

“BRIGHT SIDE” OF LEADER EMOTIONAL LABOUR: IMPACT OF LEADER EMOTION
REGULATION ON EMPLOYEE OUTCOMES

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ABSTRACT

The concept of emotion regulation (expressing emotions as part of one's job duties) has been a major topic of affect-based research in organizational studies. However, it has been studied mostly in service contexts, predominantly from a sociological perspective, as a form of labour that is stressful and impairs the well-being of service workers. Despite the potential of applying this construct beyond service occupations with a focus on the beneficial aspects of it, the call for expansion of this literature has largely been unattended. Although studying emotions of leadership opens a wide range of opportunities, extension of emotional labour research is distinctly underdeveloped in this area. In response to this state of affairs, my research empirically explores the "bright side" of leaders' emotion regulation in leadership context.

Drawing on emotional labour theory, affective events theory (AET), emotional expressivity of leadership theories, and conservation of resources (COR) theory, I propose that leaders' emotion regulation may, in fact, result in beneficial employee outcomes without harming leaders' well-being. In order to support my hypotheses, I conducted two studies.

At an interpersonal level, study 1 examines the beneficial impact of employee perceptions leader emotion regulation strategies (viz. surface acting and deep acting) on key employee outcomes. Using a self-reporting survey, data were collected from the employees of a mid-sized, reputable Bangladeshi financial company (n = 175). Employee perceptions of leader deep acting and surface acting were used as independent variables to predict outcomes such as employee job satisfaction, job stress, and perceived leadership effectiveness. The results support the hypotheses that 1) employee perception of leader deep acting was favourably related to employees' job satisfaction and perceived leadership effectiveness and 2) these relationships were mediated by employee perception of leader authenticity. As hypothesized, surface acting

was found to be negatively related to perceived leader authenticity, leadership effectiveness, and employee job satisfaction. Contrary to my expectation, neither employee perception of leader deep acting nor surface acting were found to be negatively associated with employee stress, rather, leader surface acting was found to be positively associated with employee job stress.

The purpose of study 2 was to test the other key argument of this research: that while surface acting can impair well-being, leader deep acting does not necessarily hinder their personal well-being. Using experience sampling method, I conducted the second study using managers as sample ($n = 81$) of the three business units of the same financial company used in study 1. In study 2, leader deep acting and surface acting were considered as independent variables to predict the effects on their two well-being outcomes of emotional dissonance and emotional exhaustion. As hypothesized, on a daily basis, I found a significant positive relationship between leader surface acting and emotional exhaustion, and the relationship was mediated by daily emotional dissonance. However, as expected, leader daily deep acting was not related to their daily well-being outcomes of emotional dissonance and emotional exhaustion.

In addition to theoretical contribution by extending the study of emotion regulation in leadership with a focus of the beneficial aspect of it, this research offers important implications for the practicing managers and human resource management (HRM) functions, including managerial selection and promotion, training and development, and performance management.

Keywords: Emotional labor, emotion regulation, leader authenticity, employee job satisfaction, leadership effectiveness, emotional dissonance, emotional exhaustion

DEDICATION

To the loving memory of my mother and father.

To my loving wife Shama, for her continued support.

To my lovely children Samee and Maeesha who bring endless joy and happiness into my life.

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I am deeply grateful for all the support I have had throughout this process. Although this research was an individual work, I would have never been able to complete this project without the support of the school, the guidance of my committee members, and the help from my friends and family.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

“Emotions are not a luxury. They play a role in communicating meaning to others, and they may also play the cognitive guidance role” (Damasio, 1994, p. 130).

In support of the above observation, Damasio (1994), in his book *Descartes' Error*, referred to his study of a patient named Elliot who suffered from a brain lesion, leaving him unable to experience emotion. Damasio found that the high IQ of Elliot could not help him make simple decisions, suggesting the flaws in Descartes' philosophy of dualism that holds that the mind and the body act independently. The point I want to make here is that without considering emotion, including the need for individuals to control or regulate emotion, the study of human behavior at work is incomplete (Ashkanasy, Troth, Lawrence, & Jordan, 2017b). As organizations are inherently human entities, the processes that drive human thought and behavior also drive organizations. These processes arise from both cognition and affect- two related but nonetheless differentiable phenomena (Ashkanasy, Humphrey, & Huy, 2017a).

Although management scholars appear to be aware of the importance of emotion in the early years of the twentieth century (Weiss & Brief, 2001), the role of emotions has consistently been considered secondary to “rational” concepts of traditional economics in organizations (Ashkanasy, 2017b). The influence of Weber's (1978) assertion that emotion should be kept out of work and the Tayloristic perspective of scientific management led social scientists to focus on industrial effectiveness and efficiency, which have largely contributed to this pejorative view of emotion that “has blinded many scholars and practitioners to the value of emotion” in organizational studies (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995, p. 99; Pirola-Merlo, Härtel, Mann, & Hirst,

2002). Despite the fact that emotions are natural and an inseparable component of organizational tasks (Bolton, 2005; Matsumoto & Sanders, 1988; Rajah, Song, & Arvey, 2011; Sandelands, 1988), organizational scholars have been slow to embrace them to explain human behaviour in organizational settings (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995; Ashkanasy et al., 2017a).

Some theoretical works, such as Goleman's (1995, 1998) and Mayer and Salovey's (1993) conceptualizations of emotional intelligence, Weiss and Cropanzano's (1996) affective events theory (AET), George and Brief's (1992) conceptual analysis of mood at work, Forgas's (1995) affect infusion model (AIM), along with several special journal issues (Ashkanasy, 2004; Fisher & Ashkanasy, 2000; Fox & Spector, 2002; Humphrey, 2002) have significantly punctuated affect-based organizational research in the last two decades. As a result, emotions and emotion regulation have become important in scholarly and popular practitioners' literature. Since the publication of Hochschild's seminal book in 1983, emotion regulation has been a major topic of affect-based research in organizational studies. Emotion regulation is "the process by which individuals influence which emotion they have, when they have them, and how they experience and express these emotions" (Gross, 1998, p. 275).

The literature on emotion regulation at work is largely focused on employee-customer interaction and is extensively studied under the label of "emotional labour" (i.e., expressing emotions as an aspect of employees' job duties). The emotional labour literature has distinguished two major ways in which employees manage emotion: surface acting and deep acting. In surface acting, an employee masks his or her own feelings and fakes expected expressions. For example, a customer service representative may "put on" a smile when he or she does not actually feel happy. In contrast, in deep acting, employees work to change their feelings to appear more genuine in their performance with customers. Following Hochschild's

(1983) sociological perspective that emotional labour is stressful and leads to feelings of inauthenticity, studies have focused primarily on the harmful effects of emotional labour on frontline service workers' well-being, including stress, emotional exhaustion, and burnout (Ashkanasy et al., 2017a; Humphrey, Ashforth, & Diefendorff, 2015). As a consequence, the positive effects of emotional labour have been overlooked and under-investigated (Alam, Ezzedeen, & Latham, 2018; Ashkanasy et al., 2017a).

Management scholars hold a somewhat different view of emotional labour. They have expanded the conceptualization of emotional labour by focusing on observable behaviours displaying appropriate emotion in conformance with display rules and argue that emotional labour can be good for business and should be studied beyond the service context (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). Scholars have recently offered conceptual guidelines to expand the study of the emotion regulation of leaders (Ashkanasy & Humphrey, 2011; Gardner, Fischer, & Hunt, 2009; Humphrey, Pollack, & Hawver, 2008; IszattWhite, 2012) and in work-to-family transitions (Alam, et al., 2018; Yanchus, Eby, Lance, & Drollinger, 2010). Although the extension of research of emotion regulation in leadership opens a wide range of opportunities, "the positive aspects of emotional labor have largely been overlooked and under-investigated." (Ashkanasy et al., 2017a, p. 185; Humphrey et al., 2015; Edelman & Van Knippenberg, 2016; Fisk & Friesen, 2012). The purpose of this dissertation research is two-fold. First, it aims to partly address the conceptual voids by identifying the key differences between these two contexts to facilitate future studies of managerial emotion regulation. Second, contrary to the predominant view that emotional labor is stressful and produces primarily harmful outcomes (Grandey & Gabriel, 2015; Grandey & Melloy, 2017; Hochschild, 1983), I propose that

leader emotion regulation results in beneficial employee outcomes without impairing leaders' well-being.

Emotion regulation in leadership differs greatly from emotion regulation among customer service workers. Unlike customer service representatives, leaders usually do not have explicit emotional display rules to help them deal with their employees. Scholars working in the leader emotion literature have relied on affective events theory (AET; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) to predict leader emotion regulation, suggesting that at times of affective organizational events, leaders are likely to regulate their felt emotions to display appropriate emotions towards their employees (Gardner et al., 2009; Humphrey et al., 2008). Managers and employees of any organization often experience obstacles or setbacks as events that are potentially affect-laden. Effective managers make efforts to minimize the impact of these negative events, which is vital for effective team performance (Pirola-Merlo et al., 2002).

The extent of the relationship between an emotion regulation actor and observer in service delivery and leadership contexts also differs substantially. It is intuitive that the relationship between a manager and subordinates is more intimate in nature than that of an employee (e.g., customer service representative) and customer. In close relationships, managers are likely to prevent conflict and maintain pleasantness (Tamir, 2009; Tice & Bratslavsky, 2000; Zaalberg, Manstead, & Fischer, 2004). Moreover, in a service context, employees regulate emotion in the presence of clients where both the source of emotional dissonance (e.g., hostile or misbehaving clients) and the observer of the emotion regulation are clients. But in the case of leader emotion regulation, the source of negative emotions is generally external to the employees, suggesting that a manager will more likely adopt the emotional display desired by their subordinates.

Considering the different contexts and drawing on relevant psychological, emotional labour, emotion regulation, AET, and emotional aspects of leadership literature, I develop my hypotheses and conduct two separate investigations to support these hypotheses.

Research Statement

The objective of this dissertation research is to extend the study of emotional labour into the leadership context. Contrary to the predominant view that emotional labour is stressful and produces primarily harmful outcomes (Grandey & Gabriel, 2015; Grandey & Melloy, 2017; Hochschild, 1983), I propose that leaders' emotion regulation may, in fact, result in beneficial employee outcomes without harming leaders' well-being. It also partly addresses the conceptual voids by identifying the key differences between these two contexts to facilitate future studies of managerial emotion regulation. In addition to its theoretical value, this research offers crucial implications for practicing managers and HRM practitioners in managerial selection and promotion, training and development, and performance management.

Study 1 examines the beneficial impact of leader emotion regulation on their subordinates at the interpersonal level. Following management scholars' broad conceptualization of emotional labour (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993) and borrowing from conceptual guidelines (Gardner et al., 2009; Humphrey et al., 2008), I examine the impact of employees' perceptions of their leaders' emotion regulation strategies on key employee outcomes such as employees' job satisfaction, job stress, and assessment of leadership effectiveness. In order to theoretically explain the beneficial impact of leader emotion regulation (deep acting) on employees, I drew on AET, an OB perspective of emotional labour theory (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993), and emotional expressivity of leadership theories (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Gardner & Avolio, 1998; Waldman & Yammarino, 1999; Weber, 1947).

Study 1 advances the leader emotion regulation literature in two important ways. First, it specifically explores the “bright side” of leader emotion regulation, an area yet to be attended to empirically (Humphrey et al., 2015). I explore whether employees are able to differentiate between their supervisors surface acting and deep acting, and whether they react differently to the emotion regulation strategies employed by their supervisors. Second, I propose a mediator (leader authenticity) to explain the favorable impact of deep acting on employees. While recent findings on deep acting by service employees suggest that it does not necessarily hinder actors’ well-being (Bono & Vey, 2005; Hülshager & Schewe, 2011; Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013; Wang, Seibert, & Boles, 2011), we know very little about how an observer perceives whether an actor’s deep acting is authentic or not. Future research on leader emotion regulation can build on the theoretical model and findings of study 1.

In study 2, leaders’ deep acting and surface acting were considered as independent variables to predict their impact on the two well-being constructs of emotional dissonance and emotional exhaustion, outcomes that are widely examined in the study of emotional labor (Grandey & Melloy, 2017; Huang, Chiaburu, Zhang, & Grandey, 2015; Judge, Woolf, & Hurst, 2009; Van Dijk & Brown, 2006). Study 2 hypothesizes that while leaders’ surface acting is associated with their emotional dissonance and emotional exhaustion (Grandey & Melloy, 2017; Huang, Chiaburu et al., 2015; Judge, Woolf, & Hurst, 2009; Van Dijk & Brown, 2006), such a relationship is nonexistent in the case of leaders’ deep acting. In the absence of an overarching theoretical framework used to explain why such a relationship should exist, I utilized Hobfoll’s (1989, 1998) conservation of resources (COR) theory of stress to argue that leaders’ engagement in deep acting generates the desired social and personal resources to offset the negative consequences of such acting, whereas engagement in surface acting fails to generate such

resources and energy and leads to emotional dissonance and ultimately emotional exhaustion. To support my key argument that usage of leader emotion regulation, that is, deep acting, does not have negative consequences on the leaders themselves, I conducted a diary study (experience sampling) using the managers from the business units of the same financial company used in study 1. Although scholars have conceptually claimed that leaders engage in emotion regulation during their interaction with employees, studies of leader emotion regulation have just begun to emerge. Thus, it is important to understand the frequency and intensity of leaders' engagement of emotion regulation (Morris & Feldman, 1996) and its consequences on their daily lives.

In study 2, I also establish the mediating role of emotional dissonance in the relationship between leaders' surface acting and their emotional exhaustion. Emotional dissonance, that is, the conflict between emotions that are felt and those that are expected to be displayed, is a cornerstone of emotional labour processes (Côté, 2005; Holman, Martínez-Iñigo, & Totterdell, 2008; Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011) and has also been found to be a mediator between emotional labour strategies and emotional exhaustion (Van Dijk & Brown, 2006). Thus, in study 2, the relationship between leaders' surface acting and their emotional exhaustion, which is consistent with the same nomological constructs of emotional labour studies of the service context, is crucial in extending emotion regulation studies in the leadership context.

Research Contributions

This dissertation makes several theoretical contributions. First, it extends the study of leader emotion regulation with a specific focus on its benefits. My specific focus on the beneficial aspects of emotional labour addresses the recent scholarly call to take up this promising but uninvestigated aspect of emotional labour literature (Ashkanasy et al., 2017a; Humphrey et al., 2015).

Second, another key hypothesis in this dissertation is that employee perceptions of leader authenticity serve as a mediator in explaining the positive impact of employee perceptions of leaders' deep acting on employee outcomes. The emotional labour literature asserts that surface acting, and to a lesser extent deep acting, interferes with actors' authentic feeling (Grandey & Melloy, 2017; Hochschild, 1983). However, study 1 showed that employees perceive leaders' deep acting as authentic, which was favorably associated with employee outcomes, including employee assessments of leadership effectiveness, a promising construct in the investigation of the leader emotion regulation process (Edelman & Van Knippenberg, 2016). In terms of organizational benefit, this issue may be even more important than how subordinates view the authenticity of leader emotion regulation (Gardner et al., 2009).

Third, both studies shed light on the antecedent of leader emotion regulation, which has not been, for the most part, empirically investigated. Although not directly operationalized, in both the studies, challenging organizational events were positioned as the antecedent (in a descriptive manner) in the questionnaire to obtain leaders' responses to their emotion regulation strategies as well as employees' perceptions of these strategies. Future research can build on this finding to directly operationalize challenging organizational events, introducing an appropriate measurement scale. In the absence of formal and explicit emotional display rules (which are explicit for service delivery employees), understanding the antecedents to leader emotion regulation is crucial in advancing the study of leader emotion regulation.

Fourth, this dissertation addresses research questions at two levels of analysis: interpersonal (study 1) and within-person (study 2). An appropriate level of analysis is important in investigating leader emotion regulation (Ashkanasy, 2003; Ashkanasy et al., 2017b). While there are several multilevel studies involving emotion regulation in a service context (e.g.,

Chiaburu, Zhang, & Grandey, 2015; Uy, Lin, & Ilies, 2017), to my knowledge, scholars have not yet used the experience-sampling method to study this emerging phenomenon of leader emotion regulation.

Finally, in addition to the theoretical implications discussed above, this dissertation research has significant implications for managers and HRM practitioners. In emotionally challenging events, managers can effectively apply deep acting by reappraising the emotion arousing situation. Moreover, findings of this research point to several HR initiatives in the functions of managerial training, selection and promotion of managers, and employee performance management.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Emotion Regulation

Defining emotion is challenging (Gross & John, 2003; for more on emotion see Lazarus, 1984; Zajonc, 1984). Emotions have long been perceived as passions that come and go of their own accord (Solomon, 1976). Scholars now view emotions, such as fear, anger, disgust, joy, and sadness, as biological reactions that coordinate our adaptive responses with opportunities and challenges important to us (Levenson, 1994; Tooby & Cosmides, 1990). Each emotion addresses a somewhat different adaptive issue (Ekman, 1992; Frijda, 1988; Izard, 1977; Plutchik, 1980). Among the various perspectives of emotion described by psychologists, William James's (1884, 1894) view is most relevant to the description of emotion regulation (Gross, 1998). James regards emotions as adaptive behavioural and psychological response tendencies aroused during evolutionary and significant situations. Gross (1998) draws on James's perspective of emotions, adding that although individuals often experience these emotional tendencies, they do not express them in their behaviour. This view suggests that individuals can modulate their emotional response tendencies. Discrepancies between emotional response tendencies and actual behavioural manifestations trigger questions "about how, why and when individuals might try to regulate their emotional response tendencies" (Gross, 1998, p. 272). Gross (1998) defines emotion regulation as "the process by which individuals influence which emotion they have, when they have them, and how they experience and express these emotions" (p. 275).

The construct of emotion regulation originated in child developmental literature (Campos, Barrett, Lamb, Goldsmith, & Stenberg, 1983; Campos, Campos, & Barrett, 1989; Thompson, 1990, 1991) and has gained considerable currency beyond that, including in

cognitive, social, personality, and health psychology (Gross, 1998; Gross & Levenson, 1993; Gross & Munoz, 1995; Izard, 1990). Gross (1998) argues that following involvement in an emotion-producing situation (stimulus), individuals regulate emotion in two ways: antecedent-focused emotion regulation and response-focused emotion regulation. In antecedent-focused regulation, through situation reappraisal, individuals attempt to modify or change their felt emotion, whereas in response-focused regulation, individuals suppress emotional expressions. Both reappraisal and suppression require more effort and attention than authentic emotional expression. Emotion regulation is central to emotional labour theory (Grandey & Melloy, 2017).

Emotional Labour

Arlie Hochschild (1983), in her seminal book *The Managed Heart*, states, “I use the term emotional labour to mean the management of feeling to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display; emotional labour is sold for a wage and therefore has an exchange value” (p. 7). Hochschild observed that the expression of emotions is determined by organizations’ emotional display rules, which reflect some prescribed (by the organization) standards with respect to employees’ behaviours in their interactions with customers. Drawing on Goffman’s (1959) dramaturgical techniques, Hochschild (1983) argued that in order to comply with display rules, employees regulate their emotions in two ways: either by engaging in surface acting or deep acting. When people engage in surface acting, they do not try to feel the emotions they want to portray. Instead, they put on an emotional display (e.g., a fake smile) that does not reflect their true feelings. In contrast, when people deep act, they summon the emotions they want to portray when interacting with others. In this act, people feel and experience actual emotions and purposely engage in thoughts and activities that help foster those emotions. Although deep acting is a more authentic regulation of emotion, both processes are effortful, causing detrimental

consequences for well-being, such as repeated stress, alienation, and burnout (Hochschild, 1983). These two strategies of emotion regulation, surface acting and deep acting, have received attention in theoretical and organizational research (Grandey, 2003; Grandey & Melloy, 2017). Hochschild further classified occupations in terms of their requirement of emotional labour. She suggested that some occupations, such as salesperson, waiter, babysitter, lawyer, doctor, manager, and administrator require emotional labour, while others do not.

Hochschild's Sociological Approach

Hochschild (1983), in her sociological approach, largely examined emotional labour as intrapersonal emotive dissonance between feeling and expression. She explained the effects of surface and deep acting on the reduced well-being of the actor with the emotional dissonance experienced. Individuals do not like faking emotions and feel inauthentic in doing so (Hochschild's, 1983). Also, faking can be cognitively taxing because it requires additional monitoring (Grandey, 2000, 2003). Surface acting requires more efforts than deep acting because surface actors need to continuously monitor their behaviour throughout their interaction with clients (Grandey, 2000; Grandey & Melloy, 2017).

Grandey (2000) applied Gross's (1998) emotion regulation theory to the concept of emotional labour, observing that emotional labour can be defined as a process of management of psychological arousal and cognitive appraisal in order to comply with display rules at work and to express organizationally desired emotions (Grandey & Melloy, 2017). She argues that Gross's two types of emotion regulation strategies, antecedent-focused regulation and response-focused regulation, correspond to Hochschild's (1983) distinction of emotional labour as surface and deep acting. Since antecedent-focused regulation involves strategies such as attention deployment by recalling an event that invokes the emotions that one needs in a given situation

and cognitive change by perceiving the situation in a different way in order to reduce the impact of emotions, it is equivalent to deep acting (Grandey, 2000; Grandey & Melloy, 2017). On the other hand, since response-focused regulation involves manipulation of emotional expression by faking or adjusting the intensity of the emotion evoked by a situation, it is similar to surface acting (Grandey, 2000; Grandey & Melloy, 2017). The two concepts are not essentially the same. However, emotional labour scholars consider emotion regulation as a strategy of emotional labour (Grandey & Melloy, 2017).

While Hochschild's conceptualization of emotional labour opened a new stream of affect-based research in organizational studies, her theorizing of emotional labour has been critiqued. Some scholars note that Hochschild dichotomizes jobs as requiring and not requiring emotional expression, whereas they argue that almost all occupations require some level of emotion work, even if in varying intensity (Pugliesi, 1999; Wharton & Erickson, 1993). Focusing on the dimensionality of emotional labour, several other scholars suggest that emotional labour is a multidimensional construct and involves strategies other than surface and deep acting (Kruml & Geddes, 2000; Morris & Feldman, 1996; Pugliesi, 1999). Management scholars critique Hochschild's sociological view that emotional labour is stressful and produces primarily harmful outcomes, expanding the conceptualization by suggesting that there is also a positive side of emotional labour that is under-investigated (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Humphrey et al., 2015; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). I now turn to a brief discussion of the varying approaches that involve emotional labour theory.

Morris and Feldman's (1996) Approach

Morris and Feldman (1996) proposed a psychologically oriented model of emotional labour that they defined as the effort, planning, and control required for displaying

organizationally desired emotions during service interactions. Their model involved four interrelated dimensions: 1) frequency of appropriate emotional display, 2) attentiveness to required display rules, 3) variety of emotions to be displayed, and 4) emotional dissonance as a result of expressing fake emotions. This perspective of emotional labour has been critiqued on two grounds. First, Morris and Feldman's conceptualization of emotional labour (frequency of emotional display and variety of emotions) is, in fact, a description of job features that give rise to the use of emotion regulation strategies (Grandey, 2000). Grandey (2000) further argues that emotional dissonance is a consequence of emotional labour, rather than a component of it. Second, although Morris and Feldman defined emotional labour as the required effort, planning, and control of appropriate emotions, none of the dimensions they propose reflect these processes. This threatens the construct and content validity of emotional labour scales (Kruml & Geddes, 2000).

Organizational Behaviour (OB) Approach

Management scholars have expanded the conceptualization of emotional labour by focusing on behaviours displaying appropriate emotion in compliance with display rules (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). While Hochschild referred to inner feelings in order to define emotional labour, management scholars argue that the focal concept of emotional labour is interpersonal—emotional behaviour towards “outsiders” such as clients. They also argue that the two strategies of surface acting and deep acting do not wholly capture the phenomenon of emotional labour, giving the examples of a service worker who spontaneously and genuinely feels and displays the appropriate emotion. Thus, Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) introduced a third form of emotional labour—spontaneous and genuine emotional labour. According to them, in many cases, service workers' natural and spontaneous emotions align with social expectations

and organizational display rules such that they do not have to deliberately summon the correct emotions. For example, a health worker, such as nurse, who sees an injured patient can feel genuine sympathy and concern. In line with this broader conceptualization, management scholars argue that emotional labour can result in favorable outcomes for businesses and should be studied as an observable behaviour (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987).

Management scholars' views differ from the predominant sociological view in terms of the consequences of emotional labour. According to these scholars, management of emotions may not necessarily be harmful for employees as suggested by Hochschild (1983). They argue that although display rules in some sense restrict behaviour, they also allow employees to reflect their authentic self and increase one's self efficacy (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Humphrey et al., 2015). Moreover, if displayed emotions are perceived as sincere by customers, emotional labour may enhance task effectiveness. While they agree that emotional regulation can also have negative consequences, such as emotional dissonance, feelings of depersonalization, cynicism, inability to feel genuine emotions, and alienation from work, they argue that such negative consequences originate from the use of the wrong form of emotion regulation, that is, surface acting (Humphrey et al., 2015). The use of surface acting is often caused by a poor job fit, and emotional labour would likely be beneficial to persons with a good job fit (Humphrey et al., 2015). Four recent meta-analyses on the effects of surface and deep acting support these arguments, suggesting that deep acting does not necessarily hinder employee well-being and is, in fact, often associated with job satisfaction, organizational commitment, improved job performance, audience impression, and better customer satisfaction (Bono & Vey, 2005; Hülshager & Schewe, 2011; Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013; Wang, Seibert, & Boles, 2011).

Borrowing from social identity theory, scholars argue that the negative effects of

emotional labour on employees can be reduced if the employee identifies with their occupational role (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Humphrey et al., 2015) because individuals who regard their work roles as central, salient, and a valued part of their identity are less likely to experience emotional dissonance and self- alienation in their emotional labour.

Although management scholars paint a bright picture of emotional labour, their conceptualization can be critiqued in two ways. First, it is not clear how genuine emotional expression as a strategy can be distinguished from deep acting. Second, if expressions of genuinely felt emotions require no effort (Gardner et al., 2009), it can be argued that genuine emotional expression is not plausible enough to call it a labour strategy because the term “labour” necessarily implies effort.

Although the various approaches to emotional labour differ in terms of its conceptualization and its consequences, they are similar in regards to two central tenets of emotional labour. First, Grandey and Melloy (2017) argue that each of these approaches can be integrated into one with “ER (emotion regulation) effort as the central theme of EL (emotional labour)” (p. 2), where surface acting is seen as emotion suppression, or the response-focused strategy (Gross, 1998), and deep acting as emotion reappraisal, or the antecedent-focused strategy (Gross, 1998). Second, display rules are specified and enforced by organizations as a way to control the emotions that employees display (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Diefendorff, Richard, & Croyle, 2006; Grandey, 2000; Grandey & Melloy, 2017; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987).

Emotional Display Rules

In employee-customer interaction, emotional display rules are assumed to be an important predictor of employees’ emotional labour because they want to comply with the customer display rules set and enforced by management (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993;

Diefendorff et al., 2006; Hochschild, 1983; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). These rules are the standards that prescribe the appropriate display to be expressed on the job (Ekman, 1984). Organizations develop emotional display rules, often in the name of customer service rules, in order to inform their employees about the type of emotions that should be expressed during interactions with customers. Emotional display requirements may vary depending on the type of job being performed. Certain jobs, such as flight attendant and customer service representative, require a positive display of emotions, which means hiding negative ones (i.e., service with a smile), while others, such as judge and bill collector, require neutral or even negative displays of emotion (Sutton, 1991; Wharton & Erickson, 1993).

Scholars (Diefendorff et al., 2006; Grandey, 2000; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987) have divided emotion display rules into three categories, dependent on the type of occupation: 1) Integrative rules refer to the expression of positive emotions such as smiling and being kind. Occupations such as customer service representative and nursing require this type of emotional display. 2) Differential rules are those applicable to negative emotions such as anger and fear, that occupations, such as bill collectors and police officers, are often required to engage in (Wharton & Erickson, 1993). 3) Suppression rules require neutrality and controlling emotional expressions. These apply to occupations such as judges and therapists. However, most of the studies of emotional labour are concerned with integrative rules, which involve expression of positive emotions and suppression of negative ones. Employees' perceptions of these rules affect their behaviour and expressions of feelings during their interactions with customers (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Diefendorff et al., 2006; Grandey, 2000, 2003; Gosserand & Diefendorff, 2005; Morris & Feldman; 1996; Zapf & Holz, 2006).

Depending on the job and its place within an organization, display rules vary

considerably (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Diefendorff et al., 2006). They may be explicit and highly formalized or relatively informal (Paules, 1991; Wharton & Erickson, 1993). In a leadership role, display rules are neither explicit nor formalized. Rather, leaders analyze each situation and apply their judgment in displaying appropriate emotions (Humphrey et al., 2008).

Leader Emotional Labour

Although the systematic study of emotion in leadership is a recent development, affect and emotion have always been an implicit part of leadership (Connelly & Gooty, 2015). Weber's (1947) articulation of the effects of charismatic leadership on followers' hearts and feelings, and Bass's (1985) explanation on how transformational leadership inspires and instills hope and optimism in followers, have long fascinated leadership scholars and practitioners alike.

Empirical studies support the beneficial effects of leaders' positive moods on followers' moods, social behaviour and turnover rates (George, 1995; George & Bettenhausen, 1990). In contrast, leaders' displays of negative emotions have been found to be positively related to negative affective states among followers and less favorable assessments of leader effectiveness (Lewis, 2000). Gaddis, Connelly, and Mumford (2004) demonstrated that positive affective displays during failure feedback produced higher perceptions of leader effectiveness and higher quality performance on a group task. Sy, Côté, and Saavedra's (2005) found that leaders' moods can be contagious, with leaders' positive moods inducing followers to experience more positive moods and setting a positive affective tone and vice versa with leaders' display of negative moods.

The recognition in leadership theories that leaders need to express emotions toward their followers (Weber, 1947; Bass, 1985) and the empirical evidence discussed above suggest that leaders' emotional displays towards their employees are important factors and thus leader emotion regulation is necessary (Gardner et al., 2009; George, 2000; Humphrey, 2002;

Humphrey et al., 2008). Although leaders' skill in emotion regulation may be an important factor in leadership effectiveness (Ashkanasy & Humphrey 2011; Humphrey et al., 2008), it is only relatively recently that leadership research has started to consider the role of affect in leadership (Gooty, Connely, Griffith, & Gupta, 2010; Van Kleef, Homan, & Cheshin, 2012; Van Knippenberg, Van Knippenberg, Van Kleef, & Damen, 2008). A few scholars have begun to provide useful conceptual guidelines to encourage empirical research on leader emotion regulation (Ashkanasy & Humphrey, 2011; Gardner et al., 2009; Humphrey et al., 2008; IszattWhite, 2012), while others have empirically conducted research on leader emotion regulation (Arnold, Connelly, Walsh, & Martin Ginis, 2015; Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Edelman & Van Knippenberg, 2016; Fisk & Friesen, 2012; Mann, 1997). To facilitate empirical research considering appropriate level of studies, Ashkanasy (2003) and Ashkanasy et al. (2017a) offered a multi-level model to study emotion regulation in organizations. Building on this multi-level model, Tee (2015) developed a multi-level model of emotional contagion in the leadership context. Jordan and Lindebaum (2015) have conceptually shown how the within-person interaction of emotion regulation and leader scripts influence followers' perceptions of the situational appropriateness of their leaders' behaviour.

The *Journal of Leadership Quarterly* recently published a special issue highlighting the importance of the impact of leaders' emotion on follower outcomes and the role of emotion regulation strategies in the dynamic exchanges between leaders and followers. This issue offered several conceptual and empirical papers on leader emotion displays and follower outcomes (Caza, Zhang, Wang, & Bai, 2015; Griffith, Connelly, Thiel, & Johnson, 2015; Joseph, Dhanani, Shen, McHugh, & McCord, 2015; Koning & Van Kleef, 2015; Nylund & Raelin, 2015; To, Tse, & Ashkanasy, 2015; Wang & Seibert, 2015) and leader and follower emotion regulation (Gentry,

Clark, Young, Cullen, & Zimmerman, 2015; Jordan & Lindebaum, 2015; Menges, Kilduff, Kern, & Bruch, 2015; Tenzer & Pudelko, 2015).

The studies on leader emotional display discuss its potential benefit on follower outcomes. Scholars suggest that during emotionally challenging times, leaders can use deep acting and other strategies to manage their own mood and motivations appropriately and thereby improve their followers' mood, morale, and motivation (Humphrey, 2012; Humphrey et al., 2008). During these difficult situations, leaders need to model hope, confidence, and optimism (Hannah & Luthans, 2008). Several studies have shown that emotional expressions by leaders influence followers' attributions about their leaders' motivation, abilities, intelligence, trustworthiness, empathy, charisma, and overall leadership abilities (Bono & Ilies, 2006; Dasborough & Ashkanasy, 2002; Kellett, Humphrey, & Sleeth, 2006; Riggio & Reichard, 2008).

A few recent studies provide support that leader emotion regulation can favorably impact follower well-being and performance related outcomes. In order to minimize the impact of obstacles or setbacks on their team members, leaders' appropriate displays of emotion have been found to be vital for effective performance in teams (Pirola-Merlo et al., 2002). Fisk and Friesen (2012) demonstrated how leaders' emotional labour influenced the quality of leader-team member relationships. Burch, Humphrey, and Batchelor's (2012) study on small business owners found that engaging in genuine emotional labour to convey positive emotions was associated with employees' higher job satisfaction and lower turnover intentions. In a qualitative study, Tenzer and Pudelko (2015) demonstrated that the strategies used by multinational team leaders to regulate negative emotions in their interactions with followers created positive team outcomes.

While it seems that research on leader emotion regulation is gaining momentum, conceptual clarity is still lacking when it comes to the question of the antecedent of leader

emotion regulation. The antecedents of emotion regulation are situational variables (Gross, 1998), which can be explained as an individual's experiences of various kinds of emotional events at work. Emotion regulation literature suggests that emotional events are likely to lead to emotion regulation when they produce emotions that diverge from display rules (Grandey, 2000). A service setting can create a chronic need to regulate emotions (Hochschild, 1983). However, acute events at work can generate emotions in organizational members that impact employee attitudes and behaviour (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). In the absence of a grand theory of emotion at work, AET comes closest to offering a theoretical framework to investigate situations in which managers (as leaders of their employees) regulate their emotion at work (Gardner et al., 2009).

Affective Events as Antecedents of Leaders' Emotional Labour

According to AET, affective events generated from organizational exigencies cause emotional reactions in organizational members, which, in turn, impact members' attitudes and behaviour. For Weiss and Cropanzano (1996), affective events are intra-organizational. Ashkanasy and Ashton-James (2005), in contrast, extend affective events to include events external to the organization, such as economic and policy changes (legal and political), stock market fluctuations, and sociocultural trends. In other words, both internal and external events trigger affective responses in employees. Affective events can be positive or negative. A positive workplace event, such as a strategic management decision that triggers positive affective responses, over time positively influences workplace attitudes such as job satisfaction and organizational trust and commitment, and positively impacts workplace behaviours such as absenteeism, lateness, turnover, loyalty, and productivity (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996).

In contrast, events that impair an organizational member's progress in meeting workplace goals lead to transient negative affective responses (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Leaders and followers are exposed to a variety of such emotionally challenging events. In these difficult and frustrating situations, leaders are expected to apply emotional regulation strategies to control their emotions and express the correct emotion to their employees (Humphrey et al., 2008). Some of the commonly identified negative events include conflicting role demands (Williams, Suls, Alliger, Lerner, & Wan, 1991), cognitive strain (Bodrov, 2000), time pressure (Baber, Mellor, Graham, Noyes, & Tunley, 1996), negotiating with administration (Hart, Wearing, & Headey, 1995), and physically threatening conditions (George, Reed, Ballard, Colin, & Fielding, 1993). These negative workplace events are associated with the experience of negative affective states that arise from the perception of a threat to the attainment of personal goals (Lazarus, 1991).

An AET framework is relevant in studying emotional experiences both at the group level (Pirola-Merlo et al., 2002; Volmer, 2012) and in leader-member dyads (Cropanzano, Dasborough, & Weiss, 2017). Grandey (2000) proposes that emotional events (both positive and negative) are likely to lead to emotion regulation when they produce emotions that diverge from display rules. For example, decreasing sales growth (as an effective event) may elicit frustration (negative emotion) which may then interfere with a leader's goal to comply with display rules by remaining positive with followers, resulting in a need for emotion regulation. Emotional labour theory suggests that negative affective events prompt more surface acting and deep acting, whereas positive affective events are more likely to elicit genuine emotional expressions (Gardner et al., 2009; Grandey, 2000).

In discussing leaders' emotions, scholars mostly identify emotionally challenging or negative events as antecedents of leaders' emotion work of displaying appropriate emotion by regulating their actual emotion (Gardner et al., 2009; Humphrey et al., 2008). In an organizational setting, leaders, just like other employees, are exposed to a wide variety of challenging events. During such uncertain and ambiguous times, group members look to leaders for how to respond emotionally and expect affective intervention from leaders (Humphrey et al. 2015). Leaders' excitement and enthusiasm are most likely to energize their employees. In contrast, distressed or hostile leaders are likely to negatively activate their employees (George, 1990). This suggests that leaders' emotion regulation is important if their employees are to be energized and motivated in crisis situations or when solving frustrating problems (Humphrey et al., 2015).

The 'Bright Side' of Leader Emotional Labour

There is no denying that research on emotional labour has progressed considerably in contributing to affect-based research in organizational studies. However, most of the studies have focused on the harmful effects of emotional labour on frontline service workers' well-being, including stress, emotional exhaustion, and burnout (Ashkanasy et al., 2017a; Humphrey et al., 2015), following sociologist Hochschild's (1983) perspective that emotional labour is stressful and leads to feelings of inauthenticity. Consequently, the positive effects of emotional labour have been overlooked and under investigated (Alam et al., 2018; Ashkanasy et al., 2017a; Humphrey et al., 2015). Scholars have shown that the concept can be studied beyond the service context and applied to leadership and interactions among co-workers (Ashkanasy & Humphrey, 2011; Fisk & Friesen, 2012; Gardner et al., 2009; Humphrey et al., 2008; IszattWhite, 2012). By addressing this call, some recent works offer conceptual guidelines to expand the study of

emotion regulation among leaders (e.g., Ashkanasy & Humphrey, 2011; Gardner et al., 2009; Humphrey et al., 2008; IszattWhite, 2012). In spite of this expansion, studies of leader emotion regulation are still distinctly underdeveloped (Ashkanasy et al., 2017a; Humphrey et al., 2015; Edelman & Van Knippenberg, 2016).

Although scholars argue that effective use of emotional regulation strategies by leaders will improve followers' mood, job attitude, and performance (Humphrey, 2012; Humphrey et al. 2008), only a few empirical works support this claim (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Edelman & Van Knippenberg, 2016; Fisk & Friesen, 2012; Mann, 1997). As Fisk and Friesen (2012) observed, "despite the inextricability of emotion and leadership, little research has examined how leader emotion regulation influences employee work attitude and behaviour" (p. 2). The topic offers research opportunities, specifically on how "emotional labour is related to i) leadership styles, ii) leader and sub-ordinate stress and well-being, iii) leader authenticity and character, and iv) leader effectiveness" (Humphrey, 2012, p. 740).

While the theoretical explanations available offer useful guidelines to empirically study emotion regulation of leaders, these are far from adequate. These theoretical voids stem from the differences between the leadership context and the service context. Emotion regulation of leaders differs greatly from emotion regulation of customer service workers in that leaders are not subject to explicit emotional display rules. Scholars of leader emotion labour literature rely on AET to determine leader emotion regulation, proposing that at times of affective organizational events, leaders are likely to regulate their felt emotion in order to display appropriate emotions towards their employees (Gardner et al., 2009; Humphrey et al., 2008). Leaders and employees of any organization often experience obstacles or setbacks as events that are potentially affect laden. Effective leaders make efforts to minimize the impact of these negative events, which is

vital for the effective performance of their team (Pirola-Merlo et al., 2002). Although affective events as described in AET serve as suitable antecedents of leader emotion regulation, the theory is challenging to operationalize in empirical studies because Weiss and Cropanzano's (1996) definition of affective events is too broad, potentially including anything to which a person has an affective reaction (Morgeson, Mitchell, & Liu, 2015). This is probably one of the main reasons that no studies to date have identified affective events as a predictor of leader emotion regulation.

A limited number of empirical works support the claim that leaders perform emotional labour (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Edelman & Van Knippenberg, 2016; Fisk & Friesen, 2012; Mann, 1997), yet empirical studies focusing on the beneficial impact of leader emotional labour are rare. In featuring the favorable impact of leader emotion regulation, authenticity remains a puzzle (Gardner et al., 2009) because authenticity is a major component of human beings feeling good (Briner, 1999; Rogers, 1951; Zapf, 2002). Is it possible for leaders to regulate emotion without violating their authenticity? Can leaders' emotion regulation be perceived by their followers as authentic? Gardner et al. (2009) provide some guidelines for understanding leader emotion regulation, but, in doing so, they rely on the emotion regulation strategy of genuine expression of emotion introduced by Ashforth and Humphrey (1993). However, the findings of four recent meta-analyses on the effects of surface and deep acting among service workers offer insight into deep acting: deep acting does not necessarily hinder the actor's well-being and is often positively associated with job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job performance, audience impression, and improved customer satisfaction (Bono & Vey, 2005; Hülshager & Schewe, 2011; Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2011).

The two studies I undertook for this dissertation address the above two questions by investigating the benefits of leader emotion regulation at two levels. In study 1, at an interpersonal level, I propose that employee perception of leader deep acting is perceived as authentic by their subordinates, and that these perception of leader authenticity mediate the relationship between employee perception of leader deep acting and employee outcomes of job satisfaction, stress, and employees' assessment of leadership effectiveness. In study 2, at the within-person level, I argue that leaders' deep acting is not significantly associated with their emotional inauthenticity (emotional dissonance) and that leaders' deep acting does not impair their well-being (emotional exhaustion).

CHAPTER THREE

STUDY 1: THE IMPACT OF LEADER EMOTION REGULATION ON EMPLOYEE OUTCOMES

The literature review in Chapter Two highlighted that studies of emotional labour mostly focus on service workers, with the predominant view that it has detrimental effects on frontline service workers' well-being, increasing stress, emotional exhaustion, and burnout (Ashkanasy et al., 2017a; Humphrey et al., 2015). While leadership could serve as a fertile context to study the beneficial impact of emotional labour, so far, a limited number of empirical works support the claim that leaders perform emotional labour (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Edelman & Van Knippenberg, 2016; Fisk & Friesen, 2012; Mann, 1997). Empirical studies specifically focusing on the beneficial impact of leader emotional labour are non-existent in the leader emotion regulation literature.

The purpose of study 1 is to examine the beneficial impact of leader emotion regulation on employees. In order to examine the interpersonal effects of leader emotion regulation strategy on employees' attitudinal and behavioral outcomes, it is important to examine how employees perceive their supervisors' emotion regulation styles. Because, employees' attitudinal and behavioral reactions are not influenced solely by the content or valence of a supervisor's emotional displays, (i.e., positive or negative), but also by the employees' own perceptions and understanding of the motives underlying those displays (Dasborough & Ashkanasy, 2002; Martinko & Gardner, 1987). Thus, I use the concept of employee perception of supervisor surface acting and deep acting in examining the effects of supervisor emotion regulation strategy on employee outcomes.

I hypothesize that employee perception of leaders' engagement in deep acting is

favorably related to employee job satisfaction, job stress, and employees' perception of their leaders' effectiveness. These relationships between employee are mediated by employees' perceptions of their leaders' authenticity. I also hypothesize that employee perception of leaders' engagement in surface acting is negatively related to employees' perception of their leaders' authenticity, employee job satisfaction, employees' perception of their leaders' effectiveness, and employee job stress. See Figure 1 for the theoretical arguments I engage and hypotheses I propose.

Figure 1

I draw on Weiss and Cropanzano's (1996) AET, the organizational behaviour perspective of emotional labour theory (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993), and emotional expressivity of leadership theories (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Gardner & Avolio, 1998; Waldman & Yammarino, 1999; Weber, 1947) in explaining the impact of leader emotion regulation on employees. Following management scholars' broad conceptualization of emotional labour (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993) and borrowing partly from conceptual guidelines in the literature (Gardner et al., 2009; Humphrey et al., 2008), I examine the impact of employee perception of leader emotion regulation strategies on the key employee outcomes of job satisfaction, job stress, and employees' assessment of their leaders' effectiveness.

Theoretical Framework

As indicated, I developed the hypotheses of study 1 based on three theoretical streams: AET, emotional expressivity of leadership theories, and the OB perspective of emotional labour theory.

Affective Events Theory (AET)

In the absence of a grand theory of emotion at work, AET comes closest to offering a theoretical framework to investigate situations in which managers regulate their emotion at work (Gardner et al., 2009). The central tenet of AET is that events in an organizational environment that facilitate or impair an organizational member's progress in achieving workplace goals (i.e., hassles or uplifts) lead to transient positive or negative affective responses (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). While a positive affective state results from events that represent opportunities to achieve workplace goals, a negative affective state is a response to workplace events that are perceived to threaten progress toward workplace goals (Ashton-James & Ashkanasy, 2005; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). According to AET, these affective responses to workplace events influence organizational members' cognition and behaviour, and as such, workplace functioning can be more reliably predicted by their affective responses than by stable workplace attitudes, habituated behaviours, and organizational values (Fisher, 2000; Weiss, Nicholas, & Daus, 1999).

Several studies have demonstrated that leaders have a significant influence over group members' affective states and that leaders' influence can either help or hinder members' emotional states, attitudes, and behaviours (Ashton-James & Ashkanasy, 2005; George, 1990; Pirola-Merlo et al., 2002). Among the various explanations of affective processes within groups, including common socialization patterns and workplace conditions, leaders' strategies to regulate emotion is one of them (Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1994; Humphrey et al., 2008; Gardner et al., 2009; Sutton, 1991), suggesting that leaders' emotion regulation in their interactions with employees, especially during challenging organizational events, favorably impacts employees' affective states, attitudes, and behaviours (Humphrey et al. 2008; Pirola-Merlo et al., 2002).

Emotional Labour Theory: The Organizational Behaviour Approach

Given my focus on organizational leaders, who often attempt to regulate emotions with audiences other than the public, management scholars Ashforth and Humphrey's (1993) broader conceptualization of emotional labour is most applicable to this research. Focusing on behaviour, Ashforth and Humphrey define emotional labour as the act of expressing desired emotions in conformance with emotional display rules. This in contrast to Hochschild's (1983) definition of emotional labour as related to the inner feelings of the actor. The management approach also differs from Hochschild's (1983) view that emotion regulation is essentially inauthentic and stressful, ultimately impairing actors' well-being. Management scholars observe that although display rules in some sense restrict behaviour, they also allow employees to reflect their authentic emotions, making it possible for their displayed emotions to be perceived as sincere. It is also suggest that negative effects of emotional labour on actors are reduced if the person identifies with their occupational role (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Humphrey et al., 2015) because individuals who regard their work role as central, salient, and a valued part of who they are (their identity) are less likely to experience emotional dissonance and self- alienation (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Humphrey et al., 2015).

Empirical evidence has also shown that emotional labour can be directed to organizational insiders (Grandey, Kern, & Frone, 2007). Thus, leaders can direct their emotional displays toward their subordinates and co-workers for the purpose of influencing them to follow them (their leaders) in the pursuit of their goals (Gardner & Avolio, 1998). A number of recent meta-analyses support the view of management scholars that the negative consequences of emotional labour largely depend on the specific emotion regulation strategy used by the actor, suggesting that the adoption of deep acting is related to an actor's job satisfaction and job

performance without hindering the actor's well-being (Bono & Vey, 2005; Hülshager & Schewe, 2011; Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2011). One of the central findings of these meta-analyses is that deep acting does not necessarily interfere with actors' emotional authenticity and that such emotional display is often perceived as sincere by the observer.

Emotional Expressivity of Leadership Theories

Several leadership theories recognize the importance of leaders' emotional expressivity to their followers as a way of advancing goal attainment and the development of constructive interpersonal relationships (George, 2000). According to charismatic leadership theory, charismatic leaders deliberately express emotions to favorably influence their followers (Gardner & Avolio, 1998; Waldman & Yammarino, 1999; Weber, 1947). These leaders have been found to be more effective in interacting with their followers because of their use of emotionally arousing metaphors and similar strategies (Mio et al., 2005). Effective emotional expression influences subordinates' impressions of leaders' sincerity (Dasborough & Ashkanasy, 2002) and can be more important than the content of the message itself in influencing followers' assessment of their leader (Newcombe & Ashkanasy, 2002).

The role of emotional expressiveness has also been emphasized in transformational leadership theories. According to Bass and Avolio (1994), transformational leaders are characterized by four attributes: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. A leader's ability to be emotionally expressive involves two attributes of the transformational leadership—inspirational motivation and individualized consideration (Humphrey et al., 2008). Scholars argue that emotional labour strategies can help improve leaders' interaction with followers (Humphrey et al., 2008). As leaders are generally busy and often have hectic schedules, they may need to exert effort to make

their communication inspiring. In this context, leaders' emotional labour can help create the impression that they want to portray to their employees (Humphrey et al., 2008).

Authentic leaders are less likely to comply with emotional display rules than to choose display their true inner emotions (Gardner et al., 2009). As Avolio, Luthans, and Walumbwa (2004) state, authentic leaders are those “who are deeply aware of how they think and behave and are perceived by others as being aware of their own and others' values/moral perspectives, knowledge, and strengths; aware of the context in which they operate; and who are confident, hopeful, optimistic, resilient, and of high moral character” (p. 4). However, given the extensive emotional display rules that come with leadership, scholars now question whether it is realistic to assume that leaders can consistently violate such display rules to remain authentic without considering an effective approach to display appropriate emotion when necessary (Gardner et al., 2009; George, 2000; Humphrey, 2002; Humphrey et al., 2008). It is difficult to assert that leaders' appropriate emotional display aimed at reducing employee anxiety and improving their morale in the face of an emotionally challenging organizational event would be perceived as inauthentic by employees.

Hypotheses Development

In this section, I first establish the hypotheses of direct effects of employee perception of leader emotion regulation on employee outcomes, then, I will offer the mediating hypothesis between employee perception of leader deep acting and the employee outcome variables.

Perceived Leader Authenticity

As discussed in previous section, leaders have a significant influence over group members' emotional states, attitudes, and behaviours. Thus, in emotionally challenging events, employee perception of leader surface acting and deep acting will have different impact on

employee outcomes (Humphrey, 2012; Humphrey et al. 2008). Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) describe surface acting as displaying emotions that are not actually felt and that are generally presented with verbal and non-verbal cues such as facial expression, gesture, and voice tone. Thus, when managers surface act, subordinates are likely to view them as “acting.” In a stressful work situation, surface acting does not mean that managers experience no emotion, nor does it mean that they are not concerned about their subordinates’ well-being. Rather, it means that portrayed emotion differs from felt emotion and that managers are unable to display appropriate emotions in “good faith.” Managers who engage in surface acting are unlikely to favorably impress their followers (Gardner et al., 2009). This is accompanied by unwanted secondary impressions that the manager is insincere and manipulative (Gardner & Martinko, 1988).

Therefore, I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 1: Employee perception of leader surface acting is negatively related to employee perception of leader authenticity.

In contrast to surface acting, deep acting reflects an actor’s efforts to modify inner feelings to match emotional display rules (Grandey, 2000, 2003; Hochschild, 1983).

Nonetheless, since deep acting also requires some level of manipulation of inner feelings in violation of naturally emerging emotions, actors’ authenticity may still be compromised.

However, empirical evidence suggests that individuals who engage in deep acting as opposed to surface acting experience higher levels of authenticity (Shulei & Miner, 2006). Brotheridge and Lee (2002) found that deep acting was positively (weak significance) related to the actor’s feelings of authenticity. Grandey (2003) found that for a service worker, deep acting was positively related to co-workers’ ratings of affective delivery, because deep acting is more likely to be perceived as authentic. Taking my lead from these findings, I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 2: Employee perception of leader deep acting positively related to employee perception of leader authenticity.

Perceived Leadership Effectiveness

Although the study of leadership and affect is still an emerging field, there is increasing recognition of the importance of emotion in leadership effectiveness (Edelman & Van Knippenberg, 2016; Humphrey, 2012). Leadership effectiveness is defined as leaders' ability to mobilize and motivate subordinates (Brief & Weiss 2002). Conceptual scholarly works assert that leaders' affective display of and ability to regulate emotion is an important factor in leadership effectiveness (Ashkanasy & Humphrey, 2011; Gooty et al., 2010; Humphrey et al., 2008; Van Knippenberg et al., 2008). Compared to surface acting, employee perception of leader deep acting is likely to be regarded as socially competent and interpersonally sensitive to the observers (Hunt et al., 2008). Appropriate use of emotion regulation is likely to establish better leader-member relationships and help leaders exhibit charismatic and transformational leadership (Fisk & Friesen, 2012; Humphrey, 2012). Thus, employee perception of leader appropriate display of emotion, which is deep acting, is likely to be related to employee assessment of leader effectiveness. Therefore, it is expected that leaders who are perceived to a deep actor, are likely to be perceived as more effective than leaders who surface act. Thus, I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 3: a) Employee perception of leader deep acting is positively associated with employee perception of leadership effectiveness, whereas b) employee perception of leader surface acting is negatively associated with employee perception of leader effectiveness.

Employee Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is as “an attitude toward one’s job” (Brief, 1998, p. 10). It is not an affective state, rather, an evaluative judgment one makes about one’s job or job situation (Weiss, 2002). Job satisfaction develops through cognitive and affective reactions of employees to their jobs (Judge & Ilies, 2004; Locke, 1969; Organ & Near, 1985). Research has shown that both affective and cognitive components contribute to overall attitude and behaviour (Locke, 1969; Weiss, 2001), and they have been studied both as independent and dependent variables (Chen, Ployhart, Thomas, Anderson, & Bliese, 2011; Judge, Bono, Erez, & Locke, 2005).

Deep acting is more effective than surface acting in fostering favorable audience impressions (Beal, Trougakos, Weiss, & Green, 2006; Bono & Vey, 2007; Shulei & Miner, 2006) and customer satisfaction (Hülshager & Schewe, 2011). In a service context, deep acting is likely to garner favorable impressions, yielding positive observer reactions such as satisfaction, a global attitudinal construct (Grandey, Fisk, Mattila, Jansen, & Sideman, 2005). In a leadership context, deep acting is more likely to be associated with a transformational or charismatic leadership style than surface acting is (Arnold et al., 2015; Fisk & Friesen, 2012). In contrast, the inauthenticity associated with surface acting conveys a leader’s lack of personal regard for their followers. Thus, leaders’ surface acting may be perceived as being manipulative and insincere by their followers (Bass, 1998; Conger, 1990; Hunt et al., 2008). Therefore, employee perception of leader surface acting and deep acting is likely to differentially influence their subordinates’ attitudes, such as job satisfaction. Hence, I propose:

Hypothesis 4: a) Employee perception of leader deep acting is positively associated with employee job satisfaction, whereas b) negatively associated with employee perception of leader surface acting.

Employee Job Stress

Parker and DeCotiis (1983) defined job stress as “the feeling of a person who is required to deviate from normal or self-desired functioning in the work place as the result of opportunities, constraints, or demands relating to potentially important work-related outcomes” (p. 165). Job stress may have dysfunctional psychological or physiological consequences. Work related stress exists when an employee is confronted with demands, constraints, or opportunities for being, having, or doing what he or she desires, which may lead to psychological, physical, and behavioural symptoms (Schuler, 1980). As emotional labour can impact both leaders’ and subordinates’ stress or well-being, scholars have called for examining these outcomes in the leadership context (Bono & Vey, 2005; Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002).

Emotional regulation may negatively impact leaders’ (as an actor) stress and well-being. However, it has the potential to significantly reduce their subordinates’ stress. The way in which leaders influence their followers’ positive feelings and reduce stress can be explained with the concept of emotional contagion. Leaders’ displayed emotion spreads like a contagion to other group members (Barsade, 2002; Johnson, 2009). The process of contagion is referred to as “the tendency to automatically mimic and synchronize facial expressions, vocalizations, postures, and movements with those of another person and consequently, to converge emotionally” (Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1992, pp. 153–154). One of a leader’s important responsibilities is to influence their followers’ moods and behaviours, and group affect (Barsade, 2002; Sy et al., 2005), which requires emotional synchronization with their followers before they can guide them towards a productive emotional state (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002). As leaders’ moods are emotionally contagious to followers, it is likely that leaders’ emotion regulation significantly affects employees’ stress levels. For example, in the face of an organizational crisis or difficulty, a leader may use emotion regulation strategies to spare the followers’ worry about the situation

by displaying confidence, optimism, and hope. A stressed-out leader's inability to regulate their emotion can cause their negative emotions to be transmitted to their followers. However, the effects on followers' stress levels will vary depending on the emotion regulation strategies used by the leader. I expect that employee perception of leader deep acting in a difficult situation can boost the moods of both managers and employees. However, a worried and stressed-out manager's surface acting to boost followers' moods can also reduce the stress level of the employees (although such acting may cause the manager's stress to increase). Because surface acting by leader is expected to have some favourable effect on employee stress than display of felt negative emotion with no regulation at all. Therefore, I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 5: Employee perception of a) leader deep acting and b) surface acting are negatively associated with their employee job stress. However, c) the relationship will be stronger in the case of deep acting than in surface acting.

Mediating Role of Perceived Leader Authenticity

The above discussion of the favorable impact of employee perception of leader deep acting on followers over surface acting points to a central characteristic of deep acting—the authenticity and sincerity associated with it. Deep acting reflects the actor's effort to modify inner feelings to match emotional display rules (Grandey, 2000, 2003; Hochschild, 1983). Although deep acting also requires some level of manipulation of inner feelings in violation of naturally emerging emotions, empirical evidence suggests that individuals who engage in deep acting as opposed to surface acting experience higher levels of authenticity (Shulei & Miner, 2006). Leaders who deep act foster emotional connections with their followers and are able to read, interpret, and express emotion, which in turn engenders follower trust, respect, and positive emotions (Barling, Slater, & Kelloway, 2000; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996).

It is intuitive that leaders who deep act in challenging work situations are more likely to be regarded as socially competent and interpersonally sensitive, which triggers followers' liking and in turn, favourable attitudes and behaviours (Hunt, Gardner, & Fischer, 2008). Grandey (2003) found that among service workers, deep acting was positively related to co-workers' ratings of affective delivery because deep acting was more likely to be perceived as authentic by the observers. Research found that deep actors are effective in fostering favorable audience reactions (Beal, Trougakos, Weiss, & Green, 2006; Bono & Vey, 2007; Shulei & Miner, 2006), yielding positive observer reactions (Grandey, Fisk, Mattila, Jansen, & Sideman, 2005).

Thus, it is expected that a leader's sincere emotional display through deep acting is likely to be perceived by the employees as authentic, which in turn, expected to mediate the relationship between employee perception of leader deep acting and employee job satisfaction, employee assessment of leadership effectiveness and reduced job stress. Thus, I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 6: Employee perception of leader authenticity mediates the positive relationship between employee perception of leader deep acting and leadership effectiveness.

Hypothesis 7: Employee perception of leader authenticity mediates the positive relationship between employee perception of leader deep acting and employee job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 8: Employee perception of leader authenticity mediates the negative relationship between employee perception of leader deep acting and employee job stress.

Methods

Self-Reports

I decided to use self-reporting survey to operationalize the theoretical models of study 1.

The central focus of study 1 involves employee perceptions, which can, of course, only be obtained from the employees themselves (Conway & Lance, 2010; Judge, Bono, & Locke, 2000; Shalley, Gilson, & Blum, 2009). For the outcome variables (job satisfaction, job stress, and employees' assessment of their leaders' effectiveness), employees were the appropriate source of data because I wanted to measure their perceptions (see Chan, 2009; Skinner, 1957). In regard to the predictor variables (deep acting and surface acting), irrespective of leaders' reports about their adopted strategy, it is the employees whose perceptions about leaders' strategy matter in assessing the impact of these strategies on them (employees).

However, it is widely established that self-reports influence study results, which calls for the adoption of certain procedural and statistical remedies to reduce the likelihood of procedure common-method bias (CMB; Conway & Lance, 2010; Lindell & Whitney, 2001; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). I will discuss the remedies I used in my survey design, survey administration, and statistical analysis in the common-method variance section.

Pilot Study

Prior to distributing the survey to the target population, I conducted a pilot study using an online survey. The main purpose of the pilot study was to test the research instrument (Baker, 1994). Pilot studies are used to improve the clarity of the instrument by identifying misleading or redundant questions and to assess if respondents had any difficulty in responding (De Vaus, 1993). A total of 25 individuals participated in the pilot survey, they were 15 doctoral students and 10 employees who were working full-time in an organization similar to the target organization in Bangladesh I collected data from.

The use of doctoral students in the pilot study was particularly helpful because doctoral students receive rigorous training on survey design, and they can critically analyze the content

and structure of the survey. Upon completion of the survey, the students provided important feedback on the survey's instructions, the organization of the survey questions, the clarity of the questions, and the survey completion time. The employed individuals advised me on how to improve the clarity of some of the questions and the survey instructions. I used Google Forms to conduct the survey. None of the participants of the pilot study reported any technical difficulties in responding to the survey questions and submitting the survey after completion. Completion time reported by all participants of the pilot study ranged from 11 to 18 minutes, which was within the expected average of 15 minutes. While the pilot study consisted of a single survey completed in one session, for the actual survey, I divided the questionnaire into two parts to be completed at two different times. After the completion of the pilot survey, I downloaded the data into Excel and then assessed the psychometric properties of the constructs of the scales used (i.e., Cronbach's alpha). The analysis showed Cronbach's alpha to be greater than .75 (Cortina, 1993) for all the measures.

Based on the feedback provided by the participants, I revised the survey and prepared for data collection from the sample participants.

Procedure and Sample

Data were collected from three business units of a reputable Bangladeshi financial company, headquartered in Dhaka, that were involved in financing services (loans, mortgages, credit card, etc.), retail securities trading, and financial asset management, respectively. I found the company suitable as it was going through some business challenges, mainly due to continued fall of share prices of Bangladeshi companies, affecting their overall business. This challenging context was suitable to investigate my research questions. The company agreed to participate in the study with the expectation that the findings would be shared with its senior management. The

company agreed to participate in both my studies, allowing me to collect data from two separate employee groups, employees for study 1 and managers for study 2. After discussion with the HR department, I decided to conduct survey 1 first. With the help of the HR department, the invitation to participate in study 1 was sent online (with the survey URL using Google Forms) to 460 employees of the three business units.

While the sample was from a single organization, it was essentially a simple random sample from about 2500 employees. The participants had multiple different jobs, at different job levels (financial services industry usually have many levels of hierarchy), in different business units. So, the data are believed to be independent with remote chance of systematic nesting possibility. So, while I didn't remove all instances where people might have the same manager, my sampling strategy should have taken care of that problem to the extent where it is minimal, and unlikely to have a systematic effect on the results.

Although Part I of the questionnaire was about predictor variables and demographic information and part II was about employee outcome variables. In part I, in order to capture employees' perception about the emotion regulation strategies adopted by their supervisors during challenging organizational events, participants were asked if they often experienced challenging events or situations at work that caused negative emotions such as anxiety, frustration, anger, fear, irritation, etc. They were then asked to indicate what they thought of their manager's/supervisor's emotion management style during these situations. Part I also included questions about perceived leader authenticity, perceived leadership effectiveness, and demographic information. A week later, the link to part II was sent via the HR department to the respondents.

Upon the expiration of the seven days (then an extension of three days) response time, I

downloaded the survey responses from Google Forms into Excel and transferred the item responses into numeric codes as per the corresponding scale items. A total of 208 participants responded to the survey. However, 33 responses were incomplete, with either part I or part II missing, leaving 175 completed employee surveys which were analyzed using SPSS.

Out of the 175 participants who responded, three participants did not indicate their gender, choosing the response option “do not want to answer.” 134 (78%) participants identified themselves as male and 38 (22%) as female. The average age of the 175 participants was 37.2 years. All the participants had completed either a bachelor or master’s degree. Given the nature of the job (financial) and the availability of bachelor degree holders in the job market, the human resources department informed me that the minimum qualification of these jobs was a bachelor degree, preferably in commerce.

Measures

Employee perception of leader surface acting and deep acting were measured using Brotheridge and Lee’s (2003) scale- a widely used scale in the studies of emotional labour. The questions were modified to capture employees’ perceptions of their supervisor’s/manager’s emotion regulation strategies. Items were measured on a five-point Likert scale ranging from “Strongly Disagree” (1) to “Strongly Agree” (5). Sample items to measure surface acting included “My supervisor/manager resists expressing her/his true feelings” and “My supervisor/manager hides true feelings about a situation.” Cronbach’s alpha for the scale surface acting was .73. Sample items to measure deep acting included “My supervisor/manager makes an effort to actually feel the emotions that she/he needs to display to others” and “My supervisor/manager tries to actually experience the emotions that she/he must show.” Cronbach’s alpha for deep acting was .83.

Job satisfaction was measured using Seashore, Lawler, Mirvis, and Cammann's (1982) three-item scale. This is a widely used scale to measure job satisfaction with satisfactory reliability. Items were measured on a five-point Likert scale ranging from "Strongly Disagree" (1) to "Strongly Agree" (5). Two of the items from this scale were "I enjoy what I do in my job" and "All in all, I am satisfied with my job." Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .85.

Job stress was measured using 10 items of Parker and DeCotiis's (1983) 15-item scale. Items were measured on a five-point Likert scale ranging from "Strongly Disagree" (1) to "Strongly Agree" (5). Sample items of this scale were "I have felt fidgety or nervous as a result of my job," "Working here makes it hard to spend enough time with my family," and "My job gets to me more than it should." Cronbach's alpha for job stress was .85.

Leadership effectiveness was measured with Van Knippenberg and Van Knippenberg's (2005) five-item scale on a five-point Likert scale ranging from "Strongly Disagree" (1) to "Strongly Agree" (5). Sample items of this scale include "My supervisor is an excellent leader" and "My supervisor leads in a way that motivates people." Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .92.

Leader authenticity was measured using Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, and Peterson's (2008) eight-item scale on a five-point Likert scale ranging from "Strongly Disagree" (1) to "Strongly Agree" (5). Two of the sample items of this scale were "My supervisor seeks feedback to improve interactions with others" and "Says exactly what he or she means." Cronbach's alpha for leader authenticity was .84.

Control variable. I have controlled for age. Age has been included as a control in numerous past studies on emotional labour and similar studies on leader emotion regulation as

perceived by their subordinates (Fisk & Friesen, 2012). *Age*: Participants' mean age score was 37.26 with $SD = 6.2$.

Missing Values and Outliers

Seven participants did not report their age. Because of an error in properly inserting the Likert-scale of an item for power distance in the Google Form, that particular item was not captured across all participants. Other than that, no other missing value was found. I replaced these missing values of age with the mean age of the rest of the participants as calculated in SPSS. While this has this potential to reduce the true standard deviation and the standard error, only seven replacements were made, which likely had little impact on the overall variance (Field, 2009).

Common-Method Variance (CMV)

Before beginning my analyses, I checked whether the data suffered from common-method variance (CMV). Such variance is attributable to the method of collecting data rather than to the construct of interest (Podsakoff et al., 2003). CMV can inflate or deflate the relationship between two constructs, or have no effect, thus increasing the likelihood of committing Type I or Type II errors. It can also lead to assessments around how much variance in the dependent variable is due to independent variables, and also increase or decrease the nomological and discriminant validity of a scale (Podsakoff et al., 2003; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012). Keeping this in mind and following the guidelines offered by several scholars (Chang, Van Witteloostuijn, & Eden, 2010; Lindell & Whitney, 2001; Podsakoff et al., 2003, 2012), I made several adjustments to the survey and in administering the data collection. I then performed a statistical analysis to assess the CMV.

Design and procedural remedies. In order to minimize the CMV, I collected responses

from participants at two separate times. This shortened the time needed to complete each part of the questionnaire, minimizing the possibility of transient mood states such as boredom and fatigue. Scholars observe that if respondents perceive a questionnaire as excessively long and repetitive, they are likely to reduce their cognitive effort and shift from response accuracy to response speed as they progress through the questionnaire (Lindell & Whitney, 2001). Such a situation can make later items in the questionnaire most susceptible to response styles, distortion in the direction of consistency with previous responses, and stereotypic responding (for example, midrange responses or only extreme responses; Lindell & Whitney, 2001). Thus, for part I, I collected responses on predictor variables and demographic information, and after a week, I administered part II of the survey to collect information on outcome variables from the participants.

In designing the questionnaire, I used different Likert-scale types as well as reverse coded several measure items to reduce the potential for CMV. This approach of eliminating common-scale properties also helped to reduce CMV (Podsakoff et al., 2012). Assuring respondents of their anonymity by clearly stating it in the consent form was another measure I used to reduce method bias. In addition, I also clearly stated that there were no right and wrong answers. This approach reduced participants' evaluation apprehension and the chances of social desirability bias. By adopting a "balancing" strategy, I reversed some of the items to control for acquiescence (yea saying) and dis-acquiescence (nay saying) biases.

Finally, I used a marker variable in the questionnaire to assess method bias. In using the CMV model, it can be helpful to equate the variables with respect to method variance (MV) susceptibility because MV-marker variable analysis can remove these effects to the degree that they are common to all variables (Harrison, McLaughlin, & Coalter, 1996). I used the three-item

measure of feedback-seeking behaviour (FSB; Ashford & Cumming, 1983) as the marker variable. The correlation co-efficient of FSB with other variables demonstrated non-significant associations between them, suggesting an unfavorable indication of CMV.

Statistical remedies. Confirmatory factor analyses were performed to assess the CMV and discriminant validity of the constructs (Podsakoff et al., 2003). However, prior to my confirmatory factor analysis, I performed an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) to assess the factor loading of all variables (except controls and marker variable) to be analyzed for hypotheses testing, because leadership effectiveness is a relatively new scale (Van Knippenberg & Van Knippenberg, 2005). The KMO test performed in SPSS showed a value of .83, indicating sample adequacy, and a significant Bartlett's test demonstrated homogeneity of the variances across the sample.

The pattern matrix of EFA demonstrated a few cross-loadings of items across variables. In order to improve factor loading, I removed three items from the 10-item construct of job stress. These items were "I feel nervous as a result of my job," "There are lots of times when my job drives me right up the wall," and "I feel like I never have a day off." Three items were removed from leader authenticity: "My supervisor/manager seeks feedback to improve interactions with others," "My supervisor/manager accurately describes how others view his or her capabilities," and "My supervisor/manager demonstrates beliefs that are consistent with actions." The two items removed from leadership effectiveness were "My supervisor is an effective leader" and "My supervisor leads in a way that motivates people." One item, "Managers generally should not ask for the opinions of their employees," was removed from the construct of power distance. After removing these items from the constructs, the pattern matrix gave an acceptable factor loading of variables, including the marker variable feedback-seeking

behaviour (FSB). A total of 70% of the variances were explained by six factors.

Using Amos 24, I conducted Harman's single-factor test to assess CMV (Podsakoff et al., 2003). To gauge the model fit, I used a comparative fit index (CFI; Bentler, 1990), the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), the incremental goodness of fit index (IFI), and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA; Steiger, 1990). The CFI, IFI, and TLI are considered the best approximations of the population value for a single model, with values greater than or equal to .90 considered indicative of a good fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1993; Hoyle, 1995; Medsker, Williams, & Holahan, 1994). For the RMSEA, a value of less than or equal to .08 is considered favorable (Kline, 2011) and has been reported in previous studies (Aksoy & Bayazit, 2014; Beenen & Pichler, 2014; Shen, Benson, & Huang, 2014).

Various measurement models were tested in which the indicators for all variables were allowed to load onto their respective factors. All factors were allowed to correlate. The measurement model using six variables as illustrated in Figure 1 (deep acting, surface acting, leader authenticity, job satisfaction, leadership effectiveness, and job stress) indicated a good fit to the data (χ^2/df) = 1.60, χ^2 = 345.22, CFI = .93, IFI = .922, TLI = .935, RMSEA = .059).

To check for the discriminant validity, different models were compared against the six-factor model. The χ^2 difference test showed that the chi-square differences between model 1 and all other models were highly significant. Hence, all these constructs were discriminant from each other (see Table 1). The comparative results of the fit indices of six-factor, five-factor, four-factor, three-factor, and single-factor models indicated that the six-factor model was the best fit of all of them (shown in bold in Table 1).

Table 1

Further, to check the convergent and discriminant validity of the model constructs, I separately computed average variance extracted (AVE), maximum shared variance (MSV), and composite reliability (CR) using standardized regression weights and correlation values from AMOS estimate output. The AVEs of all the variables were well above $>.5$, with two values at a marginal range of $.49$ for job stress and $.46$ for surface acting. Considering their respective Cronbach's alpha and CR, I see no reason for concern as AVE is a strict measure, and reliability can be established through CR alone (Malhotra & Dash, 2011). Table 2 shows the AVEs and CRs of the six variables.

Table 2

After assessing model fitness, and convergent and discriminant validity of the variables, I used SPSS to perform regression to test my hypotheses. First, I computed composite variables in SPSS (excluding the items removed) and then checked skewness, kurtosis, histograms, and normal distribution curves of the computed composite constructs. The skewness and kurtosis values were within an acceptable range, and distribution curves were close enough to normal that no data transformations were considered necessary.

Results

The Pearson's correlation matrix of the variables of study 1 showed the expected significant relationship with no significant relationships with control variables (age, power distance). As expected, deep acting was positively related with leader authenticity ($r = .60, p <.01$), job satisfaction ($r = .43, p <.01$), leadership effectiveness ($r = .64, p <.01$), and no significant correlation with job stress. On the other hand, surface acting was found to be negatively related with leader authenticity ($r = -.44, p <.01$), job satisfaction ($r = -.19, p <.05$),

leadership effectiveness ($r = -.33, p < .01$), and positively related with job stress ($r = .24, p < .05$). The two predictors deep acting and surface acting were negatively correlated ($r = -.30, p < .05$).

Table 3

Hierarchical Linear Regression

I ran four hierarchical regression models in SPSS to test the hypotheses on the effects of employee perception of leader deep and surface acting on perceived leader authenticity, perceived leadership effectiveness, employee job satisfaction, and job stress. Hierarchical regression is a way to show if variables of interest explain a statistically significant amount of variance in dependent variable (DV) after accounting for all other variables. This is a framework for model comparison, in which I built four regression models by adding variables to a previous model at each step; later models include smaller models in previous steps. Participants' age and perception of power distance were controlled in testing hierarchical linear regressions. The results are shown in Table 4.

Table 4

In all four regression models performed, the variance inflation factor (VIF) values were well below less than 5, indicating no multicollinearity issues among the constructs of interest. All probability plots of regression standardized residuals showed a normal distribution of the residuals. The potential influence and leverage of multivariate outliers of the regression models were analyzed using Cook's distance approach during the regression analysis of all four regression equations. Although the scatterplot (unstandardized predicted values in X axis) of the cook's distances of the model shows that some records are bit away from the overall trend cook's

distance of the unstandardized predicted values, maximum value of most of the distances are much lower than 1. Given the sample size and the low maximum value of the Cook's distances, it is highly unlikely that the outliers unduly influenced the results of the regressions.

Taking leader authenticity as dependent variable, model 1 was found to be significant and accounted for 40 percent of the variability in leader authenticity ($F = 38.9, p < .001, R^2$ of .4). As predicted, employee perception of leader deep acting was positively associated with employees' perception of leader authenticity ($b = .56, t = 8.9, p < .001$), whereas employee perception surface acting was negatively associated with employees' perception of leader authenticity ($b = -.19, t = -3.1, p < .01$). Thus, hypotheses 1 and 2 were supported.

Model 2 was also significant ($F = 33.7, p < .001, R^2 = .42$), and explained 42 percent of the variability in perceptions of leader effectiveness. As predicted, in regards to hypotheses 3a and 3b, employee perception of leader deep acting was positively associated with employees' perception of leadership effectiveness ($b = .62, t = 9.16, p < .001$), whereas employee perceptions of leader surface acting was found to be negatively associated with employees' perception of leadership effectiveness ($b = -.22, t = -3.15, p < .01$). Therefore, hypotheses 3a and 3b were supported.

Model 3 was also significant ($F = 14.23, p < .001, R^2 = .2$), and explained 20 percent of the variability in employee job satisfaction. Employee perceptions of leader deep acting was significantly and positively related to employees' job satisfaction ($b = .41, t = 5.82, p < .001$), supporting hypothesis 4a. However, hypothesis 4b was not supported, as there was no significant relationship between employee perceptions of leader surface acting and employee job satisfaction ($b = .07, t = -.96$).

Finally, taking employee job stress as the dependent variable, model 4 was found to be significant ($F = 3.91, p < .05$, with $R^2 = .64$), and explained 64 percent of the variability in perceptions of employees job stress. Results suggested that leaders' surface acting was significantly related to employees' job stress ($b = .25, t = 3.38, p < .001$), but deep acting was non-significantly related to job stress ($b = .07, ns$). Hypotheses 5a and 5b were not supported.

The direct relationships of four hierarchical regression equations are shown in Figure 2.

Figure 2

Mediation Analysis

In hypotheses 6 and 7, I propose that employees' perceptions of their leaders' authenticity mediates the positive relationship between leader deep acting and employee job satisfaction and between deep acting and perceived leadership effectiveness, as well as mediating the negative relationship between deep acting and employees job stress. These hypotheses were tested using the SPSS process macro (model 4) developed by Hayes (2013) that uses the bootstrapping technique to test for the indirect effects (Hayes, 2009). I used 5,000 bootstrap samples at a 95% confidence interval to conduct a test of indirect effect (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). Bootstrapping technique is widely recognized as one of the most valid and effective methods to test for the intervening effects because it imposes no distributional assumption (Hayes, 2009). Additionally, it generates an empirical representation of the sampling distribution of the indirect effect by drawing a large number of samples through continuous replacement from the original research samples (Hayes, 2009). To substantiate hypotheses 6 and 7, I ran two different mediation models.

In the first mediation model, I used employee job satisfaction as the dependent variable, employee perception of leader deep acting as the independent variable, and leader authenticity as

the mediator. I also included age and power distance as control variables in both models. The results, as shown in Table 5, indicate that there was a significant positive indirect effect of deep acting on job satisfaction ($b = .26$, 95% CI [.15, .37]). The results showed that employee perception of leader deep acting affects employee job satisfaction through employees' perceptions of their leaders' authenticity. Therefore, hypothesis 7 was supported.

Table 5

Figure 3

In the second mediation model, I used perceived leadership effectiveness as the dependent variable, deep acting as the independent variable, and leader authenticity as the mediator. Participants' age and perception of power distance were included as control variables. The results, as shown in Table 6, indicated that there was a significant positive indirect effect of deep acting on job satisfaction: the bootstrapped 95% CI around the indirect effect did not contain zero for the relationship between employee perception of leader deep acting and perceived leadership effectiveness (95% CI [.29, .60]). The results suggested that employee perception of leader deep acting affected leadership effectiveness through the employees' perception of leader authenticity. Therefore, hypothesis 6 was supported.

Table 6

Figure 4

Although I did not find the predicted direct relationship between employee perception of leader deep acting and employee job stress as predicted in hypothesis 5a, I ran the mediation hypothesis 8 using Hayes's (Hayes, 2009) model 4 of process macro to test for the indirect effects. However, no significant indirect relationship was found. Thus, hypothesis 8 was not supported.

Discussion

Leadership scholars acknowledge the role of emotions in the leader-follower relationship and have called for studies on emotion regulation in jobs other than frontline service work (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Ashkanasy et al., 2017a; Morris & Feldman, 1996; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987), particularly in leadership (Gardner et al., 2009; Humphrey et al., 2008). Others have been more specific about exploring the “bright side” of emotion regulation with a focus on deep acting (Huang et al., 2015; Humphrey et al., 2015). Study 1 addresses these calls and explores how employees’ perceptions of their leaders’ deep acting favorably impacted employee job satisfaction and assessment of their leaders’ effectiveness through the mediator perceived leader authenticity.

The study theoretically extends emotion regulation research in an effort to link perceptions of leaders’ emotion regulation with followers’ work attitudes and behaviours. The study found that employees are able to differentiate between leaders’ surface acting and deep acting, and that they reacted differentially to the emotion regulation strategies displayed by their supervisors. In the theoretical model of study 1, I predicted that employee perception of leader surface acting, to the extent that it results in perceived leader inauthenticity, would generate unfavorable observer (employee) reactions on outcomes of job satisfaction, stress, and perceived leader effectiveness. In contrast, I predicted that employee perception of leader deep acting,

through its associated positive mediating effect on leader authenticity, would favorably impact the employee outcomes. Overall, the study supported the theoretical model with limited deviation from the expectations. Employee perception of leader deep acting was found to be positively associated with employees' job satisfaction and their perception of their leader's authenticity, in which the relationships were mediated by employees' perceptions of their leaders' authenticity. As expected, surface acting was found to be negatively related to employees' perception of their leaders' authenticity, leadership effectiveness, and employee job satisfaction.

One of the significant theoretical contributions of this study is its finding that the perception of leader authenticity was a mediator between employee perception of leader deep acting and employee (as observer) outcome variables. The recent favourable findings of deep acting on observer reactions (Bono & Vey, 2005; Huang et al., 2015; Hülshager & Schewe, 2011; Judge et al., 2009; Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2011) warrant researchers' attention to explore the mediating mechanism of such relationships, that is, what enhances its potential benefit (Huang et al., 2015). This study partly addresses this theoretical extension in the study of leadership, finding that employees' perception of their leaders' authenticity can explain the positive impact of their perception of leader deep acting on followers' attitudes and behaviour.

In contrast to deep acting, surface acting was found to be negatively associated with employees' perception of their leaders' authenticity. Fisk and Friesen (2010) expressed their concern that deep acting is not a truly authentic leader behaviour. As deep acting assumes some level of compromised authenticity, it is likely to alienate the actor from their true self (Trilling, 1972), and thus future research should explore more specifically the role of leader emotion

regulation and authenticity (Fisk & Friesen, 2010). This study offers evidence that leaders' deep acting may, in fact, be perceived as authentic by employees, resulting in positive follower impressions, such as job satisfaction, a global attitudinal construct (Grandey et al., 2005).

Contrary to expectation, neither leaders' deep acting nor surface acting was found to be negatively associated with employee stress, rather, surface acting was positively associated with stress at a moderate significance ($b = .25, p < .01$). It might be that factors other than those examined were more proximal determinants of employee job stress. Furthermore, the positive association of surface acting with stress warrants scholarly attention for future investigation. A possible scenario could be, as there exist an intimate relationship between a manager and an employee, making the employee's expectation from the leader is higher than that in the service context- where the relationship between employees and clients are usually not close. In social relationships, emotions expressed by one party prompt the other party to make inferences about their relationship (Lawler, 2001; Lawler & Thye, 1999; Liden & Graen, 1980). For example, if party A's expressed emotions are inconsistent with the expectations of party B, party B is likely to perceive them as a violation of their underlying relationship, which in turn may generate a negative attitudinal or behavioural response (Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997). Thus, in such a psychologically close relationship, a manager's surface acting may increase employees' stress instead of decreasing it. Future research is needed on this issue.

The negative correlation between employees' perception of their leader's surface acting and deep acting ($r = -.35, p < .05$) is in contrast to the significant positive correlation between these two regulation strategies found consistently in service employees. A positive correlation between surface and deep acting on the part of emotion regulation actors, points to employees' adherence to, rather than noncompliance of, emotional display rules (Huang et al., 2015). Since I

measured employees' perception of their managers' emotion regulation (managers being the actors), this negative correlation makes sense because deep acting is conceptually opposite to surface acting, where employees perceive their managers' deep acting as authentic. Fisk and Friesen (2010), who measured employees' perception of their leaders' emotion regulation, though non-significant, found a similar negative correlation ($r = -.16$) between surface and deep acting. Such negative correlation, when measured from the observer's point of view, reveals the different perceptions of emotion regulation strategies and their associated impact on observer outcomes, offering important future research opportunities.

Limitations

It can be argued that the observed relationships identified in this study were susceptible to Common Method Bias (CMB) as I collected self-reported data. As the purpose of this research was to demonstrate how perceptions of leader emotion regulation influence subordinates' job attitudes and behaviours, I believe that the self-reporting strategy employed was appropriate (see also Chan, 2009; Dasborough & Ashkanasy, 2002; Gerstner & Day, 1997; Martinko & Gardner, 1987) and in line with calls for research examining followers' experience of leadership (e.g., Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). However, aware of scholars' cautions (Conway & Lance, 2010; Lindell & Whitney, 2001; Podsakoff et al., 2003), I took several steps in the survey design and survey administration, and undertook the appropriate statistical remedies to minimize this concern. In addition to the measures of the survey design (changing the order of questionnaire, reverse coding, usage of a marker variable and different scales), I collected predictor and outcome data at two different times (parts I and II). A statistical test (i.e., Harman's single-factor technique) showed that CMB was not a concern for this study. Although I controlled for employees' ages and perceptions of power distance in the regression equations, the use of more

control variables such as positive and negative affectivity and social desirability could have further minimized the potential susceptibility of CMB.

In regards to convergent and discriminant validity of the constructs used in this study, the AVE of job stress (.49) and surface acting (.46) were a little less than the generally desired level of .5 or above. This could be seen as a concern. However, as suggested by Malhotra and Dash (2011), such concern can alternatively be evaluated by a respective acceptable Cronbach's alpha and CR, which are .73 and .67 for surface acting and .85 and .87 for job stress, because AVE is often regarded as a strict measure, and reliability can be established through CR alone (Malhotra & Dash, 2011).

Study 1 can be critiqued for not adopting a dyadic approach to data collection to examine the impact of leader emotion regulation on the employees they directly supervise. Such an analysis would have provided more precise results. However, future research could employ a dyadic analysis to examine the impact of leader emotion regulation on their direct reports.

Usage of multiple hierarchical regressions instead of structural equation modeling (SEM) or path analysis can be argued as a potential limitation of study 1. However, the sample size (175) seemed not adequate to achieve a desired level of statistical power using these methods (McQuitty, 2004). Although sample size needed is affected by the normality of the data and estimation method used in research, the generally agreed-on value is 10 participants for every free parameter estimated (Schreiber, Nora, Stage, Barlow, & King, 2006). Although there is little consensus on the recommended sample size for SEM, Garver and Mentzer (1999), Hoelter (1983) proposed a critical sample size of 200 or more as a rule of thumb to achieve sufficient statistical power for data analysis.

The data for this study were collected in a non-North American culture, the

generalizability of the findings should be interpreted with caution. Since studies on the impact of leader emotion regulation on employees are rare, it is hard to evaluate the commonality of the findings. However, compared to studies of customer service workers, my findings are largely consistent with recent meta-analytical findings of surface and deep acting (Bono & Vey, 2005; Hülshager & Schewe, 2011; Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2011), suggesting the positive impact of deep acting on observer outcomes.

Finally, this was a cross-sectional study. Therefore, I cannot draw any conclusions regarding causality. It is possible that other determinants also affect employee job satisfaction. Similarly, employees' assessment of their leaders' authenticity or leadership effectiveness could have been impacted by other attributes or behaviours of their respective managers that were not included in the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

STUDY TWO: IMPACT OF LEADER EMOTIONAL REGULATION ON LEADERS THEMSELVES

Leadership theories recognize that leaders need to express emotions toward their followers (Weber, 1947; Bass, 1985) and empirical evidence suggest that leaders' emotional displays towards their employees are important factors and thus leader emotion regulation is necessary (Gardner et al., 2009; George, 2000; Humphrey, 2002; Humphrey et al., 2008). Despite the recognition that leaders' emotion is an important factor in leadership effectiveness (Ashkanasy & Humphrey 2011; Humphrey et al., 2008), it is only recently that leadership research has begun to consider the role of affect in leadership (Gooty et al., 2010; Van Kleef, et al., 2012; Van Knippenberg et al., 2008). While scholars recently offer conceptual guidelines to expand the study of emotion regulation among leaders (e.g., Ashkanasy & Humphrey, 2011; Gardner et al., 2009; Humphrey et al., 2008; IszattWhite, 2012), suggesting that it can result in favourable follower outcomes, literature on the impact of leader emotion regulation on leaders themselves is absent.

Studies of emotional labour consistently support the conclusion that engaging in emotion regulation has negative consequences, which is widely based on examinations of the well-being constructs of emotional dissonance and emotional exhaustion (Grandey & Melloy, 2017; Huang et al., 2015; Judge et al., 2009; Van Dijk & Brown, 2006). However, recent meta-analyses on emotional labour of service workers suggest that unlike surface acting, deep acting by service employees does not necessarily hinder actors' well-being (Bono & Vey, 2005; Hülshager & Schewe, 2011; Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013; Wang, Seibert, & Boles, 2011). These insights are promising in the sense that leaders appropriate emotion regulation, which is deep acting, may

not cause their impaired well-being as actors of emotion regulation. However, these positive insights of deep acting as well as unfavourable outcomes of surface acting cannot be readily assumed in leader emotion regulation without adequate empirical research. Because emotion regulation in leadership context differs greatly from emotion regulation among customer service workers, which I have discussed in the literature review section.

Thus, having examined the beneficial impact of employee perception about leader deep acting on employee outcomes in study 1, study 2 was designed to examine the impact of surface and deep acting on leaders themselves. Drawing from Hobfoll's (1989, 1998) conservation of resources (COR), and extant emotional labour literature of service workers, study 2 hypothesizes that while leaders' surface acting is associated with their emotional dissonance and emotional exhaustion, such a relationship is expected to be nonexistent in the case of leader deep acting.

Figure 5

Theoretical Framework

Although studies have examined the relationship between emotional labour and its consequences on performers from a variety of theoretical perspectives, there has been no overarching theoretical framework used to explain why such a relationship should exist (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002). In explaining the consequences of leader emotion regulation, I utilize Hobfoll's (1989, 1998) COR theory of stress. More specifically, based on COR theory, I discuss how leaders can incorporate social and personal resources into their role performances as a means of coping with actual or anticipated resource loss.

Conservation of Resources (COR) Theory

According to COR theory, people strive to obtain, retain, protect, and foster valued resources and minimize any threats of resource loss (Hobfoll, 1989). Threats to resource loss can take the form of role demands and the energy (and effort) expended toward meeting such demands. Organizational employees invest their resources in meeting certain job demands with the expectation of receiving positive gains in return, and they attempt to conserve their resources by making judgments about which resources would be most helpful at any given moment. Thus employees experience stress when valued resources cannot be regained. Hobfoll (1989) suggests that building rewarding social relations is the most important way that people can gain and regain resources.

From a COR perspective, leaders, like other employees, are presented with the emotional demands of their roles, such as displaying appropriate emotion towards their subordinates, depending on the demand of the situation. When an imbalance occurs between the emotional demands of work and the resources available to meet the demands, emotional strain may occur (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002). Thus, if an individual's engagement in emotion regulation does not generate the desired social and personal resources to offset the effort required, feelings of emotional dissonance are likely to follow, resulting in negative outcomes, such as emotional exhaustion. From a COR perspective, both surface and deep acting consume resources (Totterdell & Holman, 2003). However, they differ in whether they can lead to potential downstream resource gains that may offset such resource expense (Grandey & Gabriel, 2015).

Hypothesis Development

Emotional Dissonance

Emotional labour theory suggests that in order to comply with emotional display rules, engagement in emotion regulation can be perceived as burdensome when the demanded

emotional expression is not felt by the employee (Morris & Feldman 1996a). Such a “disturbing disequilibrium” between expressed and felt emotion is called emotional dissonance (Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000). Emotional dissonance is a cornerstone of emotional labour processes (Côté, 2005; Holman et al., 2008; Hülshager & Schewe, 2011; Rubin, Tardino, Daus, & Munz, 2005). It is defined as the conflict between emotions that are felt and emotions that are expected to be displayed (Holman et al., 2008; Middleton, 1989; Zapf & Holz, 2006). Emotional dissonance puts individuals in a state of tension. On the one hand, they cannot express their authentic feelings, and on the other, they cannot express the emotion required by display rules and norms without threatening their own sense of authenticity. This state of conflict is likely to lead to emotional exhaustion (Hülshager & Schewe, 2011). Emotional dissonance has been found to be positively related to major burnout, components of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization (Bakker & Heuven, 2006; Cheung & Tang, 2007; Diestel & Schmidt, 2011; Lee & Ok, 2012; Wegge, Van Dick, & Von Bernstorff, 2010).

Emotional Exhaustion

Emotional exhaustion refers to a lack of energy and a feeling that one’s emotional resources are used up. When performed authentically (genuine displays, and to a lesser extent, deep acting), emotional regulation has been found to be negatively associated with emotional exhaustion (Martínez-Iñigo, Totterdell, Alcover, & Holman, 2007). Empirical studies have shown that performance of emotional labour across a broad spectrum of occupations contributes to the emotional exhaustion of actors (Glomb & Tews, 2004; Grandey, 2003; Grandey, Kern, & Frone, 2007; Johnson & Spector, 2007). Using COR theory, Brotheridge and Lee (2002) found that the relationship between surface and deep acting was mediated by feelings of authenticity, where deep acting showed a small but significant positive relationship with authenticity, and

surface acting demonstrated a moderate and significant negative relationship. Authenticity was strongly and negatively related to emotional exhaustion.

Effect of Surface Acting on Emotional Dissonance and Emotional Exhaustion

From a COR perspective, surface acting can lead to a net loss of resources, since an inauthentic display of emotions is less likely to yield an upswing in positive resources (Grandey & Gabriel, 2015). Because surface acting requires the suppression of emotion, little support for authentic emotional expression is provided. In such emotion regulation, a leader may attempt to reduce this strain by investing less effort in their relationships with their subordinates. This experience of unrewarding relationships can adversely affect their sense of personal authenticity. Because one's sense of personal authenticity is reduced to the extent that one's behaviour is not authored by the self (Sheldon, Ryan, Rawsthorne, & Hardi, 1997), a sense of emotional dissonance can result. This, in turn, is likely to generate feelings of estrangement from self and others (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Hochschild, 1983). Consistent with this view, recent research and meta-analyses on the consequences of emotional labour among service workers indicate that surface acting positively predicts emotional exhaustion (Huang et al., 2015; Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011; Judge et al., 2009; Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013). Emotional dissonance has also been found to be a mediator in the relationship between emotional labour strategies and emotional exhaustion (Van Dijk & Brown, 2006). Taking my lead from this research, I hypothesize as follows:

Hypothesis 1: On a daily basis, leaders' surface acting is positively associated with a) emotional dissonance and b) emotional exhaustion.

Hypothesis 2: On a daily basis, leaders' emotional dissonance is positively associated with their emotional exhaustion.

Hypothesis 3: On a daily basis, the relationship between leaders' surface acting and emotional exhaustion is mediated by emotional dissonance.

Effect of Deep Acting on Emotional Dissonance and Emotional Exhaustion

Compared to surface acting, deep acting is considered to be less demanding (Goldberg & Grandey, 2007; Ma & Huang, 2006). Nonetheless, it is effortful and consumes emotional resources (Beal & Trougakos, 2013; Goodwin, 2011; Hülshager & Schewe, 2011). Past research also suggests that resource drains due to deep acting can be offset by resource gains (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Grandey & Gabriel, 2015). In contrast to surface acting, deep acting involves the alignment of inner feelings and displayed emotions, permitting an authentic expression of self (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002). Authenticity has been found to be strongly associated with personal well-being (Sheldon et al., 1997) and lack of authenticity with distress (Erickson & Wharton, 1997). Thus, deep acting can result in resource gains such as positive social feedback (Côté, 2005; Côté & Morgan, 2002) and genuine affective experience (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Scott & Barnes, 2011), which can compensate for the energy loss of engaging in deep acting.

Given the central proposition of this research that deep acting can favorably impact employee outcomes (as found in study 1) without impairing leaders' well-being, it is crucial to understand how leaders' deep acting can generate the necessary resource gains to offset the lost resources due to their engagement in emotion regulation. As my investigation draws on the theoretical framework of AET, I will focus on challenging organizational events as a resource to argue that leaders' experiences of challenging events can magnify the beneficial influence of deep acting. On a within-person level, recent research examined the potential role of employees' felt challenge to explicate the benefits of deep acting (Huang et al., 2015).

The resource gains made by leaders to compensate for the depletion of resources brought on by their deep acting can be explained in several ways. First, in a challenging organizational event, leaders' display of positive emotion towards their subordinates through deep acting allows them to experience positive affect, which is recognized as a self-regulatory resource (Aspinwall, 1998; Lyubomirsky, King, & Diener, 2005; Scott & Barnes, 2011). Second, based on the social interaction sequence perspective (Darley & Fazio, 1980), leaders' engagement in deep acting can amplify positive emotion in their team and foster positive social responses from their employees (Côté & Morgan, 2002). Finally, as Brotheridge and Lee (2002) observed, deep acting contributes to personal energy by heightening an individual's sense of personal accomplishment in the face of emotionally challenging situations. The same argument can be applied to leaders' engagement in deep acting.

Consistent with the above discussion, several recent research and meta-analyses support the conclusion that deep acting does not impair an actor's well-being. Using an experience sampling design, Huang et al. (2015) found that deep acting was less emotionally exhausting for service providers when they saw their tasks as more challenging. Hülshager and Schewe (2011) demonstrated that deep acting was unrelated to psychological strain or feelings of depersonalization, and only slightly related to emotional exhaustion. Wang et al. (2011) found that deep acting was unrelated to emotional exhaustion or depersonalization. In line with these findings, Kammeyer-Mueller et al. (2013) also found that deep acting was unrelated to actors' stress and emotional exhaustion and that it was positively related to actors' job satisfaction and job performance. Overall, the research on the effects of emotional labour in the service context suggest that deep acting does not necessarily hinder actors' well-being. Therefore, I do not

expect that leaders' deep acting will be unrelated with their emotional dissonance and emotional exhaustion.

Methods

Diary Study

Diaries as a method are a form of daily data collection, or even several times a day, by the same individual (Ohly, Sonnentag, Niessen, & Zapf, 2010). Compared to the more common methods used in work and organizational psychology, that is, cross-sectional or longitudinal designs, diary keeping is useful to capture the short-term dynamics of experiences within and among individuals in the work context. Diary keeping allows scholars to study thoughts, feelings, and behaviours in the natural work context, which can change on a daily basis. This method has been increasingly used in work and organizational research (Van Eerde, Holman, & Totterdell, 2005), particularly in the areas of health and stress, emotions in the work-home interface, and social interactions (Ohly et al., 2010).

There are several reasons that led me to choose the experience-sampling diary method using standardized and valid scales for study 2. First, studies of leader emotion regulation have begun to emerge in organizational studies. Although scholars claim that leaders engage in emotion regulation during their interaction with employees, unlike service employees, leaders do not have explicit emotional display rules. Furthermore, we know little about the antecedent of leader emotion regulation, which is reasonably established in the case of service employees as they often encounter unhappy or hostile clients, requiring them to regulate emotion. Thus, it is important to understand the frequency and intensity of emotion regulation of leaders (Morris & Feldman, 1996). Using experience sampling on a daily basis is a more suitable method than a cross-sectional design for study 2. Second, an underlying assumption in cross-sectional design

studies is that the investigated constructs have some stability over time. This assumption can be problematic when using the same constructs in studying leader emotion regulation as those used in emotion regulation research of service employees. Finally, the purpose of study 2 was to examine the impact of leader emotion regulation on themselves, which requires data analysis at a within-person level. Thus, daily data nested within the leader would appropriately facilitate such analysis. Some of the recent research using diary keeping in studying emotion regulation are Uy et al. (2017), Huang et al. (2015) and Judge et al. (2009).

Targeting working organizational managers/supervisors (with employees working under them) as sample participants, I designed five daily surveys to be completed by the study participants at the end of five consecutive workdays. In addition to study construct items, the day-1 questionnaire included demographic information. Day-2 to day-5 questionnaires were similar to the day-1 questionnaire, excluding the demographic information.

Pilot Study

As I did for study 1, I conducted a pilot study prior to actually distributing the daily survey to the target study participants. The main purpose of the pilot study was to pre-test the research instrument (Baker, 1994). I asked several former colleagues who were working as managers in different organizations to participate in the pilot study. A total of nine participants (five from Bangladesh and four from Canada) took part in the pilot study. The day-1 survey was sent at 3:30 p.m. local time on the Monday of the targeted week (which was mutually agreed upon) and the other four surveys were sent in the following four days at the same time (3:30 p.m. local time). Six participants completed all five surveys, three of them completed four and one completed only the day-1 survey. In order to compile the daily surveys under each respondent, I added an item at the end of each survey to capture the email address as ID for each person.

Participants were informed about this in the consent form and were assured that collection of their email address was only for coding purposes.

The participants of the pilot study provided me with important feedback in terms of survey instructions and the clarity of the questions. Daily survey completion times reported by all participants of the pilot study ranged from five to seven minutes, which was within my expected range. I then revised the survey based on the participants' feedback. In the following week, I downloaded the data in Excel and then assessed the psychometric properties (i.e., Cronbach's alpha) of the scales. Although the sample was small, Cronbach's alpha of all the constructs were greater than .65 (Cortina, 1993).

Procedure and Sample

I collected data from the same three business units of the financial company from which I collected data for study 1. For study 2, I targeted managers who were employed in the work units of financing services, securities trading, and financial asset management, and who supervised employees. As indicated earlier, the company agreed to participate with the understanding that I would share the findings with them. Based on the sample criteria, with the help of the HR department, I identified 113 managers suitable as target participants. Managers were mostly based in the head office and other branch offices in the capital city of Dhaka. Some of them were posted in one of the six other major cities of Bangladesh (Chittagong, Narayanganj, Bogra, Khulna, Rajshahi, and Comilla). According to the HR department, all the participant managers were supervising a team, ranging from five to eleven employees.

Before sending out the daily questionnaire, an email was sent to the managers describing the anonymous nature of the survey, its purpose, the approximate survey completion time, and the data collection procedure. I specifically mentioned that only the researchers would have

access to the survey data. Similar to the procedure followed in the pilot study, the day-1 survey was sent at 3:30 p.m. on the Monday of the targeted week via the HR department to all 113 managers, and the other the four surveys were sent out on the following four days at the same time (3:30 p.m.). Only the day-1 questionnaire included items about participants' demographic information. All five daily questionnaires included the consent form and an item for participants to include their email address as a code so that the I can compile the daily responses by manager. In the consent form, participants were assured that their email addresses would be used only for coding purposes and would not be shared with anyone.

In order to capture the managers' daytime emotion regulation strategies when faced with a challenging organizational event and the emotional consequences of doing so on a daily basis, each day's survey asked the same questions. A total of eighty one participants responded to the survey. The age of the managers ranged from 25 to 50 with the average age being 39.3 years. Their work experience ranged from 1 to 19 years, with an average of 8.15 years. All of managers had either a bachelor or master's degree, mostly in business studies. Although the human resources department informed me that about 10% of the total managers were female, only two participants identified themselves as female. Eight of the participants were single and the rest were married.

Out of eighty one responses, forty-three participants responded all five days, ten responded four days, three responded three days and fifteen responded only on day one. As study 2 used a multi-level analysis of daily survey data, I considered all daily responses from eighty one managers in the analysis. In this way, I obtained 289 usable responses to the daily surveys out of a possible 565 responses, yielding a 51% response rate across time periods and individuals. In terms of days, on an average, managers responded 3.57 days out of five days.

Measures

Surface acting and *deep acting* were measured using Brotheridge and Lee's (1998) six-item scale. Items were measured on a five-point Likert scale ranging from "Strongly Disagree" (1) to "Strongly Agree" (5). The questions were modified to capture the daily experiences of the participants. Sample items to measure surface acting included "Today I resisted expressing my true feelings" and "Today I hid true feelings about a situation." The coefficient alpha for this scale, computed by averaging the reliability of the scale across the five days, was .90. Sample items to measure deep acting included "Today I made an effort to actually feel the emotions that I needed to display to others" and "Today I tried to actually experience the emotions that I should have shown." The average reliability of surface acting, computed in the same way as the previous scale, was .90.

Prior to indicating their daily adoption of surface and deep acting, the questionnaire offered a brief description of challenging organizational events that the managers had experienced that day that made them regulate their emotions while interacting their subordinates.

Emotional dissonance was measured using four items from Andela, Truchot, and Borteyrou's (2015) scale. Items were measured on a five-point Likert scale ranging from "Strongly Disagree" (1) to "Strongly Agree" (5). The questions were modified to capture the daily experiences of the participants. Sample items included "The emotions that I felt in my job today do not correspond to these I would like to feel" and "The emotions that I have shown today at work in order to be professional were not in phase with my inner feelings." The average reliability was .85.

Emotional Exhaustion. Following Gabriel et al.'s (2014) diurnal study, emotional exhaustion was measured using four items from the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Maslach &

Jackson, 1981). I use a reduced scale to limit the burden on the participants, which has often been done in repeated-measure daily surveys in past research (Gabriel et al., 2014; Uy et al., 2017). Items were measured on a five-point Likert scale ranging from “Strongly Disagree” (1) to “Strongly Agree” (5). The questions were modified to capture the daily experiences of the participants. Items included “I am feeling emotionally drained now” and “I am feeling burned out now.” The average reliability across five days was .89.

Analytical Strategy

As my objective was to examine the relationships among daily transient variables that were not independent of each other, the analyses required multilevel modeling (Kreft & DeLeeuw, 1998; Ohly et al., 2010; Snijders & Bosker, 1999). Thus, I nested the daily data, which constituted level-1 data, in each participant in a long format to enable multilevel analysis. In order to interpret estimates strictly within-person in multilevel modeling, group mean-centering for all daily variables is recommended (Enders & Tofghi, 2007; Hofman, Griffin, & Gavin, 2000) because inclusion of between-individual variance in estimation can conflate within-individual effects and bias estimates (Preacher, Zyphur, & Zhang, 2010; Zhang, Zyphur, & Preacher, 2009). Thus, in order to estimate non-conflated multilevel models, I mean-centered all level-1 variables (surface acting, deep acting, emotional dissonance, and emotional exhaustion) by removing each individual’s mean score from each variable (Zhang et al., 2009). Based on this centering method, a level-1 predictor’s fixed effect can be interpreted as the average within-individual change on the dependent variable uniquely associated with that predictor, whereas the intercept will become zero (Huang et al., 2015). This means that mean-centering removes any between-person variance in estimating within-person relationships among level-1 variables and

that the relationships among the level-1 variables are not confounded by personality or other individual differences (Judge et al., 2009).

Results

Table 7 presents descriptive statistics, correlations, and intraclass correlations (ICC) of the mean-centered level-1 variables.

Table 7

First, I examined the amount of within-person variance in the four experience-sampled variables, deep acting, surface acting, emotional exhaustion, and emotional dissonance. The ICC of these level-1 variables revealed sizable within-individual variance on all four variables, 49% for deep acting, 44% for surface acting, 33% for emotional dissonance, and 38% for emotional exhaustion, supporting the examination of within-individual relationships. Table 7 further shows that at the within-person level, as expected, deep acting was unrelated to emotional dissonance ($r = .05$, ns) and emotional exhaustion ($r = .07$, ns), whereas surface acting was significantly positively associated with emotional dissonance ($r = .38$, $p < .001$) and emotional exhaustion ($r = .35$, $p < .001$). In addition, emotional dissonance was significantly correlated with emotional exhaustion ($r = .35$, $p < .001$).

Within-Person Main Effects

In order to test the hypotheses of this study, I ran regressions using the nlme package in R used for linear and nonlinear mixed effects models (Pinheiro & Bates, 2000). To test the hypotheses linking leader surface and deep acting to their emotional exhaustion and emotional dissonance, I specified a series of regressions strictly within the within-person group-mean centered at daily level variables. Table 8 shows the regression results.

Table 8

In regression 1, I assessed the effects of surface acting (independent variables) on emotional dissonance (dependent variables). The conditional R^2 value shows that 30% of the variance is explained by the entire model of which 18% (marginal R^2) accounts for the dependent variable. For hypothesis 1a, I expected that on a daily basis, leaders' surface acting would be positively associated with their emotional dissonance. The regression results supported the existence of such a relationship of surface acting with emotional dissonance ($b = .39, p < .001$).

In regression 2, I used emotional exhaustion as the dependent variable to assess the effect of surface acting. The conditional R^2 value showed that 20% of the variance was explained by the entire model. The regression results supported hypothesis 1b, that on a daily basis, surface acting was significantly associated with daily emotional exhaustion ($b = .28, p < .001$).

In regression 3, taking emotional exhaustion as the dependent variable, I assessed the effect of emotional dissonance, controlling for surface acting. The conditional R^2 value showed that 29% of the variance in the DV was explained by the model. The regression results supported hypothesis 1b, that on a daily basis, emotional dissonance was significantly associated with emotional exhaustion ($b = .27, p < .001$). Likelihood ratio tests demonstrated that all three models explained significantly more variance than their respective null models, offering further evidence of the suitability of the regression models that were tested.

As expected, regressions four and five showed that on a daily basis deep acting was unrelated with either of the dependent variables, emotional dissonance ($b = .02, n.s$) and emotional exhaustion ($b = .06, n.s$).

Within-Person Mediating Effect of Emotional Dissonance in the Relationship Between Surface Acting and Emotional Exhaustion

The positive relationship between emotional dissonance and emotional exhaustion, as predicted in hypothesis 2, was also supported ($b = .27, p < .001$). Hypothesis 3 states that on a daily basis, emotional dissonance mediates the relationship between leaders' surface acting and emotional exhaustion. To test this indirect effect, I used Monte Carlo analyses (Selig & Preacher, 2008) to estimate confidence intervals and the significance of indirect effects (Preacher & Selig, 2012) because the commonly used Sobel (1982) mediation test assumes normal distribution for the ab (path a and path b) product, an oftentimes violated assumption (MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, & Sheets, 2002). I used the distribution-by-product method to calculate the indirect effect and to generate the 95% confidence interval (CI) using the Monte Carlo simulation with 20,000 replications (Preacher & Selig, 2010). This resulted in CIs of significant indirect effect in 1-1-1 multilevel models (95% CI [.05, .17]), supporting hypothesis 3. Several similar studies of multilevel analysis have used this approach to test indirect mediating effect (see Huang et al., 2015; and Uy et al., 2017).

Discussion

While surface acting can impair well-being, the purpose of study 2 was to examine whether leaders' deep acting also hindered personal well-being. The positive relationships between leaders' surface acting and emotional exhaustion, mediated by emotional dissonance, and non-association of leaders' deep acting with the same well-being outcomes, were consistent with the emotional labour literature. Scholars of service employees' emotional labour are increasingly appreciating the non-existence of detrimental effects of deep acting (Bono & Vey, 2005; Huang et al., 2015; Hülshager & Schewe, 2011; Judge et al., 2009; Kammeyer-Mueller et

al., 2013; Wang et al., 2011). However, this relationship in leader emotion regulation remains unexplored. Thus, this study extends the theoretical research by providing initial empirical evidence of the consequences of leader emotion regulation on their personal well-being.

Although not hypothesized, this study addresses the initial question whether or not leaders engage in emotional regulation. The daily diary design of the study was meant to capture managers' experiences of emotion regulation, and the results showed that in the face of challenging organizational events, leaders engage in surface acting ($M = 2.96$, $SD = .79$) and deep acting ($M = 3.54$, $SD = .71$) on a regular basis. Furthermore, the study results were consistent with findings of studies of the effects of surface acting and deep acting on actors' personal well-being, where deep acting was non-detrimental to well-being outcomes. These parallel findings across settings support scholars' claims that emotion regulation is an inseparable part of leadership and that the study of emotion regulation can be beneficially extended into the leadership context (Gardner et al., 2009; Humphrey et al., 2008).

Finally, the findings of this study, along with those of study 1, demonstrate that in emotionally challenging events, leaders can effectively apply deep acting by reappraising the emotion arousing situation. This carries significant practical implications for organizations in functions of leadership training, selection and promotion of managers, and employee performance management, which I will discuss in detail in Chapter Five.

Limitations

I note several limitations of this study that point to promising directions for future research. First, similar to most experience-sampling investigations, I relied on self-reported data, which may be susceptible to CMB in that the bias might explain the results (Podsakoff et al., 2003). This concern was at least partially alleviated through the use of daily short questionnaires.

They minimized the burden placed on participants by allowing respondents to report current states rather than reconstruct overall responses from memory. Furthermore, managers were the appropriate source from which to collect information on the study constructs, such as surface acting, deep acting, emotional dissonance, and exhaustion, all of which involved their personal daily feelings.

Second, consistent with the hypotheses, I was interested in finding within-person relationships among the level-1 variables without any control variables. Even with a within-person analysis, I could have used control variables such as positive and negative affect, which could have potentially enriched the findings, as previous research has demonstrated a significant linkage between affect and emotional labour (Scott & Barnes, 2011; Scott, Barnes, & Wanger, 2012).

Third, I could have used as moderators a few individual characteristics, such as emotional intelligence and managerial role identity, as between-person level-2 variables to offer interactional inference about leader emotion regulation. Such an examination is important because the deleterious effects of emotion regulation originate from the use of wrong forms of emotional labour strategies, such as surface acting instead of deep acting, and because the use of surface acting rather than deep acting largely depends on individual differences (Humphrey et al., 2015). Social identity theory suggests that individuals who strongly identify with their role and regard their role as a central, salient, and valued component of their self, feel more authentic in conforming to role expectations (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Tajfel & Turner, 1985). Given the importance of role identity in emotion regulation, Humphrey et al. (2015) emphasize the need to examine the personal and social identities in finding the positive effects of emotional labour in

future studies. If emotional display rules are consistent with an individual's conception of self within a role, individuals are likely to conform to those rules (Bolton, 2005).

Emotional intelligence, meaning the ability to perceive and regulate emotion, could serve as a potentially important moderator. Those who believe they have high emotional intelligence are more likely to use deep acting than surface acting (Austin, Dore, & O'Donovan, 2008; Brotheridge, 2006; Johnson & Spector, 2007; Mesmer-Magnus, De Church, & Wax, 2012; O'Boyle, Humphrey, Pollack, Hawver, & Story, 2011). Future research should also examine the mechanisms through which leader emotion regulation and LMX influence employee outcomes (Fisk & Friesen, 2010).

Fourth, although I used the experience-sampling method, it is not possible to make a strong inference about causal relationships between the use of emotion regulation strategies and its consequences. Such inference requires comparison among time-lagged measurements of the constructs, for example, emotional exhaustion at the beginning of the day and at the end of workday, to establish a causal conclusion about the effects of surface acting and deep acting. Future research could assess my study model with time-lagged data. Also, an assessment of leaders' emotional exhaustion at the beginning of their day as a potential predictor of their subsequent emotional labour could also be examined in future studies (Huang et al., 2015).

Finally, although the results of leader emotion regulation in this study are somewhat consistent with that of research of customer service workers (Bono & Vey, 2005; Hülshager & Schewe, 2011; Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2011), given the sampling context of the study, their generalizability need to be evaluated.

CHAPTER FIVE

GENERAL DISCUSSION

Mainstream emotion regulation research is predominantly focused on the detrimental effects of emotional labour on the well-being of frontline service workers (Ashkanasy et al., 2017a; Humphrey et al., 2015). Despite management scholars' repeated calls to extend the study of emotion regulation beyond service occupations (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Humphrey et al., 2015; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987), for example, to leadership (Gardner et al., 2009; Humphrey et al., 2008), progress in this direction remains slow (Ashkanasy et al., 2017a; Connelly & Gooty, 2015). Furthermore, the continued focus on service workers as actors of emotional labour has cast doubt on its beneficial impact (Humphrey et al., 2015). Contrary to the predominant view that emotional labour is stressful and produces primarily harmful outcomes, this dissertation explored the bright side of emotion regulation of leaders. Overall, the findings support management scholars' view of the benefits of emotion regulation, that is, use of appropriate emotion regulation strategy can, in fact, bring about favorable organizational outcomes. By conducting two separate studies, I have empirically demonstrated that in the face of emotionally challenging events, leaders' deep acting favorably impacts employee outcomes (study 1) and that leaders' engagement in deep acting does not hinder their personal well-being (study 2).

In study 1, I drew on AET, emotional expressivity of leadership theories, and the OB perspective of emotional labour theory to show that employees' perceptions of their leader's emotion regulation, particularly, deep acting, favorably impacted employee job satisfaction and employees' assessment of their leaders' effectiveness, through the mediator perceived leader authenticity. In study 2, drawing on COR theory of stress (Hobfoll, 1989, 1998), I showed that although surface acting can impair well-being, leaders' deep acting does not necessarily hinder

their personal well-being. Both surface and deep acting consume resources (Totterdell & Holman, 2003). However, deep acting, as opposed to surface acting, can lead to potential downstream resource gains to offset such resource expense (Grandey & Gabriel, 2015).

Theoretical Implications, Future Research, and Limitations

This dissertation, involving two levels of analysis of emotion regulation, offers several theoretical contributions. First, it extends the study of emotion regulation to include leaders' regulation. Despite several scholarly calls, emotion-related leadership research remains focused on the dispositional construct of emotional intelligence, leaving leaders' emotion regulation strategies almost unattended (Fisk & Friesen, 2012). Second, this research supports the scholarly claim that leaders engage in emotion regulation, which is evident both from the leaders' and employees' responses in studies 1 and 2. The means and standard deviations of surface and deep acting in study 1 (2.96, .79 and 3.54, .71) and study 2 (3.05, .78 and 3.32, .78) indicated similar findings of leaders' adoption of these two strategies during challenging organizational events. Given deep acting's non-detrimental effects on the actor, whether leaders engage more in deep acting than surface acting warrants further research attention.

There are, in fact, reasons to believe that compared to service employees, leaders are likely to engage more in deep acting than surface acting. A leader's inclination to deep act can be explained by social motives (Bolton, 2005; Ekman & Friesen, 1975; Goffman, 1959) and instrumental motives (De Rivera & Grinkis, 1986; Fischer, Manstead, Evers, Timmers, & Valk, 2004; Kanfer & Kantrowitz, 2002; Tamir, 2009; Tice & Bratslavsky, 2000) to regulate emotion. Social motives are those that motivate an individual to increase or maintain pleasure and to decrease negative emotions to protect social relationships in their environment. Instrumental motives are those that motivate an individual to deny short-term impulses to achieve long-term

goals or tasks, in which the individual expresses certain emotions to influence others in order to get something done. Moreover, given the relational aspect of leadership roles and managers' awareness of the importance of displaying appropriate and sincere emotions towards their employees, it is expected that managers will likely engage more in deep acting than surface acting.

Furthermore, in service delivery, employees regulate emotion in the presence of clients where both the source of emotional dissonance (e.g., hostile or misbehaving clients) and the observer of their emotion regulation are clients. When employees experience emotional dissonance between their felt emotions and those they are required to express (as per display rules), they often use surface acting to escape a hostile or misbehaving client. Diefendorff, Erickson, Grandey, and Dahling (2011) showed that the requirement to comply with display rules increased the likelihood of employees suppressing negative emotions. But for leaders, the sources of negative emotion are not usually employees but challenging organization events. Another basis of this proposition is that organizations usually select managers or promote employees to a managerial position, in part, by formally or informally assessing the incumbent's ability to manage people. In other words, in addition to their job related technical skills, managers are generally competent in handling emotional issues. Thus, given deep acting's non-detrimental effects on the actor, and considering the differences between customer service and leadership, future research should examine whether leaders engage more in deep acting than surface acting.

Second, this research utilized challenging organizational events as antecedents of leader emotion regulation, based on the assumption that during emotionally challenging or negative events leaders display appropriate emotion by regulating their felt emotions (Gardner et al.,

2009; Humphrey et al., 2008). Although not directly operationalized, in both the studies, I first provided a description of challenging organizational events along with the associated arousal of negative emotions in both leaders and employees, and then asked respondents to answer questions about emotion regulation strategies (See Appendix D and E for study-1 and study-2 questionnaires). In study 1, the survey participants were asked to indicate their perception of their manager's/supervisor's emotion management style during challenging events or situations at work. In study 2, managers were asked about their daily emotion regulation strategies vis-à-vis their employees based on that particular day's challenging organizational events. However, while this research provides some evidence that challenging organizational events serve as an antecedent of emotion regulation, I consider it a weak inference and encourage future research to operationalize challenging events as a variable.

Although affective events as described in AET theoretically serve as suitable antecedents of leader emotion regulation, affective event is challenging to operationalize in empirical studies because Weiss and Cropanzano's (1996) definition of affective events is too broad, including almost anything to which a person has an affective reaction (Morgeson et al., 2015). This is one of the main reasons that no studies have operationalized affective events as a predictor of leader emotion regulation. In Pirola-Merlo et al.'s (2002) study on how leaders influence the impact of affective events on team climate and performance, the authors measured the magnitude of obstacles on a scale with "no obstacles" at one end to "very significant obstacles" at the other. I encourage future researchers to utilize a global construct involving the presence and intensity of emotionally challenging events as experienced by leaders and their employees.

A further issue that needs attention is the motivation of managerial emotion regulation. The literature largely assumes that service employees regulate their felt emotion to express

appropriate emotions to clients because they want to be compliant with the customer display rules set as enforced by management (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Diefendorff et al., 2006; Hochschild, 1983; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). But organizations generally do not have such explicit or formal display rules to regulate emotions among internal organizational members (Humphrey et al., 2008). Scholars assume that a leadership role comes with an extensive set of emotional display rules associated with an event (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Diefendorff & Gosserand, 2003; George, 2000; Gosserand & Diefendorff, 2005; Grandey, 2000; Humphrey, 2002; Humphrey et al., 2008; Morris & Feldman, 1996). The larger organizational context within which the event occurs also communicates display rules (Gardner et al., 2009; Grandey, 2000). These display rules originate from societal, occupational, and organizational norms (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). The intensity of these norms is determined by the extent to which a norm is widely shared and deeply internalized among the referent group (Jackson, 1965). In the absence of formal and explicit emotional display rules, the mere presence of challenging organizational events does not adequately explain leader emotion regulation. There seems to be a need to examine the motives behind regulating emotion (Bolton, 2005; Huang et al., 2015). We do not know much about the underlying motives of emotion regulation as they have not received much attention in the literature (Von Gilsa, Zapf, Ohly, Trumpold, & Machowski, 2014). Thus, in the absence of explicit emotion display rules, leaders' motives to regulate emotion warrant examination.

Third, at an interpersonal level, study 1 extended leader emotion regulation research theoretically by linking perceptions of leader emotion regulation with follower work attitudes and behaviours. The findings of this study are crucial in the sense that they provide empirical evidence that leaders' deep acting is beneficial for employees, supporting the claim by scholars

that there exists a bright side of emotional labour in the intra-organizational leadership context that is yet to be explored (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Côté, 2005; Humphrey et al., 2015). In addition to this theoretical contribution, the findings of study 1 complement recent literature on deep acting by service employees that posits that deep acting at a interpersonal level is more effective than surface acting in fostering favorable audience impressions (Beal et al., 2006; Bono & Vey, 2007; Shulei & Miner, 2006), customer satisfaction (Hülshager & Schewe, 2011), and positive observer satisfaction (Grandey et al., 2005).

Fourth, study 1 provides empirical evidence of a potential mediator, leader authenticity as perceived by employees, in explaining the effects of leaders' deep acting on employees' job satisfaction and their assessment of their leaders' effectiveness. Recent favorable findings of deep acting of service employees on both actor and observer outcomes (Bono & Vey, 2005; Huang et al., 2015; Hülshager & Schewe, 2011; Judge et. al, 2009; Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013) led researchers to encourage future research to identify the mediating mechanism of such relationships, that is, what enhances the potential benefit of deep acting (Huang et al., 2015). In this regard, scholars have called for research to explore how leaders' deep acting affects their followers' perception of their leaders' authenticity (Fisk & Friesen, 2010). Study 1 was a response to this call. I found that in leader-follower interaction, leaders' deep acting was perceived as authentic by their employees, which served as a mediator between deep acting and positive follower outcomes, such as job satisfaction and employee assessment of leadership effectiveness. However, deep acting also assumes some level of compromise of authenticity, albeit to a lesser degree than surface acting, and I encourage more research on deep acting and followers' perceptions of their leader's authenticity using the theoretical model developed in study 1.

Fifth, study 1 examines the construct of leadership effectiveness, that is, leaders' ability to mobilize and motivate subordinates (Brief & Weiss, 2002). Although evidence is accumulating that leaders' emotional displays influence their effectiveness (Gooty et al., 2010; Van Knippenberg et al., 2008), research on the relationship of emotion regulation and leadership effectiveness is distinctly underdeveloped (Edelman & Van Knippenberg, 2016). Although I used subjective indicators of leadership effectiveness, which is weaker evidence than behavioural indicators, future research can build on the finding by incorporating behavioural indicators of leadership effectiveness.

Sixth, while the consequences of surface and deep acting on service employees' well-being outcomes have been studied, research examining the consequences of leaders engaging in emotion regulation is still rare. The findings of study 2 are consistent with emotional labour literature and thus complement the literature by suggesting that while leaders' surface acting can hinder their well-being outcomes, such as emotional dissonance and emotional exhaustion, leaders' deep acting is not necessarily related to their impaired well-being. However, it is too early to come to a conclusion on this as studies of leader emotion regulation have only begun to emerge.

Finally, methodologically, the use of experience sampling over traditional cross-sectional design was deliberate. Cross-sectional study designs could have raised concern about the frequency and intensity of emotion regulation engagement by leaders (Morris & Feldman, 1996). The collection of responses over a period of five consecutive days addresses this concern, and the findings of study 2 show that leaders regularly engage in emotion regulation. However, given study 2's unique sampling feature (most of the managers were working in business departments such as loans, mortgages, credit cards, securities trading, and financial asset management) and

societal context, it is too early to generalize this finding. Research on leader emotion regulation using samples of many different organizational settings is needed.

Implications for Human Resource Management (HRM)

The benefits of leader emotion regulation remains promising for HRM. However, while OB scholars appreciate that emotion regulation constitutes an inseparable part of work life, HRM literature has lagged in addressing this emotional dimension of work (Ashkanasy et al., 2017b). The findings of this dissertation suggest that in emotionally challenging events, managers can effectively apply deep acting by reappraising the emotion arousing situation. Organizations, through their HR departments, can take several initiatives in the areas of managerial training, selection and promotion of managers, and employee performance management.

Effective programs to train managers in the skill of deep acting could be one important initiative. Several recent studies provide encouraging evidence that managers can be trained in deep acting to enhance their leadership acumen (Edelman & Van Knippenberg, 2016; Hulsheger et al., 2015; Jordan & Lindebaum, 2015; Kafetsios, Athanasiadou, & Dimou, 2014). In addition to effectively displaying appropriate emotions during challenging organizational times, managers can deep act in other aspects of employee management, such as delivering feedback on substandard performance to employees. Alam and Latham's (2018) qualitative study on the responses of employees following negative performance feedback found that employees rejected the feedback and had no intention of taking corrective action to improve their performance if managers' emotional expression was inappropriate during the delivery of the feedback.

In addition to other meritocracy criteria, organizations can appropriately assess emotional competencies in selecting managers and promoting employees to a managerial role because emotionally savvy individuals are more likely to bounce back from negative feelings and are

more adept at evaluating and regulating their own feelings (Sy, Tram, & O'Hara, 2006). In an emotionally challenging situation, individuals with high emotional intelligence can better understand the causes of stress and do a better job of dealing with negative outcomes to maintain the positive feelings needed in the situation (Miao, Humphrey, & Qian, 2017).

Conclusion

The aim of this dissertation research was to theorize and empirically demonstrate that leaders' utilization of emotion regulation strategies has the potential to favorably impact employees without impairing leaders' well-being. It is my hope that this research stimulates further interest among scholars to advance the studies of emotion regulation by leaders. There remains extensive scholarly work to be done in strengthening our understanding of leader emotion regulation. However, based on what we know so far, it is imperative for organizations to appreciate the importance of their managers and leaders engaging in emotion work and act upon this for larger organizational effectiveness.

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Table 1: Model Fit

Model	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	CFI	TLI	IFI	RMS EA	χ^2 change	Change in df
Model 1: Six-factor model (EPLDA, EPLSA, PLA, EJS, EJST, PLE)	345.22	215	1.60	.93	.922	.935	.059		
Model 2: Five-factor model (PLA and PLE combined)	395.4	220	1.797	.91	.897	.912	.068	50.2	5**
Model 3: Four-factor model (PLA, PLE, and JS combined)	534.67	224	2.387	.84	.82	.84	.89	139.27	4**
Model 4: Three-factor model (EPLDA, EPLSA combined, PLA, PLE, and JS combined)	635.3	227	2.799	.79	.767	.794	.102	100.63	3**
Model 5: Two-factor model (EPLDA, EPLSA combined, all other variables combined)	1092.94	229	4.773	.558	.512	.563	.147	457.64	2**
Model 6: Single-factor model (Harman's single-factor test)	1156.93	230	5.03	.526	.478	.531	.152	63.99	1

EPLDA: employee perception of leader deep acting, EPLSA: employee perception of leader deep acting
 PLA: perceived leader authenticity, EJS: employee job satisfaction, EJST: employee job stress
 PLE: perception of leadership effectiveness, PPD: perception of power distance

Table 2: Average Variance Extracted (AVE) and Composite Reliabilities (CR)

	Perception of Leader Deep acting	Perception of Leader Surface acting	Perceived Leader Authenticity	Job Satisfaction	Perceived Leadership Effectiveness	Job Stress
CR	.77	.67	.78	.86	.64	.87
AVE	.64	.46	.53	.66	.70	.49

Table 3: Correlations and Descriptive Statistics (n = 175)

Variables	Mean (SD)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. EPLDA	3.32 (.78)							
2. EPLSA	3.05 (.78)	-.30**						
3. PLA	3.34 (.8)	.60**	-.35**					
4. EJS	3.62 (.76)	.43**	-.19*	.48**				
5. EJST	2.99 (.75)	.02	.24**	.01	.07			
6. PLE	3.31 (.76)	.64**	-.33**	.82**	.48**	.05		
7. Age	37.26 (6.2)	-.06	.06	.08	.07	.04	.12	.01

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

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

EPLDA: employee perception of leader deep acting, EPLSA: employee perception of leader surface acting

PLA: perceived leader authenticity, EJS: employee job satisfaction, EJST: employee job stress

PLE: perception of leadership effectiveness

Table 4: Effect of Deep Acting and Surface Acting on Employee Outcomes

Variables	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>
Model 1 (Leader Authenticity)			
Constant	1.48***	.43	3.3
Age	.02	.01	2.09
Deep acting	.56***	.06	8.9
Surface acting	-.19**	.06	-3.1
R ² (Adj. R ²)		.41(.4)	
F value		38.9***	
Model 2 (Leader Effectiveness)			
Constant	1.92**	.47	4.16
Age	.005	.01	.654
Deep acting	.625***	.07	9.16
Surface acting	-.22**	.07	-3.18
R ² (Adj. R ²)		.42(.41)	
F value		33.7***	
Model 3 (Job Satisfaction)			
Constant	2.0***	.48	4.24
Age	.01	.01	1.44
Deep acting	.41***	.07	5.82
Surface acting	-.07	.07	-.94
R ² (Adj. R ²)		.20 (.19)	
F value		14.23***	
Model 4 (Job Stress)			
Constant	1.79**	.51	2.67
Age	.00	.01	.36
Deep acting	.09	.08	1.26
Surface acting	.25**	.07	3.38
R ² (Adj. R ²)		.64 (.48)	
F value		3.91*	

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 5: Mediating Effect of Leader Authenticity in the Relationship Between Employee Perception of Leader Deep Acting and Employee Job Satisfaction

	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>
Direct and total effects		
Employee perception of leader deep acting on perceived leader authenticity (path a)	.56***	.05
Perceived leader authenticity on job satisfaction (path b)	.46***	.1
Direct effect of employee perception of leader deep acting on job satisfaction (path c)	.17*	.08
Bootstrapping (5,000) results for indirect effect		
Indirect effect of employee perception of leader deep acting on job satisfaction via leader authenticity CI (95%)	.26 (.15, .37)	.06

Bootstrapped samples = 5,000.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$, $n = 175$.

Path a represents the link between the independent variable and the mediating variable after adding the control variables. Path b represents the link between the mediating variable and the outcome variable after adding the control variables. Path c represents the link between the independent and dependent variables after adding the control variables.

Table 6: Mediating Effect of Perception of Leader Authenticity in the Relationship Between Employee Perception of Leader Deep Acting and Perceived Leadership Effectiveness

	<i>b</i>	SE
Direct and total effects		
Employee perception of leader deep acting on perceived leader authenticity (path a)	.56***	.05
Perceived leader authenticity on leadership effectiveness (path b)	.76***	.08
Direct effect of employee perception of leader deep acting on perceived leadership effectiveness (path c)	.26 ***	.07
Bootstrapping (5000) results for indirect effect		
Indirect effect of employee perception of leader deep acting on perceived leadership effectiveness via perceived leader authenticity CI (95%)	.43 95%CI[.29, .60]	.07

Bootstrapped samples = 5,000.

*p<.05, ** p<.01, ***p<.001 n = 175.

Path a represents the link between the independent variable and the mediating variable after adding the control variables. Path b represents the link between the mediating variable and the outcome variable after adding the control variables. Path c represents the link between the independent and dependent variables after adding the control variables.

Table 7: Mean, Standard Deviations (SD), Variability Estimates, and Correlations Among Within-Person (n = 289) Level-1 Variables

Variables	Mean	SD Within- person	ICC	1	2	3	4
1. Deep Acting	3.54	.71	.49	.85			
2. Surface Acting	2.96	.79	.44	.16**	.81		.
3. Emotional Dissonance	3.1	.64	.33	.05	.38**	.78	
4. Emotional Exhaustion	2.63	.67	.38	.07	.35**	.35**	.79

ICC = Intraclass correlation.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed)

Average reliabilities were averaged across days and reported on the diagonal in bold.

Table 8: Test of Hypothesized Within-Person Effects

Predictors	DV = Emotional Dissonance	DV = Emotional Exhaustion
1. Deep Acting	.02	.06
2. Surface Acting	.39**	.28**
3. Emotional Dissonance		.27**

DV = dependent variable.

Values are un-standardized coefficients (b)

p < .10, p < .05, p < .01, p < .001.

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Figure 1: Impact of Leader Emotion Regulation on Employee Outcomes

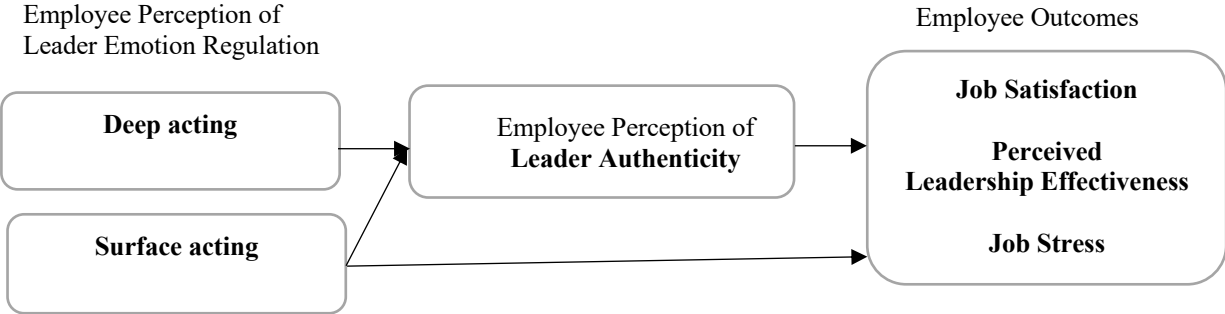
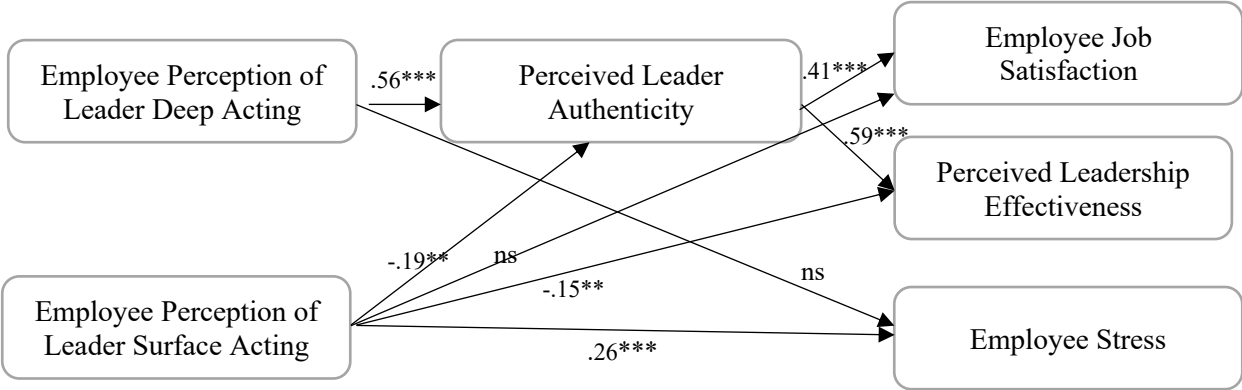


Figure 2: Direct Relationships of The Hierarchical Regressions



Note: Values are unstandardized coefficients

Figure 3: Mediating Effect of Leader Authenticity in the Relationship Between Employee Perception of Leader Deep Acting and Employee Job Satisfaction



Direct Effect: .17*

Indirect Effect: .26 (95% CI [.15, .37])

Note: Values are un-standardized co-efficient

Figure 4: Mediating Effect of Perception of Leader Authenticity in the Relationship Between Employee Perception of Leader Deep Acting and Perceived Leadership Effectiveness

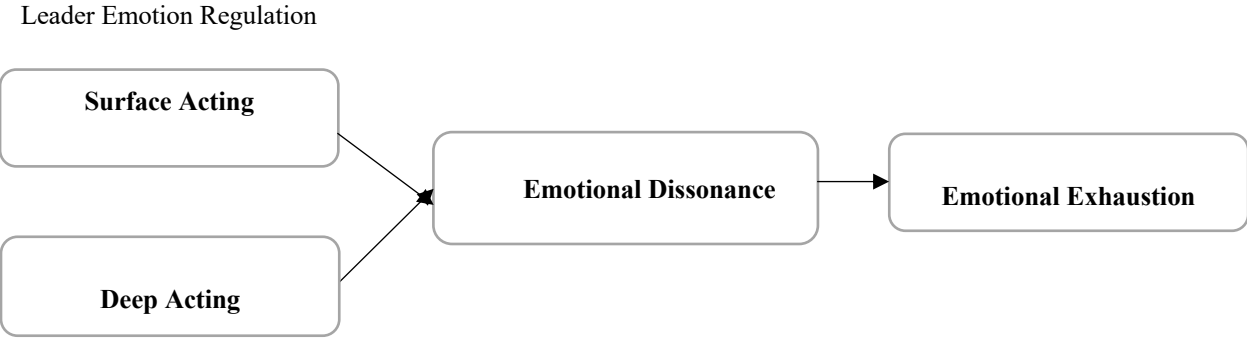


Direct Effect: .25***

Indirect Effect: .43 (95% CI [.29, .60])

Note: Values are un-standardized co-efficient

Figure 5: Impact of Leader Emotion Regulation on Leaders Themselves



APPENDICES

Appendix A: Ethics Approval



OFFICE OF
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Certificate #:	STU 2018 - 121
Approval Period:	11/13/18-11/13/19

ETHICS APPROVAL

To: **Md. Mahbulul Alam**
Human Resources Management, Graduate Program,
[REDACTED]

From: Alison M. Collins-Mrakas, Sr. Manager and Policy Advisor, Research Ethics
(on behalf of Veronica Jamnik, Chair, Human Participants Review Committee)

Date: Tuesday November 13th, 2018

Title: **Impact of Leader Emotional Labour on Followers**

Risk Level:	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Minimal Risk	<input type="checkbox"/> More than Minimal Risk
Level of Review:	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Minimal Risk	<input type="checkbox"/> More than Minimal Risk

I am writing to inform you that this research project, "**Impact of Leader Emotional Labour on Followers**" has received ethics review and approval by the Human Participants Review Sub-Committee, York University's Ethics Review Board and conforms to the standards of the Canadian Tri-Council Research Ethics guidelines.

Note that approval is granted for one year. Ongoing research – research that extends beyond one year – must be renewed prior to the expiry date.

Any changes to the approved protocol must be reviewed and approved through the amendment process by submission of an amendment application to the HPRC prior to its implementation.

Any adverse or unanticipated events in the research should be reported to the Office of Research ethics (ore@yorku.ca) as soon as possible.

For further information on researcher responsibilities as it pertains to this approved research ethics protocol, please refer to the attached document, "**RESEARCH ETHICS: PROCEDURES to ENSURE ONGOING COMPLIANCE**".

Should you have any questions, please feel free to contact me at: 416-736-5914 or via email at: acollins@yorku.ca.

Yours sincerely,

Alison M. Collins-Mrakas M.Sc., LLM
Sr. Manager and Policy Advisor,
Office of Research Ethics

Appendix A: Ethics Approval

RESEARCH ETHICS: PROCEDURES to ENSURE ONGOING COMPLIANCE

Upon receipt of an ethics approval certificate, researchers are reminded that they are required to ensure that the following measures are undertaken so as to ensure on-going compliance with Senate and TCPS ethics guidelines:

1. **RENEWALS:** Research Ethics Approval certificates are subject to annual renewal. **It is the responsibility of researchers to ensure the timely submission of renewals.**
 - a. As a courtesy, researchers will be reminded by ORE, in advance of certificate expiry, that the certificate must be renewed. Please note, however, it is the expectation that researchers will submit a renewal application prior to the expiration of ethics certificate(s).
 - b. **Failure to renew an ethics approval certificate** (or to notify ORE that no further research involving human participants will be undertaken) **may result in suspension of research cost fund and access to research funds may be suspended/ withheld.**
2. **AMENDMENTS:** Amendments must be reviewed and approved **PRIOR** to undertaking/making the proposed amendments to an approved ethics protocol
3. **END OF PROJECT:** ORE must be notified when a project is complete;
4. **ADVERSE EVENTS:** Adverse events must be reported to ORE as soon as possible;
5. **POST APPROVAL MONITORING:**
 - a. More than minimal risk research may be subject to post approval monitoring as per TCPS guidelines;
 - b. A spot sample of minimal risk research may similarly be subject to Post Approval Monitoring as per TCPS guidelines.

FORMS: As per the above, the following forms relating to on-going research ethics compliance are available on the Research website:

- a. Renewal
- b. Amendment
- c. End of Project
- d. Adverse Event

Appendix B: Measures used in Study 1

At your work, you may experience several events or situations which may cause negative emotions such as anxiety, frustration, anger, fear, irritation etc. in you, your co-workers and your manager/supervisor. During such situations in the past, it is likely that your manager/supervisor had displayed emotion while interacting with you and your co-workers. What is your perception about your manager's/supervisor's emotional display during such emotionally challenging situations?

EMPLOYEE PERCEPTION OF LEADER SURFACE ACTING (1-3) EMPLOYEE PERCEPTION OF LEADER DEEP ACTING (4-6)	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5
1. My manager/ supervisor resists expressing her/his true feelings.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. My manager/ supervisor pretends to have emotions that she/he does not really has.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. My manager/ supervisor hides her/his true feelings about a situation.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. My manager/ supervisor makes an effort to actually feel the emotions that she/he needs to display to others.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. My manager/ supervisor tries to actually experience the emotions that she/he must show.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. My manager/ supervisor really tries to feel the emotions I have to show as part of her/his job.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Please evaluate your supervisor in respect to the following statements

PERCEIVED LEADER AUTHENTICITY	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5
1. Seeks feedback to improve interactions with others.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Accurately describes how others view his or her capabilities.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Says exactly what he or she means.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Is willing to admit mistakes when they are made.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Demonstrates beliefs that are consistent with actions.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Makes decisions based on his/her core beliefs.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Solicits views that challenge his or her deeply held positions.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. Listens carefully to different points of view before coming to conclusions.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

How do you evaluate the effectiveness of your supervisor/manager?

PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5
1. My supervisor is an excellent leader	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. My supervisor is an effective leader	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. My supervisor leads in a way that motivates people	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Others like to work together with my supervisor	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. My supervisor motivates people to work hard for their organizational unit.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

How do you feel about the satisfaction of your present job?

EMPLOYEE JOB SATISFACTION	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5
1. In general, I feel happy with how things are going in my job	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. I enjoy what I do in my job	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. All in all, I am very satisfied with my job	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Please evaluate your stress due to your current job

EMPLOYEE JOB STRESS	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5
1. I feel nervous as a result of my job	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Working here makes it hard to spend enough time with my family	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. My job gets to me more than it should	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. There are lots of times when my job drives me right up the wall	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Working here leaves little time for other activities	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. I frequently get the feeling I am married to the company	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. I have too much work and too little time to do it in	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. I feel guilty when I take time off from job	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. I feel like I never have a day off	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. Too many people at my level in the company get burned out by job demands	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements?

FEEDBACK SEEKING BEHAVIOUR	Not at al	A little	Occasio nally	Often	Very often
	1	2	3	4	5
1. How frequently do you seek feedback from your supervisor about your work performance?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. How frequently do you seek feedback from your co-workers about your work performance?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. How frequently do you seek feedback from your supervisor/co-workers about your potential for advancement within your company?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Appendix C: Measures used in Study 2

Today you may have experienced challenging events or situations at work (such as rapid work pace, challenging performance targets, decreasing sales, high customer expectations, conflicting role demands, interpersonal conflict, workload, accidents, broken equipment, decreasing sales, challenging performance targets, job redesign, organizational changes, political, legal changes affecting your business etc.) These events may have caused negative emotions such as anxiety, frustration, anger, fear, irritation etc. in you and your subordinates.

Although you may have experienced a wide variety of negative emotions today, it is likely that as a manager/supervisor you displayed emotion that you feel appropriate while interacting with your subordinates. How did you display your emotion while interacting with your subordinates (one to one or in a team interaction) TODAY?

LEADER DEEP ACTING (1-3) LEADER SURFACE ACTING (4-6)	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5
1. I really tried to feel the emotions I had to show as part of my job	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. I tried to actually experience the emotions that I must have shown.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. I made an effort to actually feel the emotions that I needed to display to others.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. I resisted expressing my true feelings.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. I pretended to have emotions that I did not really had.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. I hid my true feelings about the situation I encountered today.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Please indicate your feeling as a result of TODAY's work

LEADER EMOTIONAL DISSONANCE (1-4) LEADER EMOTIONAL EXHAUSTION, (5-8)	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5
1. The emotions that I felt in my job today do not correspond to these I would like to feel.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. My work situation brought me to experience emotions at variance with those I would like to feel.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. I have experienced a discrepancy between the emotions I expressed to be professional and what I actually felt.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. The emotions I showed in order to be professional were not in phase with my inner feelings.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. I am feeling emotionally drained now	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. I feel used up at the end of today's work	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. I feel I have worked too hard on my job today	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. I am feeling burnt out now	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>