51.

Characteristics of the internally focused clan culture type include a supportive workplace, leaders seen as mentors, and with the development of staff important (Lindquist & Marcy, 2016). The adhocracy type OC has an external focus, where creativity and responding to changes in the environment are important, as well as the ability to gain new resources and influence (Lindquist & Marcy, 2016). The market type OC is another externally focused OC type where profit, getting to market first, goal setting, reducing costs, and productivity are the organizational goals and drivers

(Lindquist & Marcy, 2016). The hierarchy OC type is perhaps the oldest and better known, as this is a bureaucratic, internally focused OC type, where control and stability are keys to success (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). To determine the type and strength of OC, the study used the OCAI.

Organizational culture assessment instrument. Early OC dimension research culminated in a need to provide researchers a more applicable and manageable number of dimensions to use in OC assessment instruments. Jung et al. (2009) found 70 instruments expressing sufficient psychometric properties to warrant consideration for assessing OC; however, this was not exhaustive of all the instruments found. Some examples of the more commonly seen measurement instruments would include the Organizational Culture Inventory (OCI) developed by Cooke and Lafferty (1983). Cooke and Rousseau (1988) noted the OCI measures 12-culture aspects that look to describe the personal style and employee behavior within the organization. The OCI did not suggest an overarching dimension, as seen in the upcoming models, but rather focused on the importance of the organization sub-cultures in understanding the overall OC.

Glaser, Zamanou, and Hacker (1987) presented the organizational culture survey, which has five subscales of key drivers to measure six dimensions. The subscales measure supervision, meetings, communication, climate, and involvement (Glaser et al., 1987). Hofstede et al. (1990) provided six dimensions, each on a continuum, as well as two main drivers that identify culture, practices, and values, which support four manifestations of culture, values, heroes, rituals, and symbols. Fletcher and Jones (1992) discussed the cultural audit. Here, congruent with the Hofstede et al. (1990) model, are

six areas of measurements, each along a continuum. However, unlike the Hofstede et al. (1990) model, the cultural audit requires employees to measure their perceived situation, perceptions of others in the organization, ideal situation, as well as it is not norms based. Denison and Mishra (1995) offered a model and instrument that one might find congruent with the Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) model, the Denison organizational culture model (DOCM) and Denison organizational culture survey (DOCS). Casida (2008) noted the DOCM and DOCS focus on four areas of OC, mission, adaptability, involvement, and consistency. The instrument is both empirically valid and reliable (Nazir & Lone, 2008).

As one can see, there as any number of instruments one can use to assess the dimensions and constructs of OC. However, the Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) empirically valid and reliable model, with the four culture types of human relations (clan), open systems (adhocracy), market (rational goal), and hierarchy (internal process) found use in the current study to assess the organizational culture type variables.

Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) presented one of the earliest empirically developed instruments to measure OC that was set within their CVF model, the organizational culture assessment instrument (OCAI; Appendix B). The OCAI not only helps determine the strength of each culture type in the organization, but also the internal or external focus and amount of flexibility versus control, as well as a look at what employees prefer in the culture (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). In assessing both the current and preferred culture, practitioners can advise organizations on how to close the gaps seen between current and preferred culture to help them create the OC they would like.

The OCAI measures six domains considered foundational to OC, dominate characteristics, organizational leadership, management of employees, organizational glue, strategic emphasis, and criteria for success. Within each domain are four statements, each tied to one of the four culture types. Using a 5-point Likert response scale, with anchors of 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*), the respondents offered their perceptions of the current OC. However, the OCAI can assess current OC or preferred OC by themselves (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). For this study, the OCAI had an index range of 24 to 120. Items from the OCAI included, "*The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify mentoring, facilitating, or nurturing.*" and "*The management style in the organization is characterized by teamwork, consensus, and participation.*" (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

The current study used the Likert scale version of the OCAI, which has many researchers attempting to assess the reliability and validity of the instrument of this version. Early validation of the reliability of the OCAI came from Quinn and Spreitzer (1991) when finding all culture types measured by the OCAI reached a Cronbach's alpha of $\alpha = .70$ threshold for reliability. These reliability results found further validation, with a slightly smaller alpha in the hierarchy culture type from Heritage et al. (2014). Using the Likert response scale, Heritage et al. (2014) found Cronbach alphas of $\alpha = .69$ (hierarchy) to $\alpha = .80$ (clan). Converse to the low alpha of the hierarchy culture type by Heritage, et al. (2014), Shim et al (2015) using the Likert scale, found Cronbach alphas averaged $\alpha = .90$ across the four culture types.

Concerning the OCAI's validity, using confirmatory factor analysis techniques, and building off research by Choi et al. (2010), Heritage et al. (2014) were able to demonstrate the instrument had a sufficient model fit with the CVF for both assessing current and preferred culture, as well as criterion and predictive validity. Additionally, Kim and Han (2017), using average variance extracted, demonstrated convergent validity and using confirmatory factor analysis to demonstrate construct validity. With the favorable psychometrics seen in the literature for the OCAI, the instrument was appropriate for the current study. I obtained permission to use this instrument before use in the current study.

Surface acting scale. To measure SA in the current study, I chose the surface acting scale (SAS) by Diefendorff et al. (2005a; Appendix C). The developers noted the SAS was a seven-item scale using a Likert response scale of 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*) and has a range of scores from seven to 35. Diefendorff et al. (2005a) used five items from the Grandey (2003) SA scale and two items from the Kruml and Geddes (2000) emotive dissonance scale to develop the SAS. Sample items from the SAS included "*I just pretend to have the emotions I need to display for my job.*" and "*I put on a "mask" in order to display the emotions I need for the job.*" (Diefendorff, et al., 2005a). The goal of the scale was to measure the level of SA an employee experiences during the day at work, with possible total scores of the scale ranging from five through 25. The original SAS measures the interaction between the employee and the customer, whereas the current study revised the items and changed the word "customer" to "other employees" to understand the level of SA experiences in internal employee-to-employee

interactions. The reliability coefficient was computed on the scale with the revised

verbiage, benchmarked with the original scale, and found to be acceptable.

Research on the psychometrics of the SAS express good reliability and validity.

Diefendorff et al. (2005a) found a Cronbach alpha of $\alpha = .91$ and $\alpha = .92$ in cross-

validation. Park, O'Rourke, and O'Brien (2014) evaluated the use of the conservation of

resources theory in a school setting and found a Cronbach's alpha of $\alpha = .88$ for the seven

items that comprise the SAS. Prati, Liu, Perrewé, and Ferris (2009), in assessing the

moderation of emotional intelligence between SA and strain relationship, demonstrated

construct validity. Pugh, Groth, and Hennig-Thurau (2011), using confirmatory factor

analyses, found both discriminant and convergent validity. According to Diefendorff,

Croyle, and Gosserand (2005b), there is no need to ask for written permission to use the

scale for non-commercial research purposes.

Occupational stress index. To measure occupational stress, the current study

used the scale from Motowidlo et al. (1986a; Appendix D). The occupational stress

index (OSI) was a four-item subjective stress scale, using a Likert response scale of 1

(*strongly disagree)* to 5 (*strongly agree*), with questions to include, "*My job is very*

stressful." and "*I feel a great deal of stress because of my job.*" In the development of the

OSI, the authors noted the index measures subjective stress in the workplace, with a

range of scores from four to 20 (Motowidlo et al., 1986b). The development of the scale

used 275 nurses across two studies (Motowidlo et al., 1986a). Kremer (2016) noted

subjective stress concerns the overall psychological strain of the work environment.

Packard and Motowidlo (1987) used the OSI and found the main reasons for job stress

came from two areas, the organization and worker characteristics when investigating the effects of job satisfaction, subjective stress, and job performance. Dubinsky, Yammarino, Jolson, and Spangler (1995) successfully used the four-item OSI scale in assessing stress with other constructs when investigating transformational leadership and sales management. Motowidlo et al. (1986b) found a Cronbach alpha of $\alpha = .83$ when performing a reliability analysis concerning the OSI.

Concerning the OSI, according to M. R. Manning (personal communication, October 23, 2018), no validity data was ever published, but the scale did correlate in the expected directions with the Zuckerman multiple affect adjective checklist. Dubinsky et al. (1995) used the four-item scale in their study, suggesting the scale was valid and reliable to use in research. Kath, Stichler, Ehrhart, and Sievers (2013), investigating nurse manager stress, noted the four-item scale of the OSI has sound psychometric properties. De Gieter, Hofmans, and Bakker (2018) demonstrated a single factor loading when correlating their single item with the four-item OSI scale. The four-item scale was slightly adapted for a daily measurement, such as, "I feel a great deal of stress because of my job" to "Today I felt a great deal of stress because of my job" (see De Gieter, Hofmans, & Bakker, 2018, p. 366; Motowidlo et al., 1986). Furthermore, the Motowidlo et al. (1986a) article was cited over 1000 times, with the four-item scale used in peer-reviewed research to include Bolino, Turnley, Gilstrap, and Suazo (2010), Kath et al. (2013), and Mechaber, Levine, Manwell, Mundt, and Linzer (2008). Permission to use the OSI is in Appendix D.

Emotional exhaustion subscale. Medler-Liraz and Seger-Guttmann (2018) suggested emotional exhaustion was the main construct of burnout and concerned the emotional draining of physical and psychological resources. To measure the emotional exhaustion variable in the current study, I chose the emotional exhaustion subscale (EES) from the burnout inventory (see Iverson, Olekalns, & Erwin, 1998a: Appendix E). The EES was a three-item scale, using a Likert response scale of 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). A question from the EES was "*I feel emotionally drained at work.*" (Iverson, et al., 1998a). The range of scores from the index was from three to 15. Iverson, et al. (1998b) further writes, the EES was an abbreviated scale by Maslach and Jackson (1981), the Maslach burnout inventory (aMBI), and has similar psychometrics. The Maslach and Jackson (1981) scale has shown good reliability, with a Cronbach's alpha in the emotional exhaustion scale of $\alpha = .74$, (EES has $\alpha = .74$), as well as convergent validity using three scores, correlations with individual behavior ratings, various hypothesized outcomes, and job characteristics. Additionally, Maslach and Jackson (1981) demonstrated discriminate validity by the ability to show the separation between constructs in the same instrument. Koeske and Koeske (1989) demonstrated good construct validity, with not only the MBI but also other forms of the MBI. Iverson, et al. (1998a) noted, as long as the EES finds use in a non-commercial study, there was no need to receive permission to use or replicate.

Depersonalization subscale. The scale chosen for assessing burnout or the level of experienced depersonalization also comes from the Iverson, et al. (1998a) burnout inventory (Appendix F) and uses the same items as the abbreviated Maslach burnout

inventory. The depersonalization subscale (DS) has three items and uses a Likert

response scale of 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Iverson, et al. (1998a) noted

a sample item includes, "*I've become more callous towards people since taking this job.*"

The range of score from the index was from three to 15. The aMBI found use in studies

of stress and burnout (Opoku & Apenteng, 2014), stress, burnout, and personality of

doctors (McManus, Keeling, & Paice, 2004), and physician morbidities and burnout

(Vijendren, Yung, & Shiralkar, 2016). The Cronbach alpha for the depersonalization

subscale ranges from $\alpha = .77$ to .87 (Iverson, Olekalns, & Erwin, 1998c; Vijendren, et al.,

2016). Validity psychometrics are congruent with the EES used in this study. The

current study used two subscales, emotional exhaustion and depersonalize, from the

aMBI. To help justify these scales independent use from the aMBI, Koeske and Koeske

(1989) conclude from their research, because the subscales of the aMBI express some

differentiation, one should be careful about combining these scales and perhaps should

use them separately, such as done in the current study, whenever appropriate. Congruent

with the other instruments chosen for this study, as long as they are used for research

purposes, there is no needed permission to use or replicate (Iverson, et al., 1998a).

Operationalization of Constructs

Organizational culture. Organizational culture, as used in my study, refers to the

shared values, beliefs, and assumptions of the employees that help define the type of OC

(Cameron & Quinn, 2011; Schein, 1990). The four culture types in the current study are

from the CVF, which are clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy. Definition of the clan

culture type includes a flexible environment focusing on integration, where leaders

espouse mentorship, and with organizational drivers of commitment, collaboration, and human development (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). The adhocracy OC type is more discretionary and differentiation focused, where leaders are more like visionaries and innovators, and the organizational drivers are transformation and agility (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). The market OC type centers on competition and has an external focus. Leaders in this culture type are competitive and hard drivers, where getting to market first and obtaining resources is critical, and profitability and goal achievement are the value drivers of the organization (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). The hierarchy OC type focuses on control and stability, and the internal workings of the organization are paramount, where predictability and efficiency are keys to success (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Leaders are controlling and organizing, with the value drivers of the organization seen as uniformity, timeliness, and consistency (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

Surface acting. Hochschild (1979) defines SA as the faking of emotions when in interactions or the altering of one's external expression but not changing true internal emotions. The current study used this definition to operationalize SA. The literature on SA expresses a number of negative consequences of prolonged SA. To help differentiate the literature concerning employee to customer interactions, the current study exclusively looked to evaluate SA as the negative experiences resulting from interactions with other employees that cause employees to fake their true emotions with another employee (Bhave & Glomb, 2016; Zito et al., 2018). In an example, if an employee was seen to be a bully, other employees may present fake emotions when interacting with this employee

to avoid escalating an interaction, a confrontation, or try to avoid the perceived bully altogether (Branch et al., 2013).

Psychological distress. Psychological distress was not the variable, but the parent construct to which the three CVs belong. The term PD covers various mental health outcomes, as well as a number of causations. I define PD to mean employee outcomes who experience stress, emotional exhaustion, and depersonalization that result from employee interactions with other employees in the workplace. The literature shows, PD in the workplace was different from other ways one can experience PD, such as through family life. In the workplace, PD results from the factors one experiences in the workplace, such as abusive supervisor, emotional exhaustion, bullying, or other demands that exhaust psychological resources (Marchand, et al., 2015). Therefore, the following three CVs help operationalize PD in the workplace.

Occupational Stress. Occupational stress is a close relative to physiological stress, especially in cardiac studies and stress's influence on the body. However, House et al. (1979) started examining how environmental factors in the workplace were causing stressors, with causation by psychological influencers, such as when the employee has little control concerning the environment they work in daily. A meta-analysis by Richardson and Rothstein (2008), supporting the psychological aspect in the work environment, found interventions, such as cognitive behavioral therapy, were successful in the workplace setting. Therefore, the operationalization of occupational stress in the current study concerned the stress of interacting with other employees in the workplace setting.

Emotional Exhaustion. A construct many researchers believe is the core of burnout was emotional exhaustion (Singh & Burke, 2017). Emotional exhaustion concerns the depletion of psychological or physical emotional resources. The depletion of these resources in the workplace came from a number of areas, but one primary area was the faking of emotions when the employee is in interactions with customers or other employees (Krannitz, et al., 2015). In these interactions, employees will outwardly express emotions but may not internalize the emotions, which leads to SA. Therefore, the current study defined emotional exhaustion as the depletion of emotional resources caused by the daily employee interactions with other employees.

Depersonalization. Depersonalization, a key construct and operationalized from burnout, is the process of the employee no longer looking at other employees as people, but rather as objects (Jackson, et al., 1986). Here, one employee is frustrated with another to the point of using SA, in which case the employee using SA emotionally disengages with the other employee to try to get out of the situation (Lee, et al., 2018). With depersonalization, research shows the employee using depersonalization will experience less personal accomplishment, which in turn will decrease the employee's self-efficacy (Rod & Ashill, 2013). Thus, with the above clarification of depersonalization, the current study operationalized depersonalization as the act of emotionally disengaging from ones work and other employees.

Data Analysis Plan

I used SPSS v.25 to analyze the data. I collected the data via an online survey, using the online survey platform Qualtrics to administer the survey. All the instruments

were uploaded to Qualtrics. The Qualtrics platform supports the transferring of data into the SPSS software program for analysis. I reviewed each survey to make sure it was complete and only surveys that are complete are included in the study.

Research Question 1: What is the relationship between surface acting and stress, as moderated by the organizational culture type?

$H_0 1$: Organizational culture type does not moderate the relationship between SA and stress.

$H_a 1$: Organizational culture type does moderate the relationship between SA and stress.

Research Question 2: What is the relationship between surface acting and emotional exhaustion, as moderated by the organizational culture type?

$H_0 2$: Organizational culture type does not moderate the relationship between SA and emotional exhaustion.

$H_a 2$: Organizational culture type does moderate the relationship between SA and emotional exhaustion.

Research Question 3: What is the relationship between surface acting and burnout, as moderated by the organizational culture type?

$H_0 3$: Organizational culture type does not moderate the relationship between SA and burnout.

$H_a 3$: Organizational culture type does moderate the relationship between SA and emotional exhaustion.

Before I assess for any moderating relationship between the PV and CVs of occupational stress, emotional exhaustion, and depersonalization, I first check for any relationship between the PV of SA and the three CVs of occupational stress, emotional exhaustion, and depersonalization, which are all on an interval scale. I next turn to regression analysis for the moderation analysis. According to Field (2013), to perform the regression analysis, I need to create interaction variables. To create the interaction variables, I centered and combined the PV of SA and the moderating variables of culture type, meaning I now have four new interaction variables. I then checked for any assumption violations and then moderation by regressing the four new variables on the CVs of occupational stress, emotional exhaustion, and depersonalization.

Threats to Validity

The credibility of any study rests on the researcher presenting and discussing any possible threats to the study's validity. In the current study, I needed to consider four main threats to validity, internal, construct, and statistical, and external. Each of the threats to validity are explained below in relation to the current study.

Internal validity. A key consideration for internal validity is the relationship between the predictor and criterion variables. The reason for this concern was the study was non-experimental, used a nonprobability sampling procedure, and was cross-sectional. This survey design included instruments with acceptable validity and reliability, but the responses are all self-report. The use of self-report results presented an area of concern, which was response bias or as Frankfort-Nachmias et al. (2015) call it, response set. The response set is when a participant answers all questions in a particular

manner regardless of the content of the item, such as answering all questions using the neutral or strongly agrees response. To reduce response bias, the survey I conducted online so respondents can take the survey at their leisure.

Two further concerns include, do the items come from developed research scales and if the items are worded appropriately? I suggest the items are worded appropriately because they are from developed research scales with established reliability and validity. Keeping the survey to a minimum length of time to complete was important, as the longer the survey, the more apt respondents may not finish the survey (Revilla & Ochoa, 2017). Helping to reduce the time it takes to complete the survey, Toepoel, Das, and van Soest's (2009) research suggested using minimum number of web pages for the survey; the survey used had only two survey pages with the items. The survey for the current study should take approximately 15-20 minutes to complete. Therefore, even with these possible validity issues illuminated, there remains much support for each of the survey scales and the instrument, as well as the current study's research design in other research mentioned in this section. As such, the threats to internal validity appear minimized.

Construct validity. Construct validity concerns the validity of the scales and instruments of a study. Additionally, how strong the correlation is between the construct and its measurement, and normally uses confirmatory factor analysis to determine construct validity (Hamann, Schiemann, Bellora, & Guenther, 2013). The current study used one complete instrument (OCAI) and four different scales (SAS, OSI, EES, and DS). Concerning the OCAI, the instrument used to collect data on the participant's perceptions of the culture, the psychometrics exhibit construct validity (Cameron &

Quinn, 2009). The demonstration of construct, convergent, and discriminate validity for

the SAS came from Prati et al. (2009). The scales of EES and DS both have shown

construct validity, not only in the Maslach burnout inventory research but also in the

individual scales (Koeske & Koeske, 1989; Iverson, et al., 1998a). Concerning the OSI,

although no validity was ever reported by the scale developers (personal communication,

October 23, 2018), other research does support construct validity of the scale (De Gieter

et al., 2018; Dubinsky et al., 1995; Kath et al., 2013). Therefore, the use of the study's

instrument and scales are appropriate.

Statistical validity. Creswell (2014) infers statistical validity arises when

researchers use inadequate statistical power or there was a violation of an assumption in

the statistical tests the researcher wants to use in the study. The statistical power for the

current study's analysis was $\beta = .80$, which was adequate power for moderation analysis

(Field, 2013). To test the assumptions, I needed to collect and analyze the data to assess

for any possibility of violation assumptions, such as multicollinearity.

External validity. Creswell (2014) noted a threat to a study's external validity

concerns when the researcher looks to generalize the results outside of the study's

population. The current study collected participants using convenience sampling,

through the Qualtrics panel, all of whom were employees in organizations. If I were to

use my results and make inferences, as well as generalize them to another population or

location, my study may have some external validity concerns. My sample also needed to

be representative of the population. Frankfort-Nachmias et al. (2015) stipulate that when

a researcher uses a sample that was not representative of the study's population there

exists a threat to the external validity of the study. Therefore, as my sample was diverse and came from employees of different types of organizations in the United States (U.S.), the results are not generalizable, but being cognizant of the geographical sampling frame, I am careful about generalizing or making inferences to other locations or populations outside the U.S.

Ethical Procedures

For the current study, the American Psychological Association (APA) and the Society of Industrial and Organizational Psychology (SIOP) codes of ethics guided the researcher. One concern was the data collection and making sure the participants remained anonymous. Specifically, to help mitigate any concerns over the anonymity of participants in the collection of data, I used only enough identifiers in the demographics to answer the research questions. Additionally, in using the Qualtrics survey platform, I was not be able to see any names of the participants. To further protect participant anonymity, the results of the study were not individually reported but reported in aggregate. To help address any ethical concerns this study, I went through the Walden University Institutional Review Board.

The survey was also done anonymously in an online format. The informed consent (IC) spelled out who the researcher was and only the researcher had access to the raw data. Considering the IC, I let participants know what will happen with the data, they can stop at any time without repercussion, and their names were not associated with the data. The IC let people know whom to contact if there were problems, if there were any benefits to taking the survey, that the survey was voluntary and confidential, how the

data is to be secured, and the destruction of the data. Providing this information allowed the participants to make an informed choice on whether they wished to participate. Because of these procedures, I believe there was a minimization of ethical concerns.

Summary

The current research assessed whether organization culture type moderates the influence of SA on the PD variables of occupational stress, emotional exhaustion, and depersonalization. In Chapter 3, I discussed my population, sample, and sampling procedures. I offered how I determined my sample size and the justification for using these data. I presented my recruitment methods, the demographics of the population, as well as how people will find inclusion and exclusion in to the current study. Furthermore, was a discussion of the instruments and scales for the study, as well as my reasoning for using them in the current study. Each scale or instrument found support to use because of the psychometric data on reliability and validity. I further defined the operationalization of the variables in this study. I presented my data analysis plan that included the use of the SPSS software and the steps associated with performing a moderation analysis. To offer credibility to the current study, I discussed possible threats to internal, construct, statistical, and external validity. In the closing of Chapter 3, I presented possible ethical concerns and how I will use professional codes of conduct (i.e., APA, SIOP) to help mitigate any of these ethical issues. In Chapter 4, I present the results of the current study.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

The current study quantitatively investigated whether an organization's culture type (clan, adhocracy, market, or hierarchy) can moderate the relationship between internal employee-to-employee surfacing acting (SA) and the psychological distress (PD) elements of occupational stress (OS), emotional exhaustion (EE), or depersonalization (DEP). The predictor variable (PV) was SA and the criterion variables for the study were occupational stress, emotional exhaustion, and burnout. To determine if OC type moderated the relationship between SA and OS, EE, and DEP, a quantitative survey was administered to participants who met the inclusionary criteria of the study. After data collection, and assumption analysis, I conducted a moderation analysis to answer the research questions. In the following chapter, I present the characteristics of the sample, followed by the results, which includes descriptive statistics, assumption analysis, and moderation analysis.

Participants

My initial population was going to come from a large academic medical center. However, shortly after IRB document submission, the organization decided I could not use the employees in the organization for my study. Moving forward, I chose to collect my responses from the Qualtrics participant pool or by crowdsourcing, which was the study's online platform I used to administer my survey. Crowdsourcing is the process of allowing an organization to collect individuals' responses using an organization's online participant pool, which provides for much quicker data collection compared to

administering a traditional online survey (Lutz, 2016). Revilla et al. (2015) found the

quality of online purchased panel question responses was similar to normal online survey

responses, suggesting online panel utility. Crowdsourcing sites, such as Amazon's

MTurk, have demonstrated additional utility in collecting data for longitudinal studies

(Strickland & Stoops, 2018). Christopher, Porter, Outlaw, and Cho (2019), in a meta-

analysis of online panel data, noted it was time for research to accept the utility of the use

of online panels. Qualtrics (2014) ensured a diverse panel in relation to the requested

population. The selection of this utility, additionally, did not influence my selection of

instruments or scales. Therefore, the online crowdsourcing panel was used to recruit

participants for my study.

Power analyses indicated the need for a sample size of $N = 53$ for each of the four

moderating variables. Thus, I made efforts to obtain a minimum of 212 participant

responses. The participant inclusionary criteria was identified as being a current

employee of an organization. These criteria allowed me to assess a participant's overall

perception of his or her organization's culture type. After I purchased a Qualtrics license

for the data collection, Qualtrics sent out the anonymous survey link, along with the

explanation of the study, and the informed consent. Survey collection lasted from

February 21, 2019 through March 17, 2019 to collect the required responses, which were

$N = 260$. Demographics for the study were male ($n = 123$), female ($n = 131$), other ($n = 2$), and prefer not to respond ($n = 4$). For the age variable, participants reported being 18-

25 years ($n = 51$), 26-35 years ($n = 55$), 36-45 years ($n = 52$), 46-55 years ($n = 47$), and $n = 55$ in the 56+ age group.

Descriptive Statistics

The hypothesis of the current study was organizational culture type would moderate the

relationship between the predictor variable of SA and the criterion variables of OS, EE,

and DEP. The descriptive statistics for SA, four OC types, and the three criterion

variables of OS, EE, and DEP are in Table 1 below.

Table 1

Descriptive statistics for surface acting (SA), organizational culture type - clan,
adhocracy, market, hierarchy, and occupational stress (OS), emotional exhaustion (EE),
and depersonalization (DEP).

Variables	*n*	Cronbach's Alpha	*M*	*SD*	*Skewness*	*SE*	*Kurtosis*	*SE*
SA	260	.92	2.89	1.06	-.07	.15	-.97	.30
Clan	260	.86	3.05	.94	-.29	.15	-.69	.30
Adhocracy	260	.86	3.27	.92	-.28	.15	-.41	.30
Market	260	.81	3.45	.83	-.41	.15	-.14	.30
Hierarchy	260	.77	3.55	.78	-.38	.15	-.26	.30
OS	260	.78	3.15	1.00	-.09	.15	-.43	.30
EE	260	.89	2.62	1.03	-.17	.15	-.78	.30
DEP	260	.72	3.06	1.22	-.09	.15	-1.06	.30

To assess if OC type moderated the relationship between the predictor variable of

SA and the criterion variables, OS, EE, and DEP, the following variables were created.

For the SA predictor variable, I combined the seven items of the surface acting scale into

one variable. For the criterion variables of PD, I combined the four items of the

occupational stress index for the OS variable, three items from the depersonalization

subscale of the burnout inventory for the DEP variable, and three items from the

emotional exhaustion subscale of the burnout inventory to create the EE variable. For the

OC type variables, I used the four OC type scales, each with six items, from the

organizational culture assessment instrument. Each scale combined their specific six items to create the clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy moderating variables. To create the interaction variables, the SA variable was multiplied by each moderating OC type variable, which created four individual interaction variables used for the analysis.

Assumptions

When running a multiple linear regression for moderation, there are some assumptions one needs to assess prior to the moderation analysis, such as linearity, or whether the relationship between predictor variables and criterion variables is linear (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2013). Field (2016) noted if one uses a nonlinear relationship between the predictor variable and the criterion variable in a model of regression, this limits the generalizability of the finding. The assumptions for linearity between SA and OS, SA and EE, and SA and DEP were checked and the scatterplots are depicted below (Figures 3, 4 and 5, respectively). The line of best fit indicated a linear relationship between the variables.
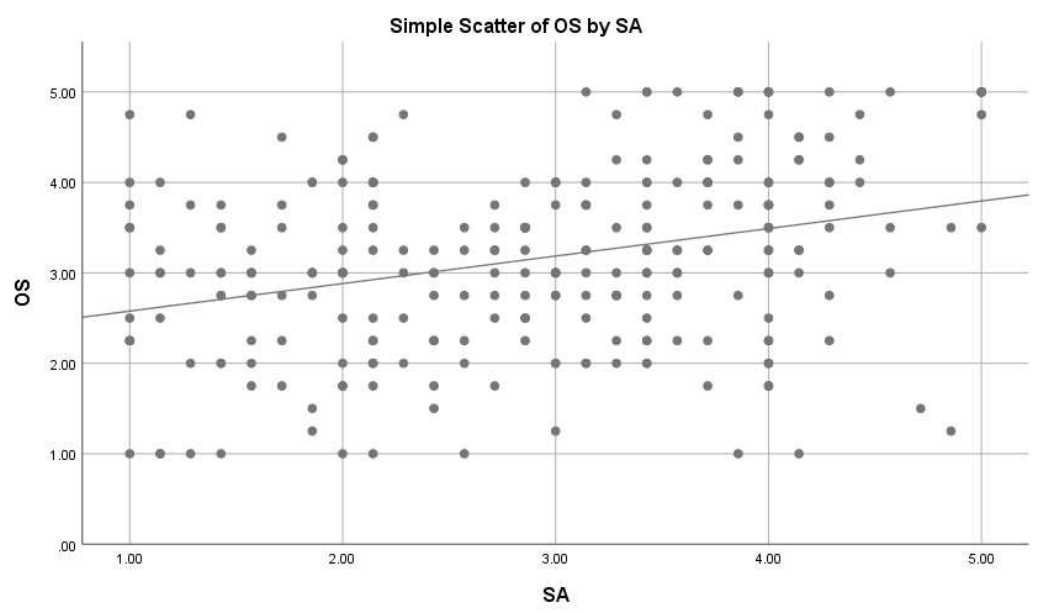
Figure 3. Scatter plot expressing a linear relationship between the predictor variable of surface acting (SA) and the criterion variable occupational distress (OS).
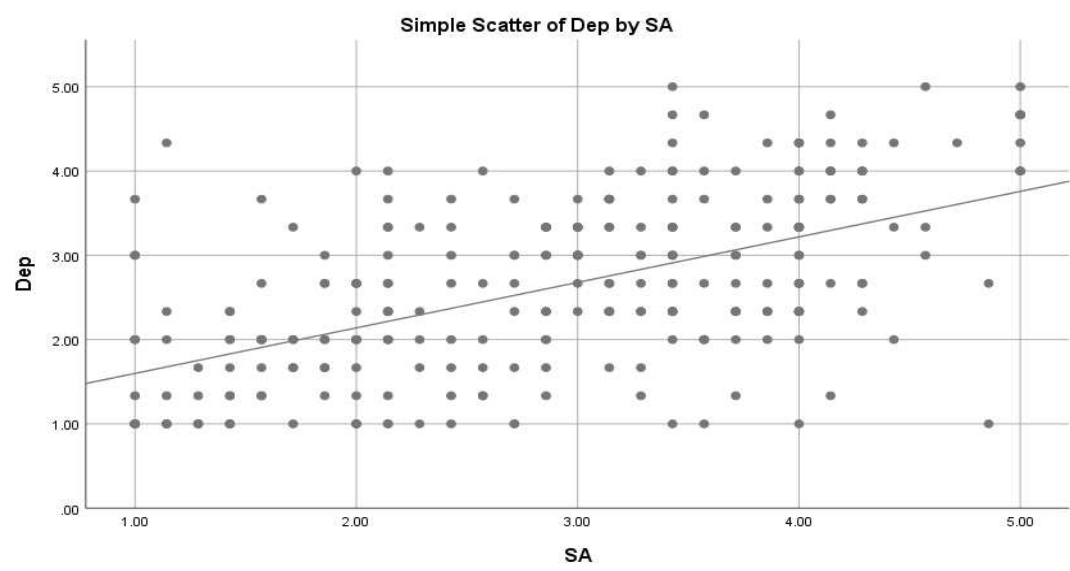
Figure 4. Scatter plot expressing a linear relationship between the predictor variable of surface acting (SA) and the criterion variable depersonalization (Dep).
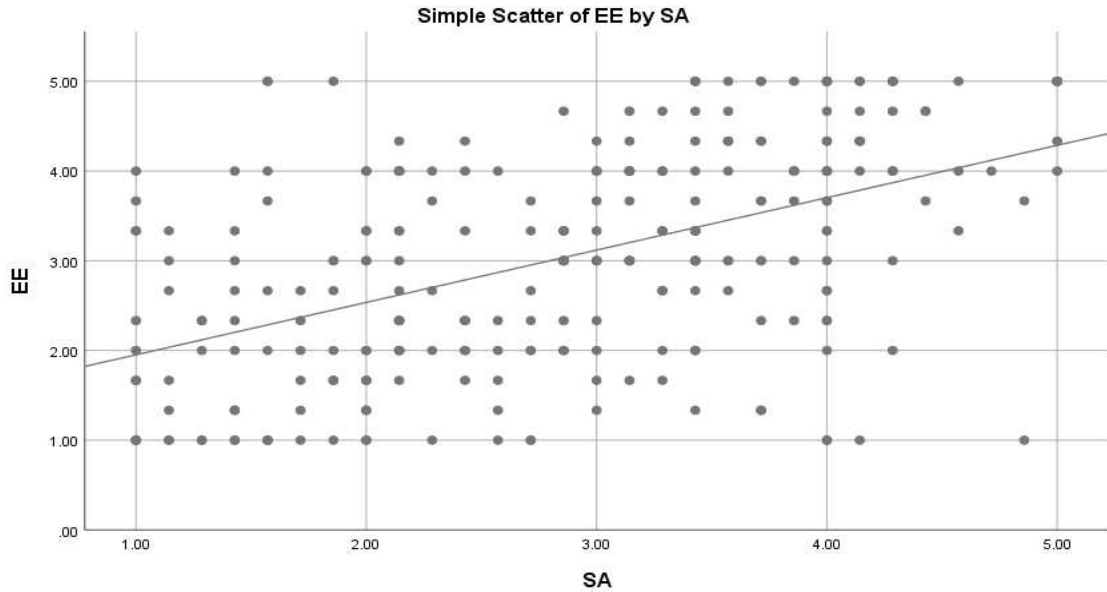
Figure 5. Scatter plot expressing a linear relationship between the predictor variable of surface acting (SA) and the criterion variable emotional exhaustion (EE).

The next assumption to conduct in regression analyses concerned the normal distribution of the error terms of the criterion variables. Normality can be checked by plotting the residuals against the cumulative probability of a particular distribution (Field, 2016) and one can use P-P plots to assess normality. The P-P plots for the criterion variables are below (Figures 6-8).

Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

Dependent Variable: OS
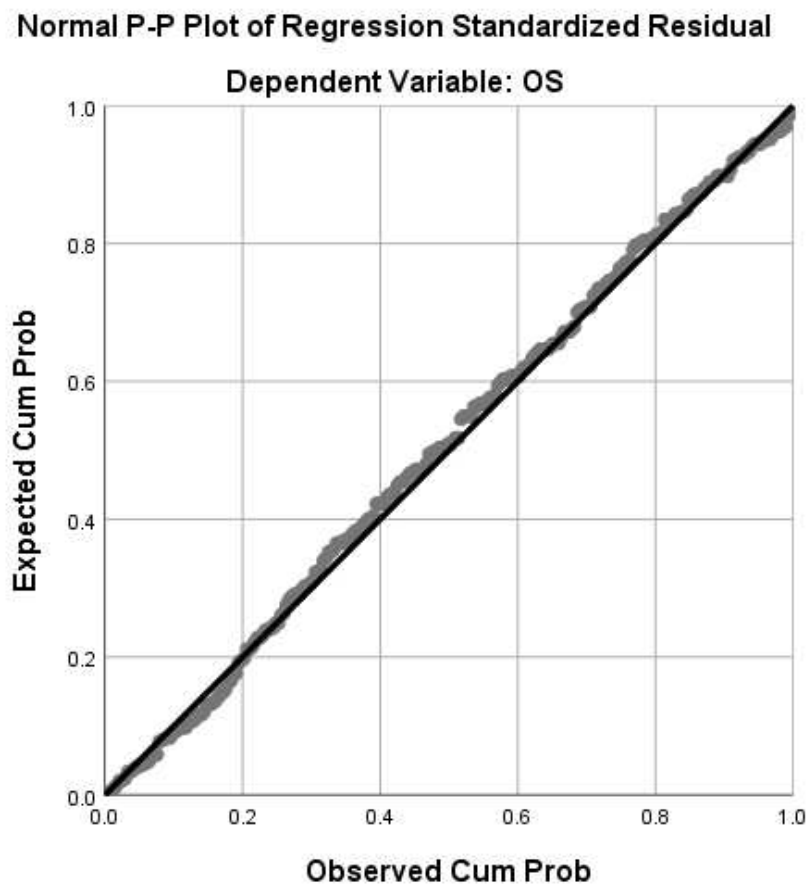
Figure 6. The above P-P plot expresses and confirms meeting the normality assumption concerning standardized residuals for the criterion variable occupational stress (OC).

Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

Dependent Variable: Dep
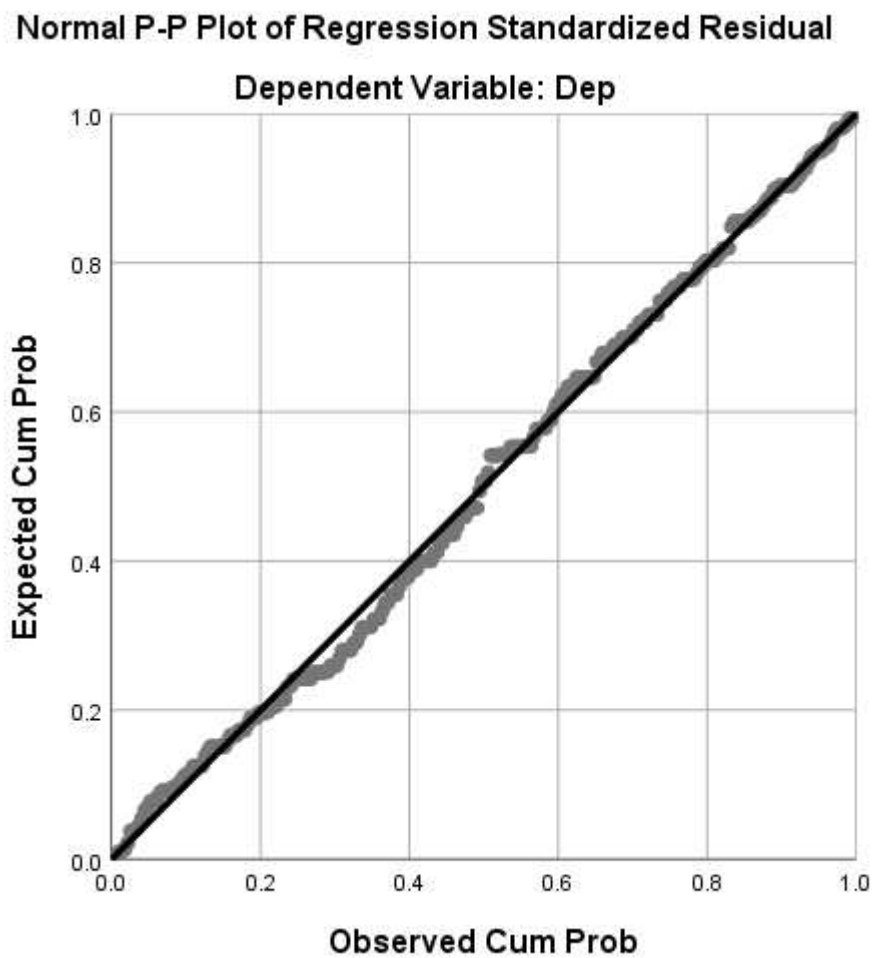
Figure 7. The above P-P plot confirms meeting the normality assumption concerning regression standardized residual for the criterion variable depersonalization (OC).

Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

Dependent Variable: EE
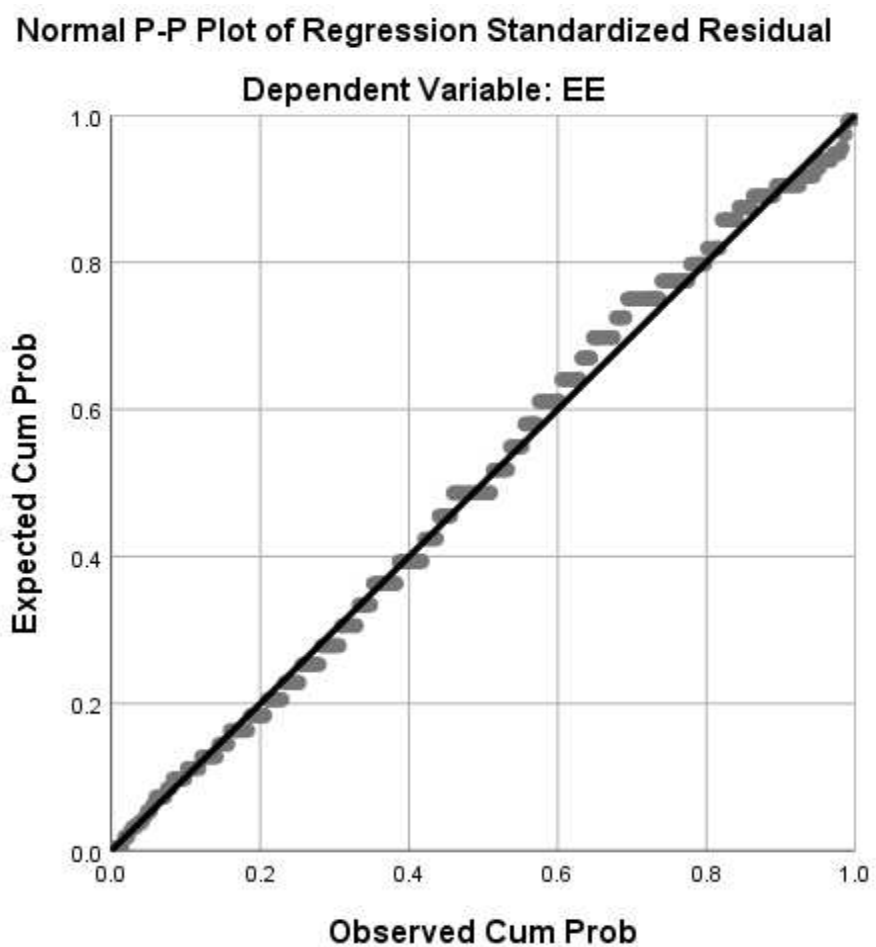
Figure 8. The above P-P plot confirms the normality assumption was met concerning regression standardized residual for the criterion variable emotional exhaustion (EE). The P-P plot results indicate that normality was achieved.

A third assumption is there was no multicollinearity between the variables or the predictor variables and moderating variables are not significantly correlated (Field, 2013). To reduce multicollinearity, variables were centered prior to analysis. After centering and assessing the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF), data reveled the VIF of the predictor variable of SA as 1.000. These data suggested there was no multicollinearity between the variables (Park, Moon, Min, Hwang, & Kim, 2018). Homoscedasticity or if the residuals in relation to predicted values are distributed equally (Field, 2013); the use of scatterplots helped assess the homoscedasticity assumption (Figures 9-11) and are presented below.
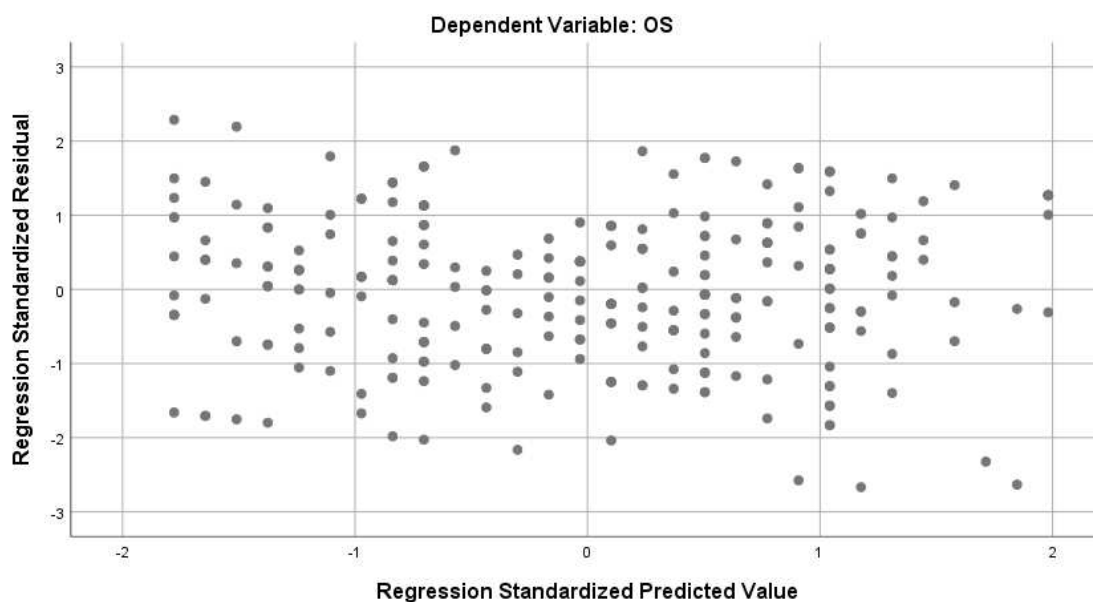
Figure 9. Scatterplot showing the standardized residuals and predicted value for occupational stress (OC), which confirms homoscedasticity.
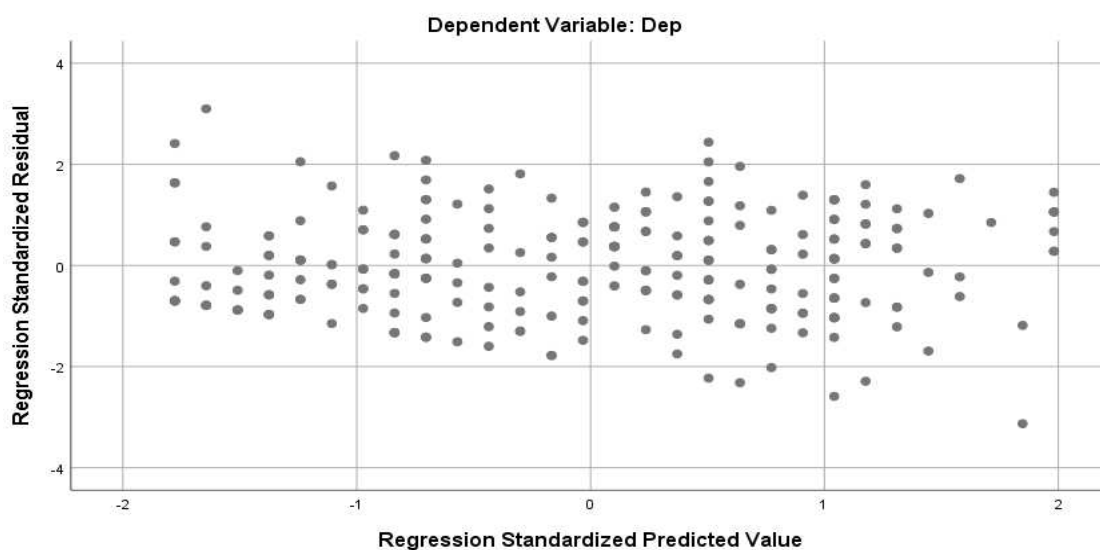
Figure 10. Scatterplot showing the standardized residuals and predicted value for depersonalization, which confirms homoscedasticity.
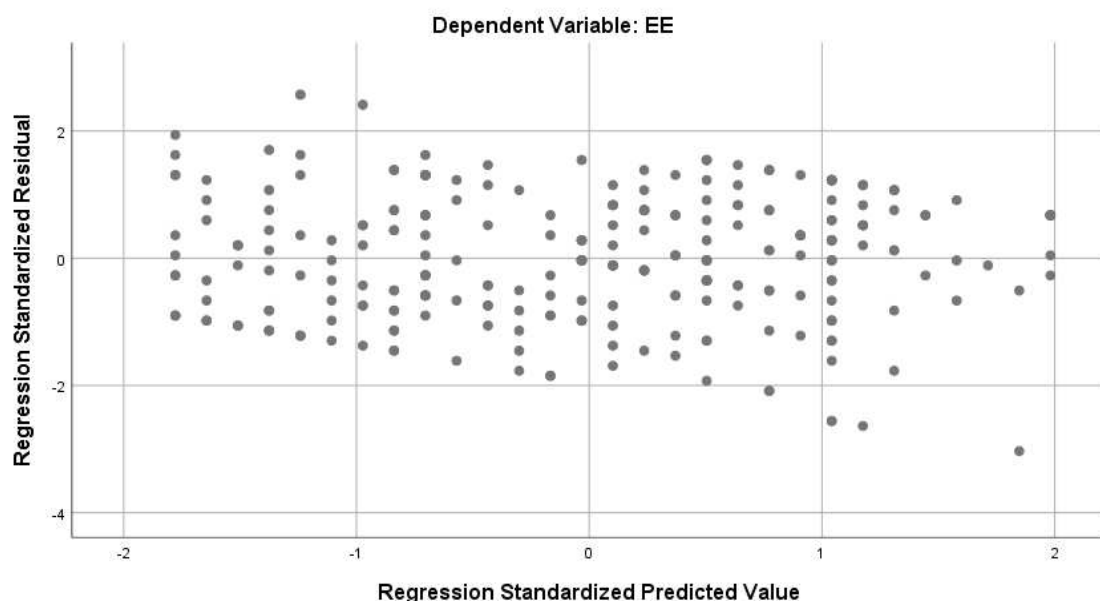
Figure 11. Scatterplot showing the standardized residuals and predicted value for emotional exhaustion, which confirms homoscedasticity.

Results

The research questions in the current study hypothesized organizational culture

(OC) type (clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy) would moderate the relationship

between surface acting (predictor variable) and psychological distress or criterion

variables, measured as occupational stress (OS), emotional exhaustion (EE), and

depersonalization (DEP). Scale reliability analysis was conducted prior to the main

moderation analysis. These results revealed scale reliability for the organizational culture

assessment instrument scales at $\alpha = .87$ for clan, $\alpha = .86$ for adhocracy, $\alpha = .81$ for

market, and $\alpha = .77$ for hierarchy. In the other scales, reliability was $\alpha = .92$ for the

surface acting scale, $\alpha = .78$ for the occupation stress index, $\alpha = .89$ for the emotional

exhaustion subscale, and $\alpha = .72$ for the depersonalization subscale. The use of multiple

regression analysis and inferential statistics, assisted in determining the outcome of the

research questions and hypotheses. Tables 2, 4, 6, and 8 provide the intercorrelations

between variables for each respective OC type. Tables 3, 5, 7, and 9 provide the

inferential statistics following each research question's individual analysis.

Clan OC Type

Assessing if the Clan OC type moderated the effect of SA on OS, EE, or DEP, the

data showed OS significantly related to SA and clan, as well as clan and SA were

significantly related (see Table 2). Analyses of whether clan moderated the relationship

between SA and EE found EE significantly related to SA and clan, and clan and SA

significantly related (see Table 2).

Table 2

Summary of intercorrelations among variables for the clan organizational culture type.

Variable	1	2	3	4	5
1. Clan	—				
2. SA	-.28**	—			
3. OS	-.30**	.32**	—		
4. EE	-.33**	.51**	.64**	—	
5. DEP	-.38**	.56**	.43**	.63**	—

Note. ($N = 260$). The intercorrelations for the clan organizational culture type with surface acting (SA), occupational stress (OS), and depersonalization (DEP) are presented diagonally above.
**$p < .01$.

When adding the moderating variable to the analysis, the combined effects of SA and

clan OC type and their interaction accounted for 21% of the variance in OS (see Table 3).

Table 3

Regression results for clan organizational culture type moderating the relationship between surface acting and occupational stress, emotional exhaustion, and depersonalization.

Variables	B	SE	β	t	p	F	r^2	VIF
OS								
SA	.27	.06	.28	4.81	.00***			1.10
Clan	.38	.17	.35	2.16	.03*			8.44
SA x Clan	-.21	.05	-.61	-3.81	.00***	20.99***	.21	8.21
EE								
SA	.53	.06	.46	8.41	.00***			1.10
Clan	.04	.20	.03	.19	.02*			8.44
SA x Clan	-.10	.06	-.24	-1.63	.43	36.93***	.30	8.21
DEP								
SA	.47	.05	.49	9.32	.00***			1.10
Clan	-.38	.16	-.35	-2.40	.85			8.44
SA x Clan	.04	.05	.11	.80	.11	49.08***	.37	8.21

Note. ($N = 260$). SA = surface acting, OS = occupational stress, EE = emotional exhaustion, and DEP = depersonalization.
*p < .05. ***p < .001.

The moderating effect seen by the clan OC type in the interaction between SA and OS was significant (see Table 3). These results suggested the clan OC type moderated the relationship between SA and OS. The clan moderation between SA and OS showed an effect size of $f^2 = 0.25$. According to Cohen (1988), effect sizes for regression are .02 for a small effect, .15 for a medium effect and 0.35 for a large effect. Using Cohen's effect sizes, the $f^2 = .25$ was a medium effect. The combined effects of SA, clan, and their interaction accounted for 30% of the variance in EE (see Table 3). Clan, however, did not significantly moderate the relationship between SA and EE.

In relation to clan having a moderating effect between SA and DEP, DEP was significantly related to SA and clan, and clan and SA were significantly related (see Table 2). The combined effects of SA, clan, and their interaction accounted for 37% of the variance seen in DEP (see Table 3). Considering the results in the clan OC type, research question one has partial support, as clan did show a significant moderation between SA and OS. However, as clan did not show a significant moderation between SA and EE or SA and DEP, research questions two and three fail to reject the null

The results further suggested the clan OC type could play a role on moderating the SA and OS interaction. These results offer organizations who have or create a clan OC type, guidance towards ensuring their employees experience less OS because of this OC type characteristics. The data did suggest a clan OC type might not offer benefits to help to reduce the effects of SA in relation to DEP or EE.

Adhocracy OC Type

Investigating if the adhocracy OC type moderated any relationship between SA

and OS, DEP, or EE. In relation to OS, OS was significantly related to SA and ADH, as

well as ADH was significantly related to SA (see Table 4).

Table 4

Summary of intercorrelations among variables for the adhocracy
organizational culture type.

Variable	1	2	3	4	5
1. Adhocracy	—				
2. SA	-.15**	—			
3. OS	-.16**	.32**	—		
4. EE	-.16**	.51**	.64**	—	
5. DEP	-.14*	.56**	.43**	.63**	—

Note. ($N = 260$). The intercorrelations for the adhocracy organizational culture type with
surface acting (SA), occupational stress (OS), and depersonalization (DEP) are presented
diagonally above.
*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

When adding the ADH moderating variable to the analysis, the combined effects of SA,

ADH, and their interaction accounted for a small amount of variance, 13%, and no

significant moderation found using ADH between SA and OS (see Table 5).

Table 5

Regression results for adhocracy (ADH) organizational culture type moderating the relationship between surface acting and occupational stress, emotional exhaustion, and depersonalization.

Variables	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*t*	*p*	*F*	*r²*	*VIF*
OS								
SA	.29	.06	.31	5.18	.00***			1.02
ADH	.19	.18	.17	1.04	.30			7.95
SA x ADH	-.10	.06	-.31	-1.89	.06	12.79***	.13	7.93
EE								
SA	.57	.06	.49	9.14	.00***			1.02
ADH	.03	.20	.02	.16	.88			7.95
SA x ADH	-.05	.06	-.12	-.79	.43	31.03***	.27	7.93
DEP								
SA	.53	.05	.55	10.52	.00***			1.02
ADH	-.22	.16	-.20	-1.38	.17			7.95
SA x ADH	.06	.05	.16	1.09	.28	39.55***	.32	7.93

Note. ($N = 260$). SA = surface acting, OS = occupational stress, EE = emotional exhaustion, and DEP = depersonalization.
***$p < .001$.

Data concerning ADH moderating the relationship between SA and EE found EE significantly related to SA and ADH, and SA significantly related to ADH (see Table 4). When adding the ADH moderating variable to the analysis, the combined effects of SA, ADH, and their interaction accounted for 27% of the variance in EE (see Table 5). The data did not express any significant moderation of ADH between SA and EE and no moderating effect of ADH in the relationships between SA and OS (see Table 5).

Concerning ADH moderating the relationship between SA and DEP, the analysis revealed DEP was significantly related to SA and ADH, as well as a significant relationship between ADH and SA (see Table 4). When adding the ADH moderating variable to the analysis, the combined effects of SA, ADH, and their interaction

accounted for 32% of the variance in DEP, but did not express any significant moderation

of ADH between SA and DEP (see Table 5). Considering these data, the research

questions, and no significant moderating effect by ADH between SA and OS, SA and EE,

or SA and DEP, ADH supports not rejecting the null hypothesis in research questions two

and three.

Market OC Type

The third OC assessed for a moderating effect was the MAR OC type. Here, I

looked to see if MAR had any moderating effect on surface acting's relationship with the

three criterion variables of OS, DEP, and EE. The data showed SA was significantly

related to OS; however, MAR was not significantly related to OS or SA (see Table 6).

The combined effects of SA and MAR and their interaction accounted for 11%

Table 6

Summary of intercorrelations among variables for the market organizational culture type.

Variable	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*
1. Market	—				
2. SA	-.00	—			
3. OS	-.08	.32**	—		
4. EE	-.04	.51**	.64**	—	
5. DEP	-.01	.56**	.43**	.63**	—

Note. ($N = 260$). The intercorrelations for the market organizational culture type (MAR) with surface acting (SA), occupational stress (OS), and depersonalization (DEP) are presented diagonally above.
**$p < .01$.

of the variance in OS, and there was no significant moderation of MAR between SA and

OS (see Table 7).

Table 7

Regression results for market (MAR) organizational culture type moderating the relationship between surface acting and occupational stress, emotional exhaustion, and depersonalization.

Variables	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*t*	*p*	*F*	*r²*	*VIF*
OS								
SA	.31	.56	.33	5.49	.00***			1.01
MAR	-.02	.21	-.19	-.10	.92			9.01
SA x MAR	-.03	.07	-.07	-3.81	.70	10.72***	.11	9.02
EE								
SA	.59	.06	.51	9.48	.00***			1.10
MAR	.12	.24	.08	.49	.63			8.44
SA x MAR	-.06	.07	-.13	-.79	.43	30.14***	.26	8.21
DEP								
SA	.54	.05	.56	10.68	.00***			1.10
MAR	-.04	.19	-.03	-.20	.84			8.44
SA x MAR	.01	.06	.02	.133	.89	38.50***	.31	8.21

Note. (*N* = 260). SA = surface acting, OS = occupational stress, EE = emotional exhaustion, and DEP = depersonalization.
***$p < .001$.

In the regression model, after adding the combined effects of SA and MAR and their interaction, the results accounted for 26% of the variance in EE, with no significant moderation of MAR between SA and EE (see Table 7). Analyses of the MAR on the SA and DEP relationship indicated that SA was significantly related to DEP and MAR, but MAR was not significantly related to DEP or SA (see Table 6). The combined effects of SA and MAR and their interaction accounted for 31% of the variance in DEP, with no significant moderation of MAR between SA and DEP (see Table 7). In analysis of the results in relation to the research questions, as MAR did not express any moderation between the SA and OS, SA and EE, or SA and DEP, data supports no rejection of the null hypotheses for research questions, one, two, and three.

Hierarchy OC Type

The last OC type investigated for a moderating effect was the HIE OC type, which the study assessed if it had any moderating effect on the SA and OS, DEP, EE relationships. The inter-correlation data reveled the HIE OC type negatively related to each of the other variables. Additionally, SA was significantly related OS and HIE, as well as OS was significantly related to HIE (see table 8).

Table 8

Summary of intercorrelations among variables for the hierarchy organizational culture type.

Variable	1	2	3	4	5
1. Hierarchy	—				
2. SA	-.16**	—			
3. OS	-.19**	.32**	—		
4. EE	-.20**	.51**	.64**	—	
5. DEP	-.20**	.56**	.43**	.63**	—

Note. ($N = 260$). The intercorrelations for the hierarchy organizational culture type with surface acting (SA), occupational stress (OS), and depersonalization (DEP) are presented diagonally above.
**$p < .01$.

After adding the moderating variable, the combined effects of SA, HIE, and their interaction accounted for 14% of the variance in OS (see Table 9). The data further revealed a significant moderation of the HIE OC type, after combining with the SA variable, between the SA and OS interaction (see Table 9).

Table 9

Regression results for hierarchy (HIE) organizational culture type moderating the relationship between surface acting and occupational stress, emotional exhaustion, and depersonalization.

Variables	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*t*	*p*	*F*	r^2	*VIF*
OS								
SA	.30	.06	.32	5.35	.00***			1.04
HIE	.24	.22	.18	1.08	.03			8.49
SA x HIE	-.14	.07	-.34	-2.04	.00*	13.60***	.14	8.36
EE								
SA	.58	.06	.50	9.23	.00***			1.04
HIE	.18	.24	.11	.74	.46			8.49
SA x HIE	-.13	.08	-.25	-1.63	.10	33.15***	.28	8.36
DEP								
SA	.53	.05	.55	10.42	.00***			1.10
HIE	.03	.20	.02	.16	.87			8.49
SA x HIE	-.07	.06	-.15	-1.02	.31	41.54***	.33	8.36

Note. (*N*= 260). SA = surface acting, OS = occupational stress, EE = emotional exhaustion, and DEP = depersonalization.
*$p < .05$. ***$p < .001$.

However, the effect size was only slightly over the small effect level noted by Cohen (1988) at $f^2 = .15$. Nonetheless, the small effect size may mean there was something subtle happening, perhaps even a confounding variable, which was causing this effect, such as a generational difference discussed later in Chapter 5.

The data looking at a possible moderation of HIE between the SA and EE relationship found, SA was significantly related to EE and HIE, as well as HIE was significantly related to EE (see Table 8). After adding the moderating variable of HIE, the combined effects of SA, HIE, and their interaction accounted for 28% of the variance in EE, but was not a significant moderation of HIE between SA and DEP (see Table 9). In considering the below data, there is a significant moderation (*p* = .05) when combining SA and the HIE OC on the relationship between SA and OS.

In the model data concerning HIE moderating the SA and DEP relationship, SA was

significantly related to DEP and HIE, as well as DEP was significantly related to HIE

(see Table 8). When adding the HIE moderating variable to the analysis, the combined

effects of SA and HIE and their interaction accounted for 33% of the variance in DEP,

but there was not a significant moderation of HIE between SA and DEP (see Table 9). In

the results and considering this OC type with the research questions, as there was a

significant finding of HIE moderating the SA and OS relationship, the null hypotheses for

research question one is partially rejected. However, as there was no significant

moderation finding for HIE moderating the SA and EE or SA and DEP relationships, the

null hypotheses for research questions two and three are not rejected for this OC type.

Research question findings

Research question one looked to see if any of the four OC types, clan, ADH,

MAR, or HIE moderated the SA and OS relationship. The results reveled the clan and

HIE OC types did significantly moderate the SA and OS relationship. However, ADH

and MAR did not significantly moderate the SA and OS relationship. Based on these

results, research question one find partial support and the null hypothesis in not rejected.

Research question two investigated if the SA and EE relationship and possible

moderation of any of the four OC types, clan, ADH, MAR, or HIE. The results

expressed no significant moderating effect by any of the four OC types against the SA

and EE relationship. For research question two, there is not a rejection of the null

hypothesis. These results were unexpected across all the OC types, as the clan and ADH

OC types have shown to be people centered. Therefore, perhaps in these two OC types

(clan and ADH) it takes more than people centricity to move the needle to mitigate the EE concern.

Research question three looked to see if any of the OC types, clan, ADH, MAR, or HIE, could moderate the relationship between SA and DEP. The results showed no significant moderating effect of any of the OD types between the SA and DEP relationship. Because of these results across each of the OC type, there is not a rejection of this research question's null hypothesis.

Summary

The current study tested if there was a moderating effect of OC type, clan, ADH, MAR, or HIE on the relationships between SA and OC, DEP, and EE. The chapter included information about the participant characteristics, descriptive statistics on the variables, addressed the assumptions for regression, and presented the analysis. Results indicated research question one was partially supported. The data did show a significant moderating effect with the clan and HIE culture types moderating the effect between SA and OS relationship.

For research question two, there was no significant moderating effect of clan, ADH, MAR, or HIE on the relationship between SA and EE. Additionally, results of research question three indicated that there was no significant moderation effect of any of the OC types having a significant moderating effect between the SA and DEP relationship. Therefore, because the results did not show a significant moderating effect between SA and EE or DEP with any of the OC types, the null hypotheses for research questions two and three are not rejected. I interpret this finding in depth later in chapter

5. In the upcoming Chapter 5, I further interpret the results of the study in the context of theoretical and empirical foundations. I discuss the study's limitations, recommendations for future research, and implications, as well as offer the positive social implications of the study.

Chapter 5

Introduction

The current study investigated if organizational culture (OC) type, clan, adhocracy (ADH), market (MAR), or hierarchy (HIE) moderated the relationship between surface acting (SA) and three constructs of psychological distress (PD), occupation stress (OS), emotional exhaustion (EE), and depersonalization (DEP).. Research on SA, OS, DEP, and EE are documented in current literature, which included an investigation of their impacts on employees and ways to mitigate their influence (Lee & Madera; 2019; Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Oerlemans, & Koszucka, 2018). Concurrently, employee-to-employee SA through interactions was a relatively new vein of research in the area of emotional labor. Ozcelik's (2013) findings indicated SA existed in employee-to-employee interactions and recommended further research to understand SAs influence on employee behaviors. Recent research also revealed OC exerts influence on important organizational areas, such as employee turnover (Cronley & Kim, 2017), organizational performance (Martinez et al., 2015), and employee psychological distress (PD) (Dextras-Gauthier & Marchand, 2016).

Historically, SA research looked predominantly at the results of SA on the employee in employee-to-customer interactions (Hu, & Shi, 2015; Nixon, Bruk-Lee, & Spector, 2017). The current study identified SA's impact on the employee, in employee-to-employee interactions and if OC type moderated the relationship between SA and OS, EE, DEP; a gap in the literature that I looked to address.

Results indicated a significant moderation effect by the clan and HIE culture types between SA and OS. However, there were no significant moderation effects of clan on the SA and EE or SA and DEP relationships. There was no significant moderating effect of clan, ADH, MAR, or HIE on the SA and EE or SA and DEP relationships. However, even though there was no moderation between many of the variables, there was significance found in the intercorrelations of each OC type between SA, OS, EE, and DEP. These findings suggested the same issues with SA in the employee-to-customer interaction are also experienced in the employee-to-employee interaction, which I will explore later in this chapter.

Theories used to develop the research questions, help understand the results, and explain the findings were emotional labor theory (ELT) and organizational culture theory (OCT). Emotional labor theory identifies two main constructs in how people deal with emotions in interactions: deep acting and SA. Deep acting is the ability to internalize emotions, empathize with the other person, and use emotional regulation to maintain expected display rules of the specific situation (Grandey, 2003). The current study focused on surface acting, the second construct of ELT. This is where the person internalizes emotions to express the proper display, but does not like doing so, creating emotional dissonance, and inner psychological turmoil (Grandey, 2003). OCT centers on the assimilation of employees to an organization (Schein, 1995). Additionally, what the older employees teach to the new employees, such as how the work was done, the acceptable behaviors, and how the employees relate to each other in the organization (Williams, et al., 2017).

Furthermore, as noted by Ozcelik (2013), there was a lack of research looking at the influence of SA in employee-to-employee interactions, which the current study investigated and revealed significant results of relationships between SA and OS, DEP, and EE in each of the four OC types. Based on these results, research questions one and four found partial support, and the results for research questions two and three did not allow for the rejection of the null hypothesis. In the following sections, I further interpret my findings, offer the study's limitations, recommendations for future research, and discuss the study's results as they apply to social change.

Interpretation of Findings

In the assessment of each regression model, I found SA was significantly related to each of the three criterion variables of OS, DEP, and EE. These results expanded the current understanding of the relationship SA can have with OS, DEP, and EE in employee-to-employee interactions. These findings supported current research by Lee and Madera (2019), which found that the SA strategy of suppressing negative emotions between co-workers leads to stress. Yagil and Medler-Liraz (2017) found relationships between SA and EE. In their research using two studies, they found SA was related to EE. However, unlike the current study, which focused on employee-to-employee interactions, they focused on employee-to-customer interactions, which is the most common research in emotional labor research.

In the correlation analysis of the study's variables, the data revealed clan, ADH, and HIE each showed a negative significant relationship to SA, OS, EE, and DEP. However, SA, OS, EE, and DEP, although also negatively related to the MAR OC type,

the relationship was not significant. According to Field (2013), the strength of a

relationship runs from -1 to +1, and with a negative correlation, as one variable

strengthens, one variable will weaken. Cohen (1988) further noted, strength effects of

correlations are $r = .10$ for a small effect, $r = .30$ for a medium effect, and $r = .50$ and

above expresses a large effect. In the conducted study, none of the negative correlations,

except in the Clan OC type, reached the medium effect. One reason the Clan type may

have reached the medium and significant effect may be that the traits of this OC type,

such as communication, mentorship, employees coming first (Cameron and Quinn,

2009), may reduce the OS, EE, and DEP experienced by employees.

Emotional labor theory helped understand the SA and OS, DEP, and EE

relationships. The ELT states when employees use SA strategies to work through

interactions, if this happens over a prolonged period, the employee will experience

dissonance, DEP, stress, and EE (Hochschild, 1979, 1983, 2012; Zito et al., 2018). The

current study's findings showed the same relationships with SA, as had previously been

found in the commonly researched dyad of the employee/customer interaction. These

results may suggest it was not a delineation of either the employee-to-customer or

employee-to-employee interaction, but possibly more about the type of interaction

between individuals.

The current understanding of SA centers on how employees adhere to

organizational display rules, which the organization defines, but may not be the only

display rules of an organization. Employee-to-employee SA may be a result of unspoken

display rules within the employee population or a separate employee culture. An

example would be employee-to-supervisor or new employee-to-more senior employee, where the expectation of behavior in the interaction was defined more by personality, perception of importance, and longevity than by the organizational display rules. As such, an employee could experience SA from two directions, one from the known display rules expected by the organization and the other from the expected behaviors or display rules of the employee culture. Therefore, possibly causing employee SA concerns from wanting to perform the known organizational display rules and wanting to find acceptance within the employee culture.

Organization culture's role was not as pronounced as I expected. The current study found two out of the four OC types significantly moderated the influence of SA on any of the PD constructs, which was the OS variable. OCT suggests employees are taught the expected behaviors of the organization (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). If one assumes the OC of the organization has vast influence on how employees behave, then it might be expected the current study's results to show certain OC types would have had greater influence in mitigating the SA effects related to the OS, DEP, and EE relationships because of the nature of the OC type's characteristics.

The current study's results are different than the research by Martinez, et al. (2015) and Kim, et al. (2015), who suggested employee behaviors are defined by the OC in which the employee works. In the two studies and the current study population, each population came from various organizations. However, additional demographics were not available in the Martinez, et al (2015) and Kim, et al. (2015) studies. Whereas in the current study, females and males were almost equally represented at male ($n = 123$),

female ($n = 131$), other ($n = 2$), and prefer not to respond ($n = 4$). The age demographics

were 18-25 years ($n = 51$), 26-35 years ($n = 55$), 36-45 years ($n = 52$), 46-55 years ($n =$

47), and $n = 55$ in the 56 and over group. The authors' referred to behaviors expected by

the organization through display rules or possibly the actual behaviors exhibited by the

employees when in interactions with other employees. Nonetheless, these studies varied

from the current study in various ways. The Martinez, et al. (2015) study looked

specifically within the healthcare industry, whereas the current study had respondents

from various organizations. The Kim, et al. (2015) study investigated the effects of OC

in mental health and suggested understanding OC was a key to understanding employee

behaviors. However, simply because the organization OC calls for certain behaviors, this

does not mean there cannot be an underlying culture of unspoken display rules among the

workers. This possible subculture would help define employee behavior, which the

results in the current study suggest. However, the organization culture would assert how

employees should treat each other. Nevertheless, as new employees assimilate to the

organization, it would be the older employees who teach the newer employees

expectations, socialization, and norms within the organization (Gailliard & Davis, 2017;

Hess, 1993). Therefore, the results of the current study seem to suggest it was possible to

have an espoused OC visible to the external environment, but have a more subtle

employee culture that defines how the employees get along and work together.

Clan OC Type

Concerning if the clan OC type moderated any relationship between SA and OS,

EE, or DEP, the data revealed this OC type moderated the relationship between SA and

OS, but not EE or DEP. With the characteristics of the clan OC type expressing collaboration, communication, mentorship, and the employee coming first (Cameron & Quinn, 2011), it was reasonable to assume these OC traits would have helped in moderating the effects of SA on DEP, as well as EE. The findings of Frideman et al. (1958) and more currently Loerbroks et al., (2015), could explain the moderation effect of the clan OC type between SA and OS. These researchers suggested OS was caused by emotions, job types, as well as has environmental influences, which the positive characteristics of the clan culture appear to provide to help mitigate SA concerns. The current study supported the findings of Lee and Jang (2019) who indicated a supportive culture helps to mitigate job stress, as well as turnover intentions.

The results did not indicate a moderating effect of OC type on the relationship between SA and EE or DEP. These findings are in agreement with past research. For example, using a sample of 301 mental health providers, Aarons and Sawitzky (2006) looked at not only OC but also organizational climate to reduce the effects of DEP. The authors found that although it was reasonable to assume changing the OC can help mitigate DEP created by a negative work environment, the organization should also consider organizational climate to increase the chance of the mitigation. These results suggested it might take more than a change in OC to diminish the effect of the SA to DEP relationships. Concurrently, this could help explain the results of no modification of clan OC type between SA and DEP. There was also no significant finding of the clan OC moderating the relationship of SA and EE, which aligns with research by Huhtala et al. (2015). To reduce EE, Huhtala et al. (2015) noted that although having a more

communicative and collaborative OC helps with EE, the culture must also be ethical, as it helps reinforce the ethical values of the leaders and the organization. Therefore, although the clan culture does appear to have positive characteristics, it apparently takes more than these characteristics to influence the relationship between SA and DEP and EE.

Adhocracy OC Type

I also investigated the possibility of the ADH OC type moderating the relationship between SA and OS, DEP, or EE. The results from the study did not find any significant moderating results of the ADH OC type moderating any of the SA and OS, EE, or DEP relationships. These results help determine to not reject the null hypotheses of the three research questions. The ADH OC type has characteristics, such as increased autonomy, creativity, and tend to be more person-centered, which Tong and Arvey (2015) suggested may reduce SA. However, the data revealed that even with these positive characteristics from this OC type for employees, SA exists, with SA significantly related to each of the three criterion variables in the current study that cause PD.

Littman-Ovadia et al. (2013) suggested in the ADH OC type, even though there is greater communication and autonomy, this also creates greater disengagement with the employees. With the current study's focus on SA in employee-to-employee interactions, one might suggest if employees are not around one another as often, there might be less SA. However, to work productively, employees, especially on teams, need to communicate effectively (Butchibabu, Sparano-Huiban, Sonenberg, & Shah, 2016). One explanation for seeing SA in the ADH culture came from teams or other types of employees spending a lot of time away from the office. If the member who is away has

trouble communicating with those on the team or back in the office, it was reasonable to assume this could lead to OS. Researchers Kalleberg, Nesheim, and Olsen (2009) noted employees in teams experience stress, because there are many challenges related to communication in resolving conflicts within the team.

Organizations that want to be innovative and creative to stay on the cutting edge, a staple of the ADH OC type, may have issues with employee-to-employee SA. The results of the current study suggested even though the ADH OC type has shown benefits to employees through allowing greater autonomy and creativity (Cameron & Quinn, 2011), there are still concerns in relation to SA. As the ADH OC type is external facing, these external pressures to stay ahead of the competition can mount and internal employee relationships may become frayed. One could guess this was especially true if the completion of new products was not on time. In this case, one might expect employees to start blaming one another for the lack of work done by other employees, leading to DEP. These suggestions are supported by research (Hon, 2012), who found increased creativity could lead to issues with task relationships, varying ideas of risk, and related DEP.

The SA to EE relationship was another area of concern seen in the research that the ADH OC type did not moderate. For much of the same reason seen in the DEP, the constant pressure to remain creative and stay in front of the competition may expend one's emotional and psychological resources. The constant pressure and activity can cause people to forget about self-care to help mitigate EE, as their focus remains solely on the tasks of the organization. Gorski and Chen (2015) noted this was especially true

in activist organizations where there was a selflessness devotion to the cause of the organization. Therefore, although the ADH OC type does offer employee benefits, the lack of this OC type moderating the SA to PD relationships may have roots in the fact this culture type also has characteristics that may support increases in the SA to OS, EE, and DEP relationships.

Market OC Type

The MAR OC type was assessed to evaluate if it had any moderating effect between the SA and OS, EE, or DEP relationships. The results of not seeing any moderating effect by the MAR OC type were not surprising. The results of the current study ran contrary to the research by Pinho, Rodrigues, and Dibb (2014), who found organizations who express the MAR OC type have more united employees and stimulated teamwork. With these benefits of the MAR OC type noted, an individual might say there should be less SA in this OC type. This supposition would further suggest a moderating effect between SA and OS, EE, or DEP by the MAR OC type, which was not realized in the current study. The Pinho et al. (2014) conclusions came specifically from within the healthcare system in Portugal and only included the Chief Executive Officers (CEO) of organizations. It might be possible the level of the organization that offered the data might have influenced the results of the Pinho et al. (2015) study. A CEO may offer different opinions from what the lower tier employees would on the same surveys. Whereas the current study drew data from a variety of organizations within the United States and did not delineate between levels within the organization.

The MAR OC type emphasizes aggressive competition, hard-driving leaders, profitability, and effectiveness, as well as is another externally facing organization, where the external environment guides organizational decisions (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). The results of the current study followed research that such traits of a culture have the ingredients to create the SA to OS, EE, and DEP relationships. A study conducted by Lee, An, and Noh (2015) using the competitive environment of the airline industry found because flight attendants need to be overly focused on using the organization's display rules during flights to please passengers, they experience increased burnout factors to include depersonalization. It makes sense if employees who work in the service industry now must expend increased emotional resources to do the job, negative outcomes result because these resources are expending quicker. Moreover, as people expend these resources, irritability with other employees can result. Emotional labor theory suggests as people experience burnout symptoms, such as with OS, EE, or DEP, irritability is a common result (Smit, Ryan, & Nelson, 2016). The above literature and theory supported the current study's findings of the MAR OC type not moderating the relationships of SA to OS, DEP, which were not unexpected.

Hierarchy OC Type

The final OC type investigated was the HIE, which looked for any moderating effect on the SA to OS, EE, or DEP relationships. Here was where a surprising result occurred. The results showed partial support for the hypothesis for research question one, which helped to partially reject the null hypothesis. I initially thought there would be no moderating effect seen by this OC type in any of the SA to OS, EE, or DEP

relationships. The internally focused HIE OC type characteristics include a formal

structure, procedures, control, predictability, and stability (Cameron & Quinn, 2011) do

not seem like an OC type that might foster moderating SA experiences among

employees. These types of characteristics often lead to less engaged employees, lower

job satisfaction, and leadership intimidation (Brett, et al., 2016; Reis et al., 2016).

Additionally, one could argue this OC type was the oldest of the four culture

types, where a formal hierarchy type internal structure guides the organization and the

external environment does not play a significant role. These organizations perhaps have

seen the most OC type changes in the 21st century. The older command and control

structures, such as HIE, have seemingly given way to more open system OC types (clan

and adhocracy), where employees are given more freedom, authority, and say in the work

they do and how they perform the work (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

The data for this OC type revealed a statistical significance moderating the

relationship of SA to OS; there was no moderating of the SA to DEP or EE relationships.

One possible explanation for this moderating effect might be found in a specific

generation still working in the workforce, as well as what some people want from work.

Concerning the generation still in the work workforce, while millennials capture much of

today's workforce, there is still a fair amount of older generations working, such as baby

boomers (Anderson, Buchko, & Buchko, 2016). Perhaps this older generation created

this small moderating effect. In the demographics of the current study, $n = 56$

respondents, approximately 21% (age 56 and over) would fall into this older generation.

Occupational stress concerns environmental factors in the workplace an employee has no control over (House et al., 1979). To help understand how this could cause a moderating effect seen in this OC type, one needs to look at the generational differences and their perceptions of work. With the newer generations in the workforce (Gen Xers and Millennials), work-life balance is important, they have no issues with leaving an organization when not happy, have problems with authority, want career development, and achievement is important (Bano, Vyas, & Gupta, 2015; Jones, Murray, & Tapp, 2018). Concurrently, the older generation defines the importance of having a stable job and a having a live to work attitude, facets of the HIE OC type and would be expected and welcome (Lapoint & Liprie-Spence, 2017). If we consider the older generation has this different understanding of work than newer generations, it was reasonable to assume organization environmental factors would not carry as much weight in defining where stress came from for the older generation as opposed to the newer generations. Thus, the moderating and small effect seen in the results may be because the older generation was happy with having a stable job and has an understanding this was what the work life was supposed to be like in the organization (Bennett, Beehr, & Ivanitskaya, 2017; van der Walt, 2016). Whereas, Zabel, Biermeier-Hanson, Baltes, Early, and Shepard (2017) suggested the new generations need more from the job, work environment, and the organization to be happy.

There was no moderating effect by the HIE OC type in the relationship of SA to EE or DEP. In an OC type that has the characteristics of the HIE type, it was reasonable to expect there would not be a moderating effect. When one considers the millennials

make up the largest part of the workforce (Jones et al., 2018), the characteristics of this OC type would be ones that might propagate the SA to EE and DEP relationship instead of mitigating. One could certainly assume this when looking at the generational diversity in today's workforce when it concerns DEP. On the one hand, there are the baby boomers who believe work is a part of life and that stability and organizational loyalty was important (Lapoint & Liprie-Spence, 2017). Then there are the Gen Xers and Millennials who will move from company to company until they find what they like (Bano et al., 2015). With these two varying points of view, it was easy to understand how DEP issues could arise. Therefore, the results of the HIE OC type were interesting, expressing an unexpected moderation of the HIE OC type between the SA and OS relationship. However, the effect size was small and may be explained by the generational difference in the expectations of the workplace. Nonetheless, this significant moderating result caused partial support for research question number one. Additionally, the theories used in this study offered adequate support in helping understand and interpret the results.

Limitations of the Study

There were several limitations to the current study, to include sample, self-report survey, time to complete survey, cross-sectional design, external validity, sampling strategy, surface acting scale. The original sample for the study would have come from a single organization with a population of over 9000 employees. However, I was unable to gain access to this population. The Qualtrics sample ($N = 260$) was the chosen method to collect my data for the current study. Due to the diverse sample, I could not provide

insight to how OC type plays a role with the SA and OS, DEP, and EE relationship within one type of organization, with the assumption the organization possibly houses each of the four OC types. Using these data restricted the analysis to not knowing the ages of the respondents in relation to these organizations where the participants worked. Knowing this data would have allowed a deeper analysis to understand if the various organizations had different OC types and if this might moderate a SA to OS, DEP, and EE relationship.

Although there were limitations of using a purchased panel, literature by Lutz (2016) noted this method is quicker to administer and Revilla et al. (2015) noted has congruent response rates as a regular survey administered online. Strickland and Stoops (2018) suggested collecting data through crowdsourcing adds greater utility to the use of this platform to collect reliable data. Brandon, Long, Loraas, Mueller-Phillips, Vansant (2014) wrote, Qualtrics offers greater flexibility, as well as a project manager to help the researcher oversee the survey administration and data collection to ensure data quality. Nonetheless, repeating this study using employees from various known types of organizations and not a panel may produce more credible and confident results.

Using a self-report survey was another limitation to the study. Self-report surveys are noted to have response concerns, such as response bias. Stratton (2015) noted response bias could enter into the survey responses when respondents have types of motivations to do the survey, which may influence their answers. In the current study, Qualtrics paid respondents for responding, which may have helped circumvent the response bias. In many cases, the panel members do many surveys and may not take the

time to read each question carefully and offer an honest response. The current study stopped data collection once it acquired the desired sample size.

Additionally, time to complete the survey was another part of the response bias, as respondents may be motivated to complete more surveys to make more money. The respondents, however, could only respond once to the survey, which helped prevent multiple responses. Although the researcher can work with the company to select a minimum response time (Lowry, D'Arcy, Hammer, & Moody, 2016), there was no guarantee that the time set allowed for adequate comprehension of the question and a thoughtful response. To help address the chance of respondents speeding through the survey, a minimum time goal to completion was set at 2 minutes and 35 seconds for a complete survey. If a respondent did not take at least 2 minutes and 35 seconds to complete the survey, his or her survey was not in the analysis. The choice to use this baseline as a threshold for completion came from research on response times in online survey panels by Smith, Roster, Golden, and Albaum (2016). These researchers, using the Qualtrics survey platform, specifically looked at response times. The findings revealed an average of 5.97 seconds to complete each Likert scale item across 83 items (Smith et al., 2016). The average response time for each completed survey in the current study was 7 minutes and 20 seconds or 10.7 seconds per item answered. The range was from of 2 minutes 45 seconds minutes to 75 minutes 45 seconds minutes, well above the threshold for completion and the Smith et al. (2016) study. Even though the time to complete the survey was above the time threshold set and the literature presented, a higher threshold may produce more comprehensive and well thought out responses.

Another limitation was the research design. The current study used a cross-sectional design, which limited these results to a set of data taken at one point in time. Because of this data collection method, respondents may respond differently in a couple of months. It was also possible that some of the organizations where the respondents worked are undergoing OC change. Moreover, with a cross-sectional design, a cause and effect relationship may not be possible to identify (Wan, Zhou, Li, Shang, & Yu, 2018). Performing this study with a longitudinal design would allow the collection of data over a longer time. In doing so, researchers could compare the data against any organizational change (i.e., merger, layoff) to see if a change or the culture influenced results. Researchers using a longitudinal design would also have more confidence in making inferences from using a trend analysis from longitudinal data.

External validity was another limitation to the study. External validity concerns if the study results are generalizable across another time, other populations, or situations (Field, 2013). The study used a convenience sample, which is a non-probability sampling strategy. Because of this decision, this limits the results from generalization outside of the study's population (Creswell, 2014). Although using a panel to obtain responses was a randomized selection process, and the participants represent a diverse set of organizations, there was not a way to assess if the responses were representative of the general working population. However, as Qualtrics panel respondents came from diverse organizational settings, the sample was also diverse and less homogeneous than if taken in one organization, which helps enhance external validity (Brandon et al. (2014).

The surface acting scale used to collect the perceptions of people experiencing employee-to-employee surface acting was another limitation. Although the SA scale expressed good reliability in empirical research (Diefendorff, Croyle, & Gosserand, 2005a), this was one of the initial times this scale found use to measure the level of SA in the employee-to-employee interaction. To make the scale work for the current study and measure the level or experienced SA concerning the employee-to-employee interactions, the word "customer" was changed from the original scale to "employee." Results of the reliability analysis after the change still expressed good reliability, $\alpha = .92$; however, this scale used in further research would help mitigate this limitation.

<div align="center">

Recommendations

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For future research, continuing to study the employee-to-employee SA implications is important. A plethora of research exists that goes back over 30 years looking at employee-to-customer interactions, with many results negative to the employee. The current study found the same types of negative SA results found in employee-to-customer interactions exist in the employee-to-employee interactions. With this in mind, organizations may benefit, as well as employees, to understand if the employee-to-employee SA was taking place within their organization. If further research does support the results of the current study, research can develop interventions to help mitigate these issues. Moreover, conducting multiple cross-sectional or longitudinal studies would further offer data on the SA to OS, EE, or DEP relationships.

Another recommendation would be continuing research to understand OC type's part in mitigating or enhancing SA. Although there was speculation that OC carries

significant impacts to employee behavior, the relationships between SA and OS, EE, or DEP were not significantly affected by any of the OC types, except in two models. However, because the sample was small, a larger population inside a specific organization may offer greater insight into possible moderation. With organizations continuing to look at changing their OC types to match changing demands, knowing if it was the OC type or some other phenomena that are causing employees to act in the manner they do in interactions finds importance. Organizations teach their display rules to an employee to make sure employees act a certain way. However, researching if there was another subtle type of employee culture that guides behaviors would tell if it was the OC type guiding behaviors or the unwritten employee display rules.

Burnout was another potential area to create further research. The current study did not use a burnout scale, such as the Maslach Burnout Survey, but the OS, EE, or DEP scales used could be considered congruent to measure the constructs of the burnout. The interest in understanding the causes and mitigation of burnout spans many various types of organizations. Although SA would not be exhaustive of the causes of burnout, it may be possible to show employee-to-employee SA could cause burnout, extending burnout literature. Moreover, if research shows employee-to-employee SA can cause burnout, this may spark various types of training within organizations to help employees in dealing with this aspect of SA to help prevent burnout.

Implications

Conducting research gains greater importance when the results offer possible positive social change. The results of the current study support there was something

happening at the employee level that creates surface acting, resulting in OS, EE, and DEP. The strength of the relationships between SA and OS, EE, or DEP seen in this study appear not to be changed much by OC type. Moreover, it is hard to argue that people do not carry the emotions obtained at work home with them. By doing so, an individual's home life now can become even more stressful. With people needing to work and organizations looking to maintain productivity and profitability, the results of this study suggested if these relationships can find mitigation, employees and organizations stand to gain a positive change.

Organizational culture is an imperative part of an organization. The results of the current study offer another way to look at the effects of OC. Many believe OC influences employee behaviors, and to a degree, this finds support in the literature. However, maybe there is another part to OC researchers are looking past, which may have as much effect on employee behaviors as the organization's culture; a possible employee subculture. Regardless of the interaction between an OC type and a possible employee subculture, the results of this study express a need to reduce SA because of the PD implications. If organizations do so, this carries positive social change implications, to include a better workplace environment and reduction of spillover effect. Research on employee happiness shows employees who have better relationships and camaraderie at work are happier employees. Rego, Souto, and Cunha's (2009) research using 87 organizations found employees who have perceptions of a healthy working environment with the organization and other employees' influences greater job satisfaction. Jenkins and Delbridge (2014) found positive employee interactions lead to increased social identity

within the workplace, increasing a positive sense of wellbeing and the organization caring. The authors further noted this positive influence carries over into better interactions with customers. Additional findings came from Bakker and Oerlemans (2016) who found the social interaction of employees helps determine engagement, can minimize burnout, as well as satisfies their personal psychological needs at the workplace. Therefore, if the results of the current study find support through additional research, organizations can use these results to understand what SA influences and develop methods to mitigate these effects in their organization.

The social implications of the current study further transfer into the home life of the employee through the mitigation of spillover of work related issues. With spillover theory suggesting the employee will bring home problems from the workplace and create issues at home (Sanz-Vergel et al., 2012), it was reasonable to assume, a healthier work environment has the potential to alleviate concerns related to this theory. Ali, Ali, Leal-Rodríguez, and Albort-Morant (2018) suggested decreasing the effects of SA had positive influence on daily employee interactions, decreasing harm to other employees, and increasing personal and social interactions at home. This supported current research by Wang, Jex, Peng, Liu, and Wang (2019) who found positive interactions at work, especially with supervisors, decreases employee SA, increases social acceptance, and decreases ego depletion. The decreased SA, increased social acceptance, and less ego depletion caused by positive interactions spills over into the home, increasing marital wellbeing.

Therefore, the implications of positive social change noted above in reducing SA, support how the results of the current study can guide researchers and organizations to develop interventions that mitigate the SA to OS, EE, or DEP relationships. In doing so, not only will the organization benefit from creating a culture to guide the needs of the organization, but also to help employees work better together by addressing the employee culture and decreasing SA. Creating happier employees can create a more positive work environment as well as home life.

Conclusion

The current research may be just the beginning of additional research that will explore the employee subculture I suggested was embedded with the OC. The results of this study add to the growing amount of literature suggesting SA was not just seen in the employee-to-customer interactions; it was also seen in the interactions of among employees. Although the study did not find much support for an OC type to moderate the SA concerns, there is an opportunity, because of the study's limitations, to restructure the population, methodology, and design to create a more granular level look at the significant interactions and moderations found. Work is a part of everyday life for many people. However, not feeling comfortable in working with those who people work with is something nobody enjoys. The results of this study may offer an avenue of research to explore creating a better workplace and positive employee interactions. Further research, however, is necessary to create a better understanding of the relationships and further crystalize these possibilities.

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Appendix A: Permission to use the Organization Culture Assessment Instrument

Dear Jim,

Thank you for your inquiry regarding the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI). Kim Cameron copyrighted the OCAI in the 1980s, but because it is published in the Diagnosing and Changing Organizational Culture book, it is also copyrighted by Jossey Bass.

The instrument may be used free of charge for research or student purposes, but a licensing fee is charged when the instrument is used by a company or by consulting firms to generate revenues. As a graduate student, you may use it free of charge. Please be sure all surveys include the appropriate copyright information (© Kim Cameron). Professor Cameron would appreciate it if you would share your results with him when you finish your study.

We do have a local company (BDS, Behavioral Data Services, 734-663-2990, Sherry.Slade@b-d-s.com) which can distribute the instrument on-line, tabulate scores, and produce feedback reports for a fee. These reports include comparison data from approximately 10,000 organizations--representing many industries and sectors, five continents, and approximately 100,000 individuals.

I hope this explanation is helpful.

Best regards,

Meredith Smith
Assistant to Kim Cameron

Appendix B: Permission to use the Surface Acting Scale

PsycTESTS™ is a database of the American Psychological Association

NOTE: Responses to each statement are measured on a 5-point scale with scale anchors labeled: (1) Strongly Disagree: (2) Somewhat Disagree: (3) Neither Agree nor Disagree): (4) Somewhat Agree: (5) Strongly Agree.

Source:
Diefendorff, James M., Croyle, Meredith H., & Gosserand, Robin H. (2005). The dimensionality and antecedents of emotional labor strategies. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 66*(2), 339-359. doi: 10.1016/j.jvb.2004.02.001, © 2005 by Elsevier. Reproduced by Permission of Elsevier.

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Appendix C: Permission to use the Occupational Stress Index

PsycTESTS™ is a database of the American Psychological Association

NOTE: Responses to each statement are measured on a 5-point scale with scale anchors labeled: (1) Strongly Disagree: (2) Somewhat Disagree: (3) Neither Agree nor Disagree): (4) Somewhat Agree: (5) Strongly Agree.

Source:
Motowidlo, Stephan J., Packard, John S., & Manning, Michael R. (1986). Occupational stress: Its causes and consequences for job performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 71*(4), 618-629. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.71.4.618

Stephan Motowidlo <motowidlo@rice.edu>   James A. Judd   9:02 AM
Re: Request for permission to use Occupational Stress Scale **External**

You have my permission.

Stephan J. Motowidlo

On 10/19/2018 3:06 PM, James A. Judd wrote:

Good afternoon Dr. Motowidlo,

I am currently a PhD candidate studying Industrial and Organizational Psychology at Walden University. I am writing my proposal for my dissertation and would like to respectfully request your permission to use the four item subjective stress scale from your 1986 article, "Occupational Stress: Its Causes and Consequences for Job Performance" in my dissertation survey. My dissertation topic is, "Organizational Culture's Moderating Relationship on Surface Acting and Psychological Distress" and my Chairwoman and I believe your subjective stress scale is most appropriate for my study. Please let me know if you would be willing to grant my request. Have a wonderful weekend.

Respectfully,
Jim

Subject: Fwd: Important: New General Inquiry for Michael Manning, PhD

Hi James,

Glad the stress scale can be useful to your research. You have permission to use it as long as you clearly cite its origin. Good luck with your research.

Mike Manning

Good afternoon Professor Manning,

I am currently a PhD candidate studying Industrial and Organizational Psychology at Walden University. I am writing my dissertation proposal and would like to respectfully request your permission to use the four item subjective stress scale from the 1986 article, "Occupational Stress: Its Causes and Consequences for Job Performance" in my dissertation survey. I have reached out to Professor Motowidlo but have not received a reply. My dissertation topic is, "Organizational Culture's Moderating Relationship on Surface Acting and Psychological Distress" and my Chairwoman and I believe the four-item subjective stress scale from this article is most appropriate for my study. Please let me know if you would be willing to grant my request. Have a wonderful weekend.

Respectfully,
James

Appendix D: Permission to use the Emotional Exhaustion Scale from the Burnout

Inventory

PsycTESTS™ is a database of the American Psychological Association

NOTE: Responses to each statement are measured on a 5-point scale with scale anchors labeled: (1) Strongly Disagree: (2) Somewhat Disagree: (3) Neither Agree nor Disagree): (4) Somewhat Agree: (5) Strongly Agree.

Source:
Iverson, Roderick D., Olekalns, Mara, & Erwin, Peter J. (1998). Affectivity, organizational stressors, and absenteeism: A causal model of burnout and its consequences. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 52*(1), 1-23. doi: 10.1006/jvbe.1996.1556, © 1998 by Elsevier. Reproduced by Permission of Elsevier.

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Appendix E: Permission to use the Depersonalization Scale from the

Burnout Inventory

PsycTESTS™ is a database of the American Psychological Association

NOTE: Responses to each statement are measured on a 5-point scale with scale anchors labeled: (1) Strongly Disagree: (2) Somewhat Disagree: (3) Neither Agree nor Disagree): (4) Somewhat Agree: (5) Strongly Agree.

Source:
Iverson, Roderick D., Olekalns, Mara, & Erwin, Peter J. (1998). Affectivity, organizational stressors, and absenteeism: A causal model of burnout and its consequences. Journal of Vocational Behavior, Vol 52(1), 1-23. doi: 10.1006/jvbe.1996.1556, © 1998 by Elsevier. Reproduced by Permission of Elsevier.

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