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What role does leaders' emotional labor play in effective leadership? An empirical examination

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WHAT ROLE DOES LEADERS' EMOTIONAL LABOR PLAY IN EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP? AN EMPIRICAL EXAMINATION

by

Gang Wang

An Abstract

Of a thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the Doctor of Philosophy degree in
Business Administration
in the Graduate College of The University of Iowa

July 2011

Thesis Supervisors: Professor Scott E. Seibert
Professor Terry L. Boles

ABSTRACT

An increasing stream of research has shown that leaders' emotions have substantial impact on followers' attitudes and performance. However, this line of research has not explored the psychological process leaders use to generate and express their emotions. This is an important gap in the leadership literature because theoretical and empirical work suggests that leaders do manage their feelings and / or expressions of emotions in leader-follower interactions. Therefore, to fill this critical gap, this dissertation examined the role of leaders' emotional labor on followers' attitudes and performance and on leaders' attitudes and well-being.

A longitudinal survey design was employed to test study hypotheses. Data were collected from supervisors and their direct reports in three business organizations in the Midwest. Results show that leaders' surface acting was significantly negatively associated with followers' transformational leadership perceptions, which were positively related to follower job satisfaction, organizational identification, task performance, and organizational citizenship behavior directed toward the organization (OCB-O). Leaders' deep acting and display of genuine emotions were positively related to followers' emotional engagement, which was positively related to job satisfaction, organizational identification, and OCB-O. In addition, the mean level of leaders' expressed positive emotions moderated the relationship between leaders' display of genuine emotions and followers' positive emotional reactions, such that leaders' display of genuine emotions had the most positive effect when followers perceived that the mean level of leaders' expressed emotions was highly positive. Consistent with my arguments, transformational leadership and positive emotional reactions were positively related to emotional

engagement, whereas negative emotional reactions were negatively related to emotional engagement. Positive emotional reactions were positively correlated with job satisfaction, organizational identification, organizational citizenship behavior directed toward other individuals (OCB-I), and OCBO. Unlike positive emotional reactions, negative emotional reactions had negative relationships with the above outcome variables. Contrary to my expectations, leaders' surface acting was negatively associated with leaders' emotional exhaustion and leaders' emotional labor was not significantly associated with leaders' job satisfaction. Additional analyses revealed several unexpected but important findings. Theoretical contributions, managerial implications, limitations of the study, and suggestions for future research are discussed.

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CERTIFICATE OF APPROVAL

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PH.D. THESIS

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To Ruoxu and Tyler

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A longitudinal survey design was employed to test study hypotheses. Data were collected from supervisors and their direct reports in three business organizations in the Midwest. Results show that leaders' surface acting was significantly negatively associated with followers' transformational leadership perceptions, which were positively related to follower job satisfaction, organizational identification, task performance, and organizational citizenship behavior direct toward the organization (OCB-O). Leaders' deep acting and display of genuine emotions were positively related to followers' emotional engagement, which was positively related to job satisfaction, organizational identification, and OCB-O. In addition, the mean level of leaders' expressed positive emotions moderated the relationship between leaders' display of genuine emotions and followers' positive emotional reactions, such that leaders' display of genuine emotions had the most positive effect when followers perceived that the mean level of leaders' expressed emotions was highly positive. Consistent with my arguments, transformational leadership and positive emotional reactions were positively related to emotional

engagement, whereas negative emotional reactions were negatively related to emotional engagement. Positive emotional reactions were positively correlated with job satisfaction, organizational identification, organizational citizenship behavior directed toward other individuals (OCB-I), and OCBO. Unlike positive emotional reactions, negative emotional reactions had negative relationships with the above outcome variables. Contrary to my expectations, leaders' surface acting was negatively associated with leaders' emotional exhaustion and leaders' emotional labor was not significantly associated with leaders' job satisfaction. Additional analyses revealed several unexpected but important findings. Theoretical contributions, managerial implications, limitations of the study, and suggestions for future research are discussed.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This dissertation examines the role of leaders' emotional labor on followers' attitudes and performance and on leaders' attitudes and well being. Emotional labor is defined as the process that leaders use to regulate their feelings and / or expressions of emotion to influence followers during leader-follower interactions in support of achieving desired organizational goals. Three specific forms of emotional labor have been proposed: surface acting, deep acting, and display of genuine emotions (Gardner, Fischer, & Hunt, 2009; Humphrey, Pollack, & Hawver, 2008). Before examining the construct and the mechanism through which leaders' emotional labor may influence followers' attitudes and performance and the relationships between leaders' emotional labor and the leaders' attitudes and well-being, it is important to first explore the role of emotion itself that has played in the leadership literature.

Early leadership research has neglected the role of emotion in leadership effectiveness (George, 2000). Conventionally, emotion was usually viewed as the antithesis of rationality, and such something unlikely to be associated with effective leadership (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995). Leadership refers to a social influence process whereby leaders influence followers to achieve organizational goals (Yukl, 2010). Research on leadership in the past century mainly focused on the search for leader traits and behaviors associated with leadership effectiveness (e.g., DeRue, Wellman, Nahrgang, & Humphrey, 2011; House & Aditya, 1997; Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002; Judge, Colbert, & Ilies, 2004; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Stogdill, 1948). Further, several

contingency theories, such as Fiedler's contingency theory of leadership (Fiedler, 1967; 1971), House's path-goal theory (House, 1971) and Hersey and Blanchard's (1982) life cycle theory, were proposed to specify how situational factors might interact with leader traits and behaviors to account for inconsistent findings across empirical studies.

Nevertheless, transformational/charismatic leadership theories give emotion a key role in leadership (Bass, 1985; Ashkanasy & Tse, 2000; Bono & Ilies, 2006; Erez, Misangyi, Johnson, LePine, & Halverson, 2008). Transformational/charismatic leadership theorists (e.g., Bass, 1985; Conger & Kanungo, 1987) argue that transformational/charismatic leaders use their emotions to appeal to followers' needs and evoke emotional and motivational responses in followers. As an example, Conger's (1989; Conger & Kanungo, 1987, 1998) theoretical approach to charismatic leadership posits that followers attribute charismatic leadership to leaders who use verbal and non-verbal behavior to challenge the status quo and articulate a new vision. Conger and Kanungo (1987) contend that charismatic leaders attend to followers' emotional needs and express confidence, persistence, and enthusiasm to influence followers to strive toward the new vision that they advocate. Moreover, Bass (1985) emphasizes that transformational leadership "has an intense emotional component" (p. 36). Bass and his associates propose that transformational leaders demonstrate four types of behaviors: inspirational motivation, idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (e.g., Bass, 1985; Avolio & Bass, 1988). Inspirational motivation refers to the extent to which transformational leaders articulate a compelling vision that is appealing and inspiring to followers. Idealized influence is the degree to which transformational leaders serve as role models by acting in ways that are consistent with

the articulated vision. Intellectual stimulation is the extent to which transformational leaders challenge the status quo and solicit follower suggestions and ideas. Finally, individualized consideration refers to the degree to which transformational leaders attend to the needs of their followers and treat each follower as a unique individual. The four dimensions are shown to be highly correlated with each other (corrected average correlation is .93, Judge & Piccolo, 2004).

According to Bass and his associates' conceptualization of transformational leadership, various emotions are inherent to transformational leadership behaviors. Specifically, enthusiasm, optimism, and excitement are to be displayed in the process of inspirational motivation; determination, self-assurance, and pride may be expressed in the process of idealized influence; dislike, challenge, and anger may be displayed in the process of intellectual stimulation, and empathy, caring, and love may be expressed in the process of individualized consideration (Connolly, Gaddis, & Helton-Fauth, 2002). In short, transformational leaders may use both positive and negative emotions to influence followers to transcend their self interests and work for the good of the group or organization.

Transformational leadership theorists also predict that followers will emotionally respond to transformational leaders' emotions. Some authors argue that transformational leaders express more positive emotions than non-transformational leaders (Ashkanasy & Tse, 2000; Erez et al., 2008). It is possible that through the process of emotional contagion (which posits that a person may "catch" others' emotions mainly by subconscious mimicry, Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1994), followers of transformational leaders tend to experience more positive emotions (Bono & Ilies, 2006).

In addition, since transformational leaders are more likely to express appropriate emotions (e.g., empathy, caring) to show individualized consideration to their followers, their followers are likely to experience high levels of psychological safety and be more emotionally attached to their transformational leaders (Avolio, 1999; Bass, 1998; Dvir & Shamir, 2003).

Moreover, transformational leadership theories suggest that transformational leaders' emotions may influence followers' emotional investment in job performance, or followers' emotional job engagement (Kahn, 1990; Zhu, Avolio, & Walumbwa, 2009). There are several different conceptualizations of job engagement. For example, in his seminal article, Kahn (1990) regards job engagement as an motivational state and defined it as "the harnessing of organization members' selves to their work roles; in engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performance" (p. 694). Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, and Bakker (2002) define job engagement as "a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption" (p.74). The commonality across all of the existing conceptualizations of job engagement is that "job engagement entails the individual being dedicated to successful performance through emotional investment in performance" (Britt, Dickinson, Greene-Shortridge, & McKibben, 2007, p. 146). When transformational leaders display positive emotions to communicate a compelling vision, their positive emotions are likely to convey information about their high expectancy of goal accomplishments (Keltner & Haidt, 1999), which may increase follower self-confidence in achieving expected performance (Eden, 1992; Zhu et al., 2009). Self-confidence can influence one's psychological availability, which refers to the sense of

having the physical, emotional, and psychological resources to engage in one's work (Kahn, 1990; Rich, LePine, & Crawford, 2010). Further, transformational leaders show concern for followers' needs and feelings and make followers feel psychologically safe. The experience of psychological availability and safety may motivate followers of transformational leaders to be emotionally engaged in their work role (Kahn, 1990)

Only a few studies have directly examined transformational leaders' use of positive or negative emotions and/or follower reactions to transformational leaders' emotions (e.g., Bono & Ilies, 2006; Erez et al., 2008). Findings across the empirical studies show that transformational/charismatic leaders express more positive emotions than non-transformational/charismatic leaders (Bono & Ilies, 2006; Erez et al., 2008). Further, Bono and Ilies (2006) found that the expression of optimism and positive emotions is a key characteristic that causes followers to attribute charisma to a leader. In addition, it has been reported that followers respond to leaders' positive emotions with positive affect (Bono & Ilies, 2006; Erez et al., 2008), increased liking of leader (Bono & Ilies, 2006), and high levels of perceived leadership effectiveness (Bono & Ilies, 2006). The influence of transformational leaders' emotions on followers' emotions and affective reactions may be explained by emotional contagion (Hatfield et al., 1994) and arousal (Erez et al., 2008). The influence of transformational leaders' emotions on followers' charismatic leadership perceptions may be because leaders fulfill followers' implicit leadership theories and are thus perceived as transformational (Ekitropaki & Martin, 2004; Den Hartog, House, Hanges, Ruitz-Quintanilla, 1999; Gardner & Avolio, 1998; Lord & Masher, 1993).

In addition, other research examines the direct effects of leaders' emotions on followers without reference to transformational/charismatic leadership perceptions (e.g., Damen, Van Knippenberg, & Van Knippenberg, 2008; Van Kleef et al., 2009). Results of these studies reveal that leaders' displays of positive emotions result in positive follower attitudes (Gaddis, Connelly, & Mumford, 2004; Newcombs & Ashkanasy, 2002; Van Kleef et al., 2009), increased follower task performance and organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs: Damen et al., 2008), and increased team performance (Gaddis et al., 2004; George, 1995). Moreover, leaders' displays of negative emotions led to negative follower attitudes (e.g., Newcombs & Ashkanasy, 2002), increased performance on effort-based tasks (Damen et al., 2008), decreased performance on creativity-based tasks (Gaddis et al., 2004), and increased OCB (Damen et al., 2008). The relationships between leaders' emotional displays and followers' attitudes may be explained by emotional contagion, such that leaders' positive or negative emotions are spread to followers, who then make positive or negative attitudinal judgments that are congruent with their emotions (Bower, 1981). Further, the influence of leaders' emotions on followers' performance may be explained by followers' reactions to the strategic information conveyed by leaders' emotions (Keltner & Hardit, 1999; Van Kleef et al., 2009). Specifically, leaders' positive emotional displays may indicate to followers that their current level of performance is sufficient and that they should maintain their current level of effort. In contrast, leaders' negative emotional displays may inform followers that their current level of performance is insufficient and that they need to increase effort.

In sum, theoretical and empirical evidence demonstrates that transformational leaders do use emotional displays to influence their followers (Bass, 1985; Bono & Ilies,

2006) and that leaders' emotional displays have substantial influence on followers' attitudes and performance (e.g., Bono & Ilies, 2006; Damen et al., 2008).

However, previous research on leaders' emotions does not explore the psychological processes leaders use to generate and express their emotions (Humphrey et al., 2008). Researchers in this area assume that leaders either spontaneously experience the emotions that they show to their followers (Bass, 1985; Conger & Kanaugo, 1987) or easily generate appropriate emotions like trained actors and show them without exerting conscious effort (Van Kleef et al., 2009).

This is an important research gap in the leadership literature because theoretical and empirical work suggests that leaders do indeed "manage" their feelings and / or expressions of emotions (e.g., Brotheridge, 2006; Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Gardner et al., 2009; Glaso & Einarsen, 2008; Hochschild, 1983; Humphrey et al., 2008). First, the emotions that a leader naturally feels may be different from what she wants to show to her followers (Glaso & Einarsen, 2006; Glaso, Ekerholt, Barman, & Einarsen, 2006). In this case, the leader may suppress the emotions that she naturally experiences and simulate emotions that she thinks are appropriate in the given context (Hochschild, 1983; Grandey, 2000). For example, the leader may fake enthusiasm for a project that she does not really feel enthusiastic about. Or the leader may modify her inner feelings and try to experience appropriate emotions (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002). For instance, the leader may be disappointed by a follower's poor performance, but decide to attribute the follower's poor performance to external factors and try to experience and empress empathy when interacting with the follower.

Second, even when a leader feels emotions that may be appropriate in a given context, the leader is likely to put forth conscious effort to consider the extent to which the emotions she is feeling are appropriate to express in a given context (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Diefendorff, Croyle, & Gosserand, 2005; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). Leaders who do not do so seem unlikely to use their emotions constructively. Some leaders may simply express whatever emotions they feel regardless of their appropriateness. This is unlikely to lead to a constructive outcome (Galso et al., 2006; Tepper, 2000). Some leaders may choose to express almost nothing because of their own implicit leadership beliefs or because the culture/context does not support the expression of emotions. This choice would exemplify a non-use of emotional labor. On the other hand, the leader may consciously choose to show her genuine emotions when she thinks it is appropriate and will serve a constructive purpose (Connelly et al., 2002). For example, a leader may purposely decide to show her genuine excitement about a project or idea in effort to get followers excited about the project. Or the leader may be pleased with a follower, and may decide to show her pleasure by giving the follower a small award at the next department meeting. In both cases, the leader is consciously using her genuine emotion for instrumental or strategic purposes. Connelly et al. (2002) argue that charismatic leaders would know the influence of their emotions on followers and thus employ their emotions strategically.

The psychological process that individuals use to regulate their feelings and / or expressions of emotion is known as *emotional labor* (Hochschild, 1983; Grandey, 2000). Emotional labor theory (Grandey, 2000; Gross, 1998) has only recently been introduced to the leadership literature (Gardner et al., 2009; Humphrey et al., 2008). In the current

study, emotional labor is defined as the process that leaders use to regulate their feelings and / or expressions of emotion to influence followers during leader-follower interactions in support of achieving desired organizational goals. Three specific forms of emotional labor have been proposed: surface acting, deep acting, and display of genuine emotions (Gardner et al., 2009; Humphrey et al., 2008). **Surface acting** refers to the process of simulating observable emotions that are not truly felt, as when leaders suppress negative emotions and fake positive emotions (Glaso & Einarsen, 2008). **Deep acting** refers to the process of modifying inner feelings to experience and express appropriate emotions. Limited evidence shows that leaders sometimes consciously try to generate and experience the emotions in themselves that they want to express to others (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002).

Display of genuine emotions denotes the process of regulating expressions of genuine emotions. Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) first proposed that the display of naturally felt emotions constitutes emotional labor because individuals have to put forth conscious effort to ensure that these emotions comply with organizational rules. Diefendorff et al. (2005) operationalize display of genuine emotions in the service sector and show that it is "distinct from surface acting and deep acting as a method of displaying organizationally desired emotions" (p.339). In addition, research on emotion indicates that individuals tend to regulate the expression of emotion when others are present (Friedman & Miller-Herringer, 1991; Goffman, 1992), suggesting that leaders are likely to regulate the expression of their genuine emotions when they interact with followers. When examining leaders' emotional labor, Gardner et al. (2009) also consider display of genuine emotions a form of emotional labor in that leaders may purposely use their

naturally felt emotions to influence followers in pursuit of desired goals. There is limited evidence suggesting that leaders selectively express genuine positive emotions (Glaso & Einarsen, 2008).

Emotional labor, especially surface and deep acting, has been examined extensively in customer service workers (e.g., Grandey, 2003; Diefendorff et al., 2005). These studies help us to understand the nature and outcomes of emotional labor in workplace settings. Meta-analytic results show that surface acting was associated with undesirable work outcomes (Wang, Seibert, & Boles, in press). For instance, surface acting was negatively related to surface actors' task performance. This may be because surface actors have few cognitive resources to invest in their tasks. Conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989) suggests that surface acting consumes valuable cognitive resources to constantly self-monitor and self-correct during service encounters. Surface acting was also negatively related to surface actors' job satisfaction. This may be because surface actors feel inauthentic and therefore have an unpleasant work experience (Judge, Woolf, & Hurst, 2009). Finally, surface acting was negatively associated with surface actors' well-being. Emotion regulation theory (Grandey, 2000; Gross, 1998) suggests that surface acting taxes surface actors' bodies and thus has a detrimental effect on their well-being.

In contrast, meta-analytic results show that deep acting was associated with desirable work outcomes (Wang et al., in press). For example, deep acting was positively associated with non-self- reported task performance. This may be because customers' positive reactions to a service employee's deep acting generate more cognitive resources for the service employee than those consumed in the process of deep acting (Brotheridge

& Lee, 2002; Cote, 2005; Hobfoll, 1989). Moreover, deep acting was positively related to deep actors' job satisfaction. This may be because deep actors feel authentic at work and thus have a pleasant work experience (Judge et al., 2009).

Only a few studies examined service workers' display of genuine emotions and its correlates (e.g., Diefendorff et al., 2005; Zhang & Zhu, 2008). The relatively modest meta-analytic correlations between display of genuine emotions and surface acting (r_c = -.29; N = 2,894; K = 9) and deep acting (r_c = .24; N = 3,044; K = 10) suggest that display of genuine emotions is a distinct form of emotional labor (Wang et al., in press).

Research on emotional labor in the context of service work helps us to understand the nature of emotional labor and the ways in which emotional labor can affect important work outcomes during social interaction. However, this work makes a number of assumptions that may not hold in leadership contexts. For example, one assumption is that service workers typically have explicit display rules that specify what emotions are acceptable to express to customers (Diefendorff & Richard, 2003). However, for leaders, it is more likely that unwritten rules, role expectations, and implicit leadership beliefs guide leaders in deciding what emotions to show to followers (Gardner et al., 2009). Another assumption is that service workers are typically expected to serve with a smile, that is, to express only emotions high on positive valence (Grandey, 2003; Hochschild, 1983). However, leaders might choose to express a wide range of emotions, including both positive and negative emotions toward followers, under different situations (Humphrey et al., 2008). The variety and subtlety of expressed emotions are likely to be greater in leadership than in service roles. Therefore, emotional labor by leaders is an important topic that deserves separate research attention.

Since the major assumptions in service workers' emotional labor may not apply to leader-follower interactions, research on service workers' emotional labor offers questionable cues for us to understand the role of leaders' emotional labor on leadership effectiveness, especially follower outcomes. As such, the role of leaders' emotional labor on leadership effectiveness remains unknown and uninvestigated.

These theoretical observations generate an important set of unanswered research questions. *First, which forms of emotional labor will be positively associated with leadership effectiveness criteria such as follower attitudes and performance?* Findings on observer reactions to service workers' emotional labor imply that some forms (e.g., deep acting) may be more effective than others (e.g., surface acting). Again, this speculation is rather weak given different assumptions and different contexts of leaders' and service employees' emotional labor. *Second, how will leaders' emotional labor influence followers' attitudes and performance?* Both previous research on leadership, and qualitative research on the reasons leaders give for engaging in emotional labor (e.g., following implicit leadership beliefs), suggest the following three possible mechanisms: a) leaders who use emotional labor well are likely to be seen as more charismatic/ transformational; b) leaders who use emotional labor well are likely to have higher follower motivation (i.e., followers are emotionally connected to their work); c) leaders who use emotional labor well are likely to generate more positive emotional reactions in followers. *Third, which forms of leaders' emotional labor will be positively associated with leaders' attitudes and well-being?* Research on service workers' emotional labor suggests that leader surface acting may have a negative impact on leader attitudes and well-being because it drains psychological resources and that deep acting and display of

genuine emotions may have a positive impact on the emotional laborer because they replenish psychological resources. Figure 1 depicts a model of the relationships to be examined.

Theoretical Model

The Role of Leaders' Emotional Labor in Followers' Attitudes and Performance

The basic proposition of this dissertation is that leaders who engage in effective forms of emotional labor will have followers with more positive work attitudes and higher performance. Figure 1 depicts a model showing that leaders' emotional labor may influence followers' attitudes and performance through three intervening mechanisms reflecting followers' cognition (about the leader), engagement, and affect. These three mechanisms emerge both from a theoretical review of the literature on leadership and emotional labor and more directly from qualitative research regarding the reasons leaders give for engaging in emotional labor (Glaso et al., 2006). This model suggests that leaders' emotional labor may impact followers' attitudes and performance by influencing followers' transformational leadership perceptions, emotional engagement with their work, and general emotional reactions.

Organizational display rules and norms, role expectations, and implicit leadership beliefs suggest that leader use emotional labor to express situationally appropriate emotions (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Epitropaki & Martin, 2004; Gardner et al., 2009; Humphrey et al., 2008; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). There is empirical evidence suggesting that leaders engage in emotional labor mainly to display socially desirable emotions (Glaso & Einarsen, 2008). Although not all appropriate emotions are socially desirable

(Humphrey et al., 2008), it stands to reason that socially desirable emotions are perceived appropriate in most leader-follower interactions (e.g., Newcombs & Ashkanasy, 2002). Therefore, based on the assumption that leaders use emotional labor to express appropriate emotions in a given context, I develop hypotheses concerning the relationships of leaders' emotional labor with followers' transformational leadership perceptions and emotional engagement

Leaders' emotional labor may play a role in followers' perceptions of transformational leadership. Gardner et al. (2009) refer to leaders' emotional labor as the process that leaders use to display appropriate emotions toward both internal and external audiences, "albeit for the purpose of influencing such audiences to follow them in pursuit of desired goals" (p.467). The dramaturgical perspective of transformational leadership suggests that emotionally expressive leaders fall within followers' prototypical transformational leadership schema and thus are likely to be seen as transformational leaders (Gardner & Avolio, 1998). Theoretical research suggests that leaders use emotional labor to express appropriate emotions. Empirical research suggests that emotionally expressive leaders will make their communications with followers more inspiring and establish emotional bond with followers (Rubin, Munz, & Bommer, 2005). As such, leaders who engage in emotional labor are likely to express more of the emotions associated with transformational leadership (Humphrey et al., 2008). Therefore, leaders who perform more emotional labor may tend to be perceived as more transformational.

However, I expect that the proposed positive relationship between leaders' emotional labor and followers' transformational leadership perceptions will only hold for

deep acting and display of genuine emotions. When surface acting, leaders just "'choke down' unwanted feelings and present the expression that matches their desired display" (Beal, Trougakos, Weiss, & Green, 2006, p.1054). Leaders' surface acting may be exposed because leaders' nonverbal facial expressions may convey information that they are acting (Ekman & Friesen, 1982; Keltner & Haidt, 1999). Followers are likely to perceive surface acting leaders as insincere, untrustworthy, and non-transformational (Grandey, Fisk, Mattila, Jansen, & Sideman, 2005). Therefore, I expect that leaders' surface acting will result in followers' negative perceptions of transformational leadership.

Leaders' emotional labor may also be associated with followers' emotional engagement, a motivational construct describing the extent to which an individual is emotionally invested in his or her role performance (Kahn, 1990). Highly emotionally engaged individuals tend to be emotionally connected to their work. Leaders who frequently perform emotional labor to express appropriate emotions tend to be seen as emotionally engaged in their role performance and thus to serve as role models via social learning (Bandura, 1977; Humphrey et al., 2008). However, I propose that the above positive relationship between leaders' emotional labor and followers' emotional engagement will only hold for deep acting and displays of genuine emotions. I expect the lack of sincerity conveyed by leaders' surface acting will result in less engaged followers. Followers are likely to perceive surface-acting leaders as manipulative and untrustworthy (Grandey et al., 2005) and question the value of the work they are asked to do. As such, followers will tend to withhold their emotional energy or to generate negative emotions.

Leaders' emotional labor may elicit followers' emotional reactions. Theoretical (e.g., Humphrey et al., 2008) and empirical research (Glaso et al., 2006) suggests that leaders engage in emotional labor to manage followers' emotions. For example, Humphrey et al. (2008) argue that leaders use emotional labor to take control of emotional contagion processes to influence followers' emotions. Glaso and colleagues (2006) found that managers suppressed the expression of negative emotions in order to make their followers experience positive emotions at work. Prior research on leaders' emotions focused on the influence of leaders' emotions on followers' emotions (e.g., Bono & Ilies, 2006) but did not take leaders' emotional labor into account (Humphrey et al., 2008). According to emotional contagion (Hatfield et al., 1994), which suggests followers tend to mimic leaders' facial expressions and then catch leaders' expressed emotions (Erez et al., 2008), the relationship between leaders' emotional labor and followers' emotional reactions will be contingent on the positive and negative valence of leaders' expressed emotions. Thus, when leaders frequently express positive emotions, leaders' emotional labor will be positively related to followers' positive emotional reactions. In contrast, when leaders frequently express negative emotions, leaders' emotional labor will be negatively related to followers' negative emotional reactions.

In addition, Kahn's (1990) motivational approach to job engagement suggests that followers' transformational leadership perceptions and emotional reactions may also be associated with their emotional engagement via the three antecedents of emotional engagement: psychological meaningfulness, safety and availability. Theoretically, transformational leadership behaviors, such as inspiration motivation, may increase follower psychological meaningfulness and thus enhance follower emotional engagement

(Kahn, 1990; Zhu et al., 2009). Followers' positive or negative emotional reactions may impact the availability of their emotional resources to invest in their work roles (Fredrickson, 1998; Hobfoll, 1989). The more frequently followers experience positive emotions, the more emotional resources to be invested in their work roles and thus the higher levels of emotional engagement. In contrast, the more frequently followers experience negative emotions, the fewer emotional resources to be invested in their work roles and thus the lower levels of emotional engagement.

As illustrated in Figure 1, transformational leadership theories (Bass, 1985) and empirical evidence suggest that follower transformational leadership perceptions will be positively related to follower attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction and organizational identification) and performance (i.e., task performance and Organizational Citizenship Behavior, OCB) (Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Wang, Oh, Courtright, & Colbert, 2011). In addition, job engagement theory (Kahn, 1990) and empirical evidence (e.g., Christan, Garza, Slaughter, 2011; Rich et al., 2010) indicate that follower emotional engagement might be positively associated with follower attitudes and performance. Finally, follower emotional reactions may be associated with follower attitudes and performance. The mood congruence model (Bower, 1981) suggests that followers' emotional reactions may affect their judgment of work attitudes and their OCBs. Moreover, affect-as-information theory (Schwartz & Clore, 1983) implies that followers' emotional reactions will provide information that may impact their task performance.

The Role of Leaders' Emotional Labor in Leaders' Well-Being and Attitudes

The theoretical model in Figure 1 also looks at the role of leaders' emotional labor in leaders' well-being and attitudes. Emotion regulation theory (Grandey, 2000; Gross, 1998) suggests that leaders' surface acting will be positively related to leaders' emotional exhaustion because surface acting will overwork leaders' cardiovascular and nervous systems and make them feel emotionally exhausted (Grandey, 2000). Further, since surface-acting leaders tend to feel inauthentic due to the dissonance between felt emotions and expressed emotions, they are likely to have low levels of job satisfaction in that emotional dissonance represents an unpleasant work experience (Judge et al., 2009). However, leaders' deep acting and displays of genuine emotions are likely to be positively related to the leaders' job satisfaction because when deep acting or displaying genuine emotions, leaders tend to feel authenticity, which reflects a pleasant work experience (Hochschild, 1983; Judge et al., 2009).

Contributions of the Proposed Research

The forgoing suggests that the current study has several potential contributions. First, this study will contribute to the transformational leadership literature. Specifically, this study represents the first attempt to examine the role of leaders' emotional labor on the production of follower transformational leadership perceptions (Gardner & Avolio, 1998). This study also investigates the price that leaders may pay in terms of well-being and satisfaction when they use emotional labor to display context appropriate emotions. Second, this study contributes to the literature on leader emotional behavior and follower motivation. For the literature on leader emotional behavior, this study complements prior

research on leaders' emotions by specifically focusing on the psychological processes through which leaders regulate their feelings and / or expressions of emotion when interacting with followers. For the literature on follower motivation, this study is the first to empirically examine the direct path from leaders' emotional labor to followers' emotional engagement. Last, this study also contributes to the emotional labor literature by extending emotional labor theories to the leadership context. Prior research on emotional labor is limited to service workers and focuses on the intrapersonal effect of emotional labor (Cote, 2005; Wang et al., in press). Moreover, this study will be the first to link leaders' emotional labor strategies to leadership effectiveness criteria, such as the follower outcomes examined in this study.

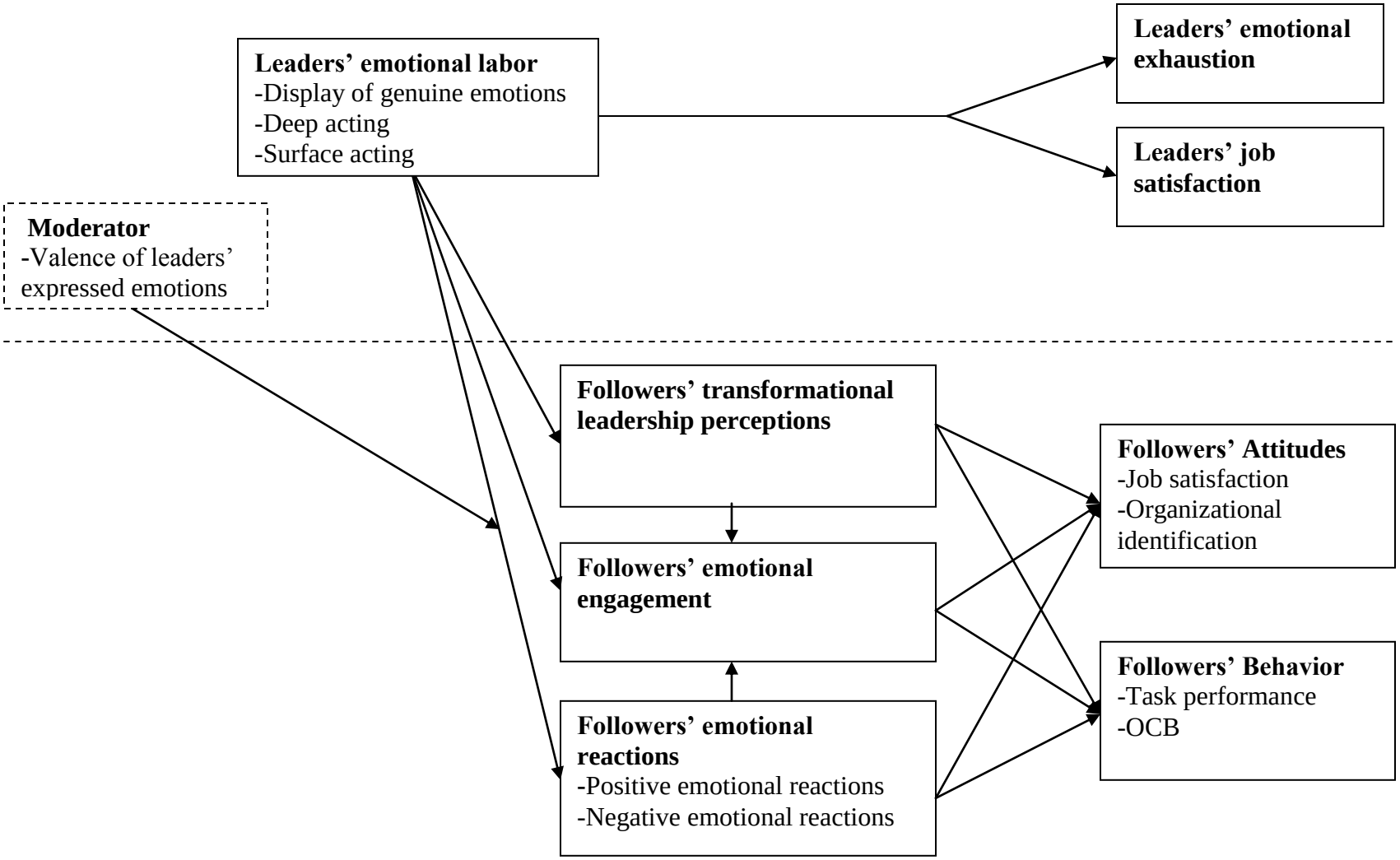

Figure 1. Proposed Theoretical Model for the Study.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Brief Review of Early Leadership Research

Systematic research on leadership began with the search of "great man" in the early 1930s (House & Aditya, 1997). Researchers were interested in identifying leadership traits that might differentiate leaders from non-leaders. A large number of individual differences such as personality traits, intelligence, gender, height and so on were investigated (e.g., Stogdill, Mann, 1959; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991). Despite the effort devoted to this area, only a few leader traits were found to be positively related to leader emergence or leadership effectiveness. Specifically, intelligence was found to be positively related to leadership across several large scale surveys and meta-analyses (Mann, 1959; Lord, DeVader, & Alliger, 1986; Stogdill, 1948; 1974). Self-confidence, which refers to one's beliefs in one's competencies and skills, was also positively related to leadership (Mann, 1959; Lord et al., 1986; Stogdill, 1948). Further, leaders are also higher on determination, integrity, and sociability than non-leaders (Mann, 1959; Lord et al., 1986; Stogdill, 1948, 1974). To be noted, a fair number of studies also examined the relationships between the Five-Factor Model personality traits and leadership. Meta-analytic results show that only extraversion was significantly related to leadership (Judge et al., 2002). In general, results show that leader traits are only correlated with various leadership indices modestly at the best (House & Aditya, 1997).

Because of the small to modest magnitudes of relationships between leaders' traits and leadership effectiveness, leadership researchers turned their attention to leaders'

behavior. Three groups of researchers substantially contributed to research on leaders' behavior: the Ohio State Leadership Center group (e.g., Stogdill & Coons, 1957), the University of Michigan Social Research Institute group (Kahn & Katz, 1953; Likert, 1961; Mann, 1965), and the Harvard group (Bales, 1954). The Ohio group developed the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ, Hemphill & Coons, 1957; Stogdill, 1963) that describes various leader behaviors. The LBDQ and its short version were widely used in the literature. Two general types of leadership behavior were reported by subordinates across different studies: initiating structure and consideration (Stogdill, 1974). Initiating structure refers to task related behaviors such as organizing work, defining role responsibilities, and scheduling work activities. Consideration mainly includes relationship oriented behaviors such as building trust, respect, and liking between leaders and followers. The University of Michigan group also identified two types of leadership behaviors, employee orientation and production orientation. Employee orientation refers to leadership behaviors such as focusing on employees' interests and giving special attention to employees' needs. Production orientation includes leadership behaviors that emphasize the production and technical aspects of a job. The Harvard group developed the leadership grid, which measures the extent to which leaders are concerned with production and people. Concern for production is the degree to which a leader is concerned with attaining organizational tasks. Concern for people refers to the extent to which a leader attends to followers' needs. In sum, the major finding of leader behavior research is that leaders generally demonstrate two types of behaviors: task-oriented and people-oriented leadership behaviors (House & Aditya, 1997). Further, meta-analytic results show that the two types of leadership behaviors have

modestly strong relationships with leadership effectiveness (Judge et al., 2004). However, the magnitudes of these relationships vary substantially across primary studies, indicating that situational factors may moderate these relationships (Hunter & Schmidt, 2004).

Given that the effectiveness of leaders' behavior varies across situations, some researchers argue that leaders need to adapt their behavior to situational demands (e.g., Fiedler, 1967, 1971; Fielder & Garcia, 1987; Hersey & Blanchard, 1982; House, 1971). Thus, several contingency theories were proposed. The major ones are Fiedler's (1967, 1971) contingency theory, House's (1971) path-goal theory, Hersay and Blanchard's (1982) life cycle theory, and Fielder and Garcia's (1987) cognitive resource theory. The common theme across these contingency theories is that situational factors (e.g., situational stress, Fielder & Garcia, 1987) or follower traits (e.g., follower maturity, Hersay & Blanchard, 1982) interact with leader behaviors or traits (e.g., intelligence, Fielder & Gacia, 1987) to jointly influence leadership effectiveness. Empirically, only a few major predictions of the Fiedler's Contingency and House's (1971) path-goal theory were supported by meta-analyses (Peters, Hartke, Pohlman, 1985; Strube & Gacia, 1981; Wofford & Liska, 1993). Due to the complexity and inconsistent findings of contingency theories, research interests in contingency theories waned in the 1980s.

In conclusion, the snapshot of early leadership research indicates that the role of leaders' emotions in leadership effectiveness was almost neglected in early leadership research. In fact, emotions were mainly regarded as evils of rational decision making and thus were kept out of early leadership research (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995; George, 2000). However, relatively more attention was paid to leaders' emotion when

transformational/charismatic leadership theories were proposed (Bass, 1985; Conger & Kanungo, 1987).

Transformational/Charismatic Leadership Theories and Emotions

Burns (1978) first used transformational leadership to describe extraordinary political leaders (e.g., Mohandas Karamchand Gandhi). Later, Bass (1985) introduced this concept to the leadership literature. Bass (1985) argued that transformational leaders motivate followers to transcend their self-interests and work for the good of the group or organization by exhibiting four types of behaviors: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Since the publication of Bass' (1985) seminal book, transformational leadership has received a great deal of attention and has been one of the most widely researched leadership paradigms in the leadership literature (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009). Hundreds of studies have been conducted and six meta-analyses have been published (DeGroot, Kiker, & Cross, 2000; Dumdum, Lowe, & Avolio, 2002; Fuller, Patterson, Hester, & Stringer, 1996; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramanian, 1996; Wang, Oh, Courtright, & Colbert, 2011). Results of large scale meta-analyses show that transformational leadership is positively related to follower attitudes, motivation, leader performance, and follower, team, and organizational performance (e.g., Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Wang et al., 2011).

To be noted, House (1976) proposed charismatic leadership at about the same time that Burns (1978) published his book on transformational leadership. Other researchers (e.g., Conger & Kanaugo, 1987) extended and revised House's charismatic

theory. The essence of charismatic leadership theory is that some leaders possess special personality characteristics (e.g., charisma) or act in unique ways and are perceived or attributed as charismatic leaders, who then have charismatic effects on their followers (e.g., increasing follower commitment, identification, obedience, attitudes, and performance). Transformational leadership and charismatic leadership conceptually overlap (Conger & Kanaugo, 1994). Bass (1985) argues that charisma is part of transformational leadership. However, transformational leaders also demonstrate other behaviors such as intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration. Empirically, transformational leadership and charismatic leadership had similar relationships with various leadership criteria (Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Wang et al., 2011).

Emotional components are intense in transformational/charismatic leadership theories (Ashkanasy & Tse, 2000; Bono & Ilies, 2006; Connelly et al., 2002). Conceptualizations of transformational/charismatic leadership place an emphasis on emotions. For example, Weber's (1947) definition of charisma for political and social leaders is completely emotional. According to Weber (1947), charisma refers to an "emotional form of communal relationship" (p.360) and genuine charisma is completely emotionally based. Conger and Kanungo (1987, 2000) considers charismatic leadership an attribution based on followers' perceptions of their leaders' behavior. They argue that leaders use their verbal and nonverbal behavior to influence followers' attribution of charisma (Conger & Kanungo, 1987). They specify that expressions of self-confidence, persistence and concerns for followers' needs are part of the nonverbal behavior that leaders may use. In addition, Bass (1985) claims that transformational leadership "has an intense emotional component". (p.36). As previously discussed, various emotions are

integrated in typical transformational leadership behaviors. Transformational leaders emphasize the symbolic meanings of mundane work activities and link followers' work behavior to their values, beliefs, and self-concordant goals (Bono & Judge, 2003). To achieve this end, transformational leaders need to display appropriate emotions or be emotionally expressive (Bass, 1985; Conger & Kanungo, 1987; 1998; Humphrey et al., 2008).

Although emotions are key to transformational/charismatic leadership, not much detail is provided regarding the roles of specific emotions in transformational/charismatic leadership theories (Connelly et al., 2002). To fill this void, Connelly et al. (2002) propose a framework that suggests specific emotions that transformational leaders may manifest as they establish initial influence, communicate a vision, generate acceptance of the vision and goals associated with the vision, and ensure commitment to the vision and the goals. Specifically, transformational leaders may display dissatisfaction or dislike to generate dissonance and desire for transformation in followers. Then, transformational leaders may express interest, excitement, and optimism to increase followers' awareness of a new vision. Consequently, transformational leaders will display determination, excitement, and interest to gain acceptance of the new vision and the goals associated with the new vision. Finally, to motivate followers to realize the new vision and the goals, transformational leaders are likely to use both positive (e.g., caring, love/compassion, self-assurance) and negative emotions (e.g., anger, frustration, regret). Connelly's framework complements existing transformational leadership theories and exemplifies the roles of emotions in influencing followers.

Transformational/charismatic leadership theories suggest that transformational/ charismatic leaders' emotional displays may also elicit emotional responses from followers (e.g., Bono & Ilies, 2006; Erez et al., 2008). For example, Bass (1985, 1996) argues that transformational leaders display enthusiasm and optimism toward an inspiring vision to elicit the same emotions from followers. Some transformational leadership researchers (e.g., Bono and Ilies, 2006; Erez et al., 2008) argue that emotional contagion might explain how leaders' emotions may elicit followers' emotions. Emotional contagion (Hatfield et al., 1994) refers to the process in which one individual mimics another individual's facial expressions and then "catches" the other individual's emotions. The emotional contagion literature suggests that this mimicry process is mainly subconscious and humans are pre-wired to mimic others' emotions (Dimberg, 1990). Moreover, previous research suggests that followers are likely to pay more attention to leaders' emotions due to power and status differences (Cote, 2005). In this sense, transformational leaders' emotions are more likely to be transmitted to their followers.

One central tenet of transformational leadership theories is that transformational leaders motivate followers to perform beyond expectations (Bass, 1985; Conger & Kanungo, 1987). However, little attention has been paid to the role of transformational leaders' emotions in influencing followers' motivation. Bono and Ilies (2006) argue that transformational leaders' emotional displays may energize followers to allocate more attentional resources to their tasks (Kanfer & Ackerman, 1989). Some other researchers suggest that leaders' emotions may influence followers' motivation through influencing their emotions (e.g., Erez & Izen, 2002; Ilies & Judge, 2005). For instance, leaders' positive emotions may be "caught" by followers. When followers are in a positive

emotional state, they are likely to have a high expectancy that their effort will lead to enhanced performance and to set high-level goals (Ilies & Judge, 2005; Seo, Barrett, Bartunek, 2004). However, according to the social-functional approach to emotion (Keltner & Haidt, 1999), leaders' emotions may convey information about leaders' expectancy of goal accomplishment and thus may also directly influence followers' motivation (Eden, 1988, 1992). The social-functional approach to emotion (Keltner & Haidt, 1999) posits that emotions have three functions in interpersonal social interactions. First, emotions disclose senders' emotional state (e.g., happy or angry), social intentions (e.g., wanting to maintain a good relationship), and orientations toward the interaction partner (e.g., being submissive or dominant in a relationship). Second, emotions elicit complementary and reciprocal emotions from receivers. For example, anger may provoke fear from receivers. Third, emotions may affect receivers' social behavior. For example, parents' anger displays may stop children from undesirable conduct. Empirical evidence shows that leaders' emotions (i.e., anger and happiness) convey information and affect followers' affective reactions and inferences about their task performance (Van Kleef et al., 2009).

According to this approach, when transformational leaders articulate a compelling vision, their enthusiasm and optimism will convey information about their high expectancy of realizing the vision. Research on the Pygmalion effect suggests that leaders' high expectancy of goal accomplishment will increase followers' expectancy (Eden, 1988; Kierein & Gold, 2000), which is an important motivational variable (Vroom, 1964).

Empirical Research on Transformational/Charismatic Leaders' Emotions

Only a few studies have empirically examined the role of transformational/charismatic leaders' emotions in followers' outcomes (e.g., Bono & Ilies, 2006; Erez et al., 2008). Based on the framework of emotional contagion, Bono and Ilies (2006) conducted a series of studies to specifically examine the role of charismatic leaders' positive emotions in followers' emotional and attitudinal responses. Both field surveys and lab experiments were used. The results show that charismatic leaders' positive emotions expressed in their vision for their work group or in presentations were positively related to actual followers' or experimental followers' perceptions of leaders' charisma. In addition, Bono and Ilies found that leaders' positive emotions were positively associated with followers' positive moods, and followers' ratings of leadership effectiveness and attractiveness. They further showed that leaders' positive emotions had direct effects on followers' ratings of leader effectiveness and attractiveness after teasing out the effect of followers' positive mood. Relatedly, Erez et al. (2008) conducted a lab experiment and a field survey to examine the relationship of charismatic leadership and follower positive affect. The results across both studies show that charismatic leadership was positively related to follower positive affect. Further, in the lab experiment, leaders' positive expressions and aroused behavior mediated this positive relationship, whereas in the field study, leaders' positive affect and a tendency to express positivity mediated this positive relationship. In both studies, charismatic leaders' positive affect was positively related to followers' positive affect. Although Erez et al. (2008) did not measure

emotional contagion, they argued that emotional contagion ought to be the process through which charismatic leaders' positive affect was transferred to their followers.

Unlike Erez et al. (2008), Cherulnik, Donley, Wiewel, & Miller (2001) conducted two lab experiments and deliberately measured emotional contagion. The results show that followers mimicked leaders' emotions and that charismatic leaders' emotions were more contagious than non-charismatic leaders. To be noted, the leaders and followers in both studies were made up of undergraduate experimental subjects. In addition, based on data collected from 108 leaders and 325 direct reports in 64 organizations, Groves (2005) found that leader self-reported emotional expressivity was positively related to follower ratings of charismatic leadership. Relatedly, in a field study, Rubin et al. (2005) reported that leader self-reported positive affectivity, emotion recognition ability, and agreeableness were positively related to follower ratings of transformational leadership.

Implications for the Current Study

The limited empirical evidence in the research on transformational/charismatic leaders' emotions suggests that transformational leaders display more positive emotions, which lead to followers' positive moods through emotional contagion and positive attitudes toward the leaders (Bono & Ilies, 2006; Erez et al., 2008). Further, leader emotional expressivity and positive affectivity are positively related to follower transformational/charismatic leadership perceptions. However, studies in this line of research were unclear about how transformational/charismatic leaders use their emotions to influence followers (Bono & Barron, 2008).

Research on Leaders' Emotions

Some authors examined the direct relationships of leaders' emotions with followers' reactions without reference to charismatic/transformational leadership perceptions. Specifically, using an experimental design with undergraduates as group members and confederate leaders, Gaddis et al. (2004) showed that when confederate leaders displayed positive emotions (e.g., happiness, optimism) while giving negative performance feedback, group members' perceptions of leadership effectiveness and subsequent group performance were higher than when leaders demonstrated negative emotions (e.g., anger, disgust) when giving negative performance feedback. In addition, Gaddis and colleagues found that the effect of leaders' negative emotions on followers' perceptions of leadership effectiveness was moderated by group goal type (prevention vs. promotion goals) such that the confederate leaders were perceived as more effective when the group goal was framed as preventing failure than when the group goal was framed as striving for success. This might be because group members were prepared for negative performance feedback and leaders' negative emotions when they were warned to prevent potential failures at the beginning of task assignment.

Relatedly, Newcombs and Ashkanasy (2002) manipulated leaders' emotions (positive vs. negative emotions) and leaders' performance appraisal valence (positive vs. negative). They videotaped one minute video clips in which a leader gave performance appraisal under different study manipulation conditions. Undergraduates were invited to watch one of the video clips and report their perceived relationship quality with the leader in the video clip. The results show that the perceived relationship quality was the highest when a leader giving positive performance appraisal displayed positive emotions. In

contrast, when a leader giving positive performance appraisal displayed negative emotions, the lowest relationship quality was reported. Similar to Gaddis et al. (2004), participant-followers perceived a higher relationship quality when a leader giving negative performance feedback displayed positive emotions than when a leader giving negative performance feedback showed negative emotions. Taken together, the results of the two studies suggest that leaders' positive emotions during negative performance feedback tend to be more effective than leaders' negative emotions in eliciting positive follower affective reactions and that performance feedback (positive or negative) given with positive emotions may result in higher follower affective reactions than performance feedback (positive or negative) given with negative emotions.

Using a field sample of school principals and their direct reports and a survey design, Johnson (2008) reported that leaders' positive affect was positively related to followers' positive affect, whereas leaders' negative affect was negatively related to followers' positive affect. Furthermore, the relationships between leaders' positive and negative affect and followers' positive affect were moderated by followers' susceptibility to emotional contagion such that the magnitudes of the relationships was stronger when followers' susceptibility to emotional contagion was high rather than low. Additionally, Johnson (2008) found a significant but negative relationship between leaders' positive affect and followers' turnover. However there was an insignificant relationship between leaders' negative emotions and followers' turnover. Like Bono and Ilies (2006), Johnson (2008) used emotional contagion as the overall framework when arguing the link between leaders' affect and followers' affect. In addition, Johnson (2008) also examined the relationships between follower affect and attribution of charismatic leadership and OCB.

The results show that follower positive affect was positively associated with attribution of charismatic leadership and OCB, whereas follower negative affect was negatively related to attribution of charismatic leadership and was insignificantly related to OCB. The author argued that the affect-priming principle (Bower, 1981) might explain the mechanism through which followers' affect impacted their attribution of charismatic leadership. The affect priming principle (Bower, 1981) suggests that people's primed affective states lead to affect-congruent information processing and the retrieval of affect-congruent thoughts and memories. As a result, individuals in a positive affective state are likely to perceive others positively and individuals in a negative affective state tend to perceive others negatively.

Some studies focused on the influence of leaders' negative emotions on follower leadership perceptions (e.g., Lewis, 2000; Tiedens, 2001). In a lab study with professional actors as leaders and psychology undergrads as followers, Lewis (2000) videotaped leaders' anger, sadness, and neutral emotion and randomly assigned followers to watch these video clips. The results show that leaders who expressed anger and sadness were perceived as less effective than leaders who were emotionally neutral. Lewis (2000) argued that this might be because leaders' expressions of negative emotions violated perceived role norms (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987) and represented a lack of emotional control (Goleman, 1998). Further, leader gender interacted with leader negative emotions. Specifically, male leaders who expressed anger were perceived as more effective than female leaders who expressed anger. However, female leaders who expressed sadness were perceived as more effective than male leaders who expressed

sadness. When both male and female leaders were emotionally neutral, female leaders were perceived as more effective.

In a series of four studies, Tiedens (2001) examined the influence of sadness and anger on status conferral, which refers to observers' decisions about whether senders' of these negative emotions should be given status and power. The results across the four studies demonstrated that observers conferred more status to senders who expressed anger than to senders who expressed sadness. Further, perceived competence mediated the relationships between expressed emotions and status conferral.

Instead of examining the direct effects of leaders' emotions on follower outcomes, Damen et al. (2008) took into account the moderating effect of followers' state affectivity. With reference to the affect-priming principle (Bower, 1981), Damen and colleagues argue that followers high in positive affectivity (PA) are more susceptible to positive emotional stimuli, whereas followers low in PA are more susceptible to negative emotional stimuli. Specifically, the authors hypothesized that leaders' emotions would interact with followers' state PA such that when leaders' emotions (positive vs. negative) match the valence of followers' state PA (high vs. low), leaders' emotions would tend to have positive effects on followers' task performance and OCB. Damen et al. (2008) also used an experimental design with undergraduates as participants. To be noted, rather than merely asking participants to watch video clips and then report reactions to leaders in the video clips, Damen et al. (2008) invited participants to actually complete a task of processing customer requests (Hertel, Deter, & Konradt, 2003) after getting instructions from a "leader". In fact, the leader was a trained actress (study 1) or actor (study 2). The leader's positive or negative emotions were manipulated when the leader was giving

instructions to participant-followers regarding the past performance of other people who had performed the task. While referring to bad performance in the past, the leader displayed anger. While referring to good performance in the past, the leader showed enthusiasm. Participant-followers' task performance was measured as the number of completed customer requests. Participant-followers' OCB was assessed as the number of spelling errors that was reported after the task was completed. The results of the study largely provide support for the authors' arguments. In study 1, participant-followers' task performance was significantly higher in the affective-match conditions (i.e., followers high on PA receive instructions from a female leader showing enthusiasm and followers low on PA receive instructions from a female leader showing anger) than in the affective-mismatch conditions. However, the same pattern of relationships was not found for OCB.

In Study 2, a male leader gave the instruction and two additional conditions were simulated: the male leader referred to bad or good past performance with neutral emotions. The results for task performance in Study 1 were replicated. In addition, the same pattern of results as for task performance was found for OCB. Further, results in Study 2 show that participant-followers in the affective-mismatch conditions exhibited significantly worse task performance or OCB than those in the conditions where the male leader gave instructions with neutral emotions. One noteworthy implication from Damen et al. (2008) is that leaders' anger may result in higher follower task performance and OCB when followers are also low on PA. The above moderating effects were not found when followers' PA is replaced with their NA. The authors argued that this might be because the affective congruence effect was stronger for PA than for NA and "PA is more important than NA in social interaction" (p.891, Damen et al., 2008).

In addition to Gaddis et al. (2004), Van Kleef et al. (2009) examined the mediating processes through which leaders' emotions might affect followers' team performance based on the Emotions as Social Information (EASI) Model. The EASI model focuses on the interpersonal effects of emotions and posits that emotions may influence receivers' behaviors through an affective reactions' path and a strategic information path. Affective reactions include positive or negative impressions, interpersonal liking, and constructive interpersonal relationships, whereas strategic information refers to inferences that receivers may draw from senders' emotions (e.g., anger representing dissatisfaction with receivers' task performance). Contingent on followers' epistemic motivation, which refers to people's propensity to have a thorough understanding of a situation, leaders' emotions will affect follower team performance through either path. Specifically, Van Kleef et al. (2009) posit that for teams high on epistemic motivation, leaders' anger results in better team performance through performance inferences, whereas for teams low on epistemic motivation, leaders' happiness leads to better team performance through affective reactions. Using a lab experiment with an actor-leader and teams made up of undergraduate participants, Van Kleef et al. (2009) provided full support for their theoretical arguments. The findings of this study suggest that leaders' positive and negative emotions could be instrumental to leadership effectiveness depending on follower characteristics. Further, the findings in Van Kleef et al. (2009) and Damen et al. (2008) imply that follower characteristics may affect follower reactions to the influence of leaders' emotions.

Apart from the above major studies in which leaders' emotions are the focal variables, some studies focus on leaders' mood rather than emotions. For example, using

a survey design with supervisors and their direct reports as the study subjects, George (1995) showed that supervisors' positive mood was positively related to team performance and that team positive affective tone was also positively related to team performance. George proposes several theoretical mechanisms regarding how leaders' positive mood may influence team performance. First, George suggests that leaders in a positive mood may have high expectations for their groups. Research on the Pygmalion effect indicates that leaders' high expectation may actually result in better group performance (Eden, 1992). Second, George posits that leaders in a positive mood may engage in more prosocial behavior and serve as role models, which may stimulate group helping behavior and thus increase group performance. Further, George expects that leaders in a positive mood may increase group members' self-efficacy, which may lead to better performance (Stajakovic & Luthens, 1998). Last, George argues that the last two mechanisms may also explain how positive group affective tone may lead to increased team performance.

In a similar vein, based on the framework of emotional contagion, Sy, Cote, and Saavedra (2005) investigated the relationships of leaders' mood with followers' mood, group affective tone, and group processes in self-managing teams using an experimental design with undergraduates as study subjects. Leaders' positive or negative mood was manipulated by letting leaders watch either a humorous videotape or a sad TV documentary about social injustice and aggression before leaders interacted with other team members. Both clips lasted for eight minutes. The task in this experiment was to erect a tent (Quinn, 2000). The results show that when leaders were in a positive/negative mood, other group members experienced more positive/negative mood. Furthermore,

leaders' positive/negative mood resulted in a more positive/negative group affective tone. Leaders' mood also affected two group processes. Specifically, group members exerted more effort when leaders were in a negative mood. However, group members exhibited more cooperation when leaders were in a positive mood. In fact, Sy et al. (2005) provided evidence for George's (1995) speculation that leaders' positive mood may enhance group performance by emulating more prosocial behavior in the group.

In sum, the foregoing findings provide initial support for the following conclusions. First, leader positive emotions are positively related to follower attitudes (e.g., Newcombs & Ashkanasy, 2002). Second, leader positive emotions are positively related to follower task performance, OCB, and team performance (e.g., Damen et al., 2008; Van Kleef et al., 2009). Third, leader negative emotions are negatively related to follower attitudes or perceived leadership effectiveness (e.g., Lewis, 2000). Fourth, leader negative emotions are positively related to follower performance on effort-based tasks (Damen et al., 2008), OCB (Damen et al., 2008), and team performance (Van Kleef et al., 2009), but negatively related to follower performance on creativity-based tasks (Gaddis et al., 2004). Fifth, leader anger results in follower increased perceptions of the leader's power (Tiedens, 2001). Finally, follower characteristics may moderate the influence of leaders' emotions on follower outcomes (e.g., Damen et al., 2008).

Two theoretical models have been used to explain how leaders' emotions may influence followers' emotions, attitudes, and performance. The first is emotional contagion model (Hatfield et al., 1994), which suggests that leaders' emotions will influence follower outcomes in two steps. First, followers consciously or unconsciously mimic leaders' emotional displays and "catch" leaders' emotions. Consequently, follower

infected emotions will influence follower attitudes and performance as suggested by intrapersonal models, such as the affect priming model (Bower, 1981), the mood congruence judgment model (Meyer, Gaschke, Braverman, & Evans, 1992), or the affect-as-information model (Schwartz & Clore, 1983). Both the affect priming model (Bower, 1981) and the mood congruence judgment model (Meyer et al., 1992) posit that an individual's judgments tend to be congruent with his or her mood. Meyer et al. (1992) conducted three studies and found that this mood-congruent judgment effect generalize from the lab to field settings, across specific emotions, and from self-relevant judgments to all other valenced judgments. The affect-as-information model suggests that affect provides individuals with information about situations and that the information will stimulate individuals to tailor their behaviors to adapt to the situations (Schwartz & Clore, 1983, 2003). A plethora of studies provide support for this model (e.g., Forgas & Vargas, 2000; George & Zhou, 2007; Schwartz, 2002)

The second is the EASI model (Van Kleef, 2009). As discussed above, the EASI model posits that leaders' emotions will affect followers' performance through eliciting followers' affective reactions and strategic information inferences. The major contribution of this model to the literature is that leaders' emotions may also convey information in addition to influencing follower emotions through emotional contagion. This model is rooted in the social-functional approach to emotion (Keltner& Haidt, 1999) and has been tested by Van Kleef et al. (2009). The leader's happiness and anger were found to convey information about the leader's satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the teams' past performance.

Limitations of the Research on Leaders' Emotions

Although studies on leaders' emotions greatly contribute to our understandings of the role of leaders' emotions in follower outcomes, there are several limitations of the research in this area. First, none of the studies considered the psychological process that leaders use to regulate their feelings and/or expressions of emotions. All of the studies assume that leaders spontaneously experience expressed emotions or easily generate appropriate emotions and show them without exerting conscious effort like trained actors. Second, the influence of leaders' emotions on followers' motivation has not been examined. As transformational leadership theorists (e.g., Bono & Ilies, 2006) argue, leaders' emotions ought to impact their followers' motivation. Third, most studies focused on leaders' two specific emotions: happiness and anger. The roles of other emotions (e.g., disappointment, regret) have seldom been examined. Fourth, external validity needs to be established since most studies were based on lab experiments. Last, most experiments were built upon performance feedback scenarios. Thus, we are not sure whether the same pattern of results will emerge under other leader-follower interactions (e.g., exchange of ideas, coaching etc).

Implications for the Current Study

Research on leaders' emotions provides important theoretical and empirical implications. Specifically, leaders' emotions may influence followers' attitudes and performance through both emotional contagion and providing strategic information (e.g., task performance- relevant information, Van Kleef et al., 2009). Further, leaders' emotional displays have considerable impact on followers' attitudes and performance.

Research on Leaders' Emotional Labor

Research on leaders' emotional labor practically remains theoretical. To my knowledge, there are only two recent articles (i.e., Gardner et al., 2009; Humphrey et al., 2008) that attempt to introduce this concept of leaders' emotional labor to the leadership literature and propose partial nomological networks around this construct. Humphrey et al. (2008) first introduce this construct to the leadership literature. They contend that "leaders perform emotional labor whenever they display emotions in an attempt to influence their subordinates' moods and motivations." (Humphrey et al., 2008, p.151). They define leaders' emotional labor as the process that leaders use emotional displays to influence their followers. Specifically, with reference to Hoschchild's (1983) definition of surface and deep acting, they refer to surface acting as the process that leaders change the outward expressions of emotions but do not attempt to feel the emotions. They refer to deep acting as the process that leaders attempt to actually experience the emotions they display. Following Ashforth & Humphrey (1993), Humphrey et al. (2008) refer to display of genuine emotions as the expression of naturally felt emotions that comply with organizational expectations in a given context (Diefendorff et al., 2005). Humphrey et al. (2008) regard display of genuine emotions as a form of emotional labor in that leaders may consciously use their genuine emotions to influence followers' moods and motivation. Although they propose that like service employees, leaders also perform three forms of emotional labor, surface acting, deep acting, and display of genuine emotions, they focused on surface and deep acting in their article. They also point out the differences between leaders' emotional labor from service workers'. Whereas most service employees need to display positive emotions (serve with a smile), leaders may

have to display a wide range of emotions, including both positive and negative emotions. This is because leaders have to express both socially desirable emotions (e.g., being enthusiastic about collective goals) and social control emotions (e.g., being stern toward an employee who always comes late). Further, leaders need to manage followers' emotions, whereas service workers do not need to manage customers' emotions.

Humphrey et al. (2008) argue that leaders can influence followers' emotions through emotional contagion (Hatfield et al., 1994). However, to do so, leaders have to purposely perform emotional labor to express the emotions that they want their followers to feel. In addition, Humphrey et al. (2008) argue that leaders who use emotional labor are emotionally expressive and are likely to be perceived as transformational in that emotional expressiveness is an important attribute of transformational leaders (Gardner & Avolio, 1998; Rubin et al., 2005) and emotional labor can help leaders make their communications more inspiring (Groves, 2005). Since surface acting is more observable than deep acting (e.g., Grandey et al., 2005), Humphrey et al. (2008) argue that deep acting is more effective at increasing perceptions of transformational leadership. They also argue that surface acting leaders will experience more stress and exhaustion than deep acting leaders since the former experience more dissonance.

This article contributes to our initial understandings of leaders' emotional labor and potential influences of leaders' emotional labor on followers' mood and transformational leadership perceptions. However, this article does not examine how leaders' surface and deep acting may affect followers' performance and attitudes. Nor does this article discuss the role of display of genuine emotions in follower outcomes.

Finally, although the authors contend that leaders' emotional labor may influence followers' motivation, they do not explicitly discuss this in the paper.

Gardner et al. (2009) present a partial nomological network of leaders' emotional labor. They define emotional labor as the process of displaying appropriate emotions and propose three forms of emotional labor: surface acting, deep acting, and display of genuine emotions. Their model focuses on the cognitive influence of leaders' emotional labor on follower impression and trust in leader. Specifically, they argue that leader surface acting will be negatively related to favorability of follower impression, perceived authenticity of leader, and leader felt authenticity; leader deep acting will be positively related to favorability of follower impression, perceived authenticity of leader, and leader felt authenticity; leader display of genuine emotions will be positively related to favorability of follower impression, perceived authenticity of leader, and leader felt authenticity; follower favorable impressions and perceived authenticity of leader will be positively related to trust in leader. They also propose that leader's emotional labor will influence leaders' felt authenticity, which will have a positive effect on the leader's well-being. Surface acting is hypothesized to be negatively related to leader felt authenticity, whereas deep acting and display of genuine emotions will be positively related to leaders' felt authenticity.

In addition, Gardner et al. (2009) also argue that positive or negative affective events, emotional intensity, and display rules may result in leaders' emotional labor. Further, leaders' emotional intelligence, self-monitoring, and political skill may moderate the relationships between emotional labor and its antecedents.

Gardner et al. (2009) suggest several future research opportunities and further our understandings of theoretical antecedents and consequences. However, Gardner et al. (2009) do not explore possible relationships between leaders' emotional labor and followers' emotional reactions. Nor do they examine how leaders' emotional labor may influence followers' performance and attitudes.

Nevertheless, limited empirical evidence suggests that leaders purposely perform emotional labor. Brotheridge and Grandey's (2002) article is perhaps the first to empirically measure managers' emotional labor. A convenient sample of 238 Canadian full time employees were recruited and surveyed. With reference to Hochschild's (1983) criteria for emotional labor jobs, Brotheridge and Grandey (2002) grouped participants' jobs into five categories: service/sales employees (N =143), human service workers (N = 29), managers (N =15), clerical staff (N = 22), and physical laborers (N = 29). The results show that emotional labor demands (i.e., frequency, duration, and variety of emotional demand) for managers were not significantly different from those for employees who worked with "people" (i.e., service/sales employees and human service workers) and that there were no significant differences in using surface or deep acting emotion regulation strategies between managers and "people" work employees. In effect, even physical laborers and clerical staff who were traditionally regarded as having low emotional demands reported being challenged with emotional labor demands and engage in emotion regulation behavior (i.e., surface and deep acting). Although the results in Brotheridge and Grandey (2002) are enlightening and consistent with theoretical claims (Goffman, 1961, 1992), the sample size of managers is small. The results could be mainly due to sampling error.

Based on a much larger sample of mid-level managers (N=135), Glaso and Einarsen (2008) specifically examined leaders' emotion regulation in leader-follower interactions. They asked manager- participants to self-report the frequency of spontaneously feeling and expressing, suppressing, and faking the same set of emotions that had been found to be experienced by managers in leader-follower interactions in an earlier study (Glaso & Einarsen, 2006). The results reveal that most of the managers admitted to have faked (94.8%) or suppressed (97.9%) emotions when interacting with their subordinates. The managers faked positive emotions such as enthusiasm and happiness and suppressed negative emotions such as anger and sadness. Specifically, the top ten most frequently faked emotions are: calm, interested, inspired, enthusiastic, confident, content, well, expectant, glad, and grateful. The top ten most frequently suppressed emotions are: bored, frustrated, annoyed, disappointed, angry, resigned, sad, uncertain, worried, and anxious. Further, the managers expressed naturally felt emotions more frequently (Mean = 4.66 on a 1 (not at all) to 6 (very much) scale; SD = .76) than suppressing (Mean = 1.77; SD = 1.30) or faking (Mean = 2.17; SD = 1.36) emotions during interactions with followers. The top ten most frequently naturally felt and expressed emotions were: glad, enthusiastic, interested, content, grateful, proud, inspired, well, expectant, and confident. In addition, Glaso and Einarsen (2008) also measured follower-participants' emotion regulation in leader-follower interactions. To be noted, the managers and followers surveyed in Glaso and Einarsen (2008) were not matched leader-follower dyads. They only represent managerial and nonmanagerial employees. The results show that the emotions that followers naturally felt and expressed, faked, and suppressed were almost identical with those that the leaders naturally felt and expressed,

faked, and suppressed. However, the leaders expressed naturally felt, faked, and suppressed emotions more intensively than the followers.

The results in Glaso and Einarsen (2008) suggest that leaders regulate their emotions when interacting with followers to a greater extent than do followers. However, it appears that in most cases, leaders just express naturally felt emotions, which are socially desirable and positive. In addition, followers also expressed naturally felt positive emotions (e.g., "glad", "enthusiastic"; Mean frequency = 3.82; SD = 1.11, on a 1 (not at all) to 6 (very much) scale) more frequently than suppressing negative emotions (e.g., "disappointed", "angry"; Mean frequency = 1.77; SD = 1.30) or faking positive emotions (e.g., "interested"; "enthusiastic"; Mean frequency = 1.28; SD = 1.31). The results are consistent with the findings in Bono, Foldes, Vinson, and Muros (2007) in which employees reported experiencing more positive emotions (Mean positive emotions experienced = 3.05; SD = 1.44) than negative emotions (Mean negative emotions experienced = 2.08; SD = 1.35), faked positive emotions (Mean = 1.38; SD = .91), or suppressed negative emotions (Mean = 1.50; SD = 1.01) when they were interacting with their supervisors.

Taken together, the above evidence suggests that leader-follower interactions are mainly characterized by positive emotions, which are mostly spontaneously felt and occasionally faked by both parties. Negative or socially undesirable emotions are usually suppressed. This pattern of emotional exchanges in leader-follower interactions is consistent with social-interaction norms which encourage expressions of positive emotions (Fineman, 1993). This pattern of emotional exchanges in leader-follower interactions may be explained by people's drive to promote and maintain positive moods

and avoid experiencing negative moods (Clark & Isen,1982). Another practical reason might be that both leaders and followers are motivated to avoid potential detrimental consequences that may result from expressing negative emotions in leader-follower interactions since leaders need to rely on followers to achieve group goals and followers want to obtain valuable resources (e.g., pay raise, promotion) that are under leaders' control. One caveat with Glaso and Einarsen (2008) is that deep acting was not studied given that faking and suppressing emotions are considered surface acting behaviors (Brotheridge 2006; Grandey, 2000).

In addition, Glaso and colleagues (2006) conducted a qualitative study to investigate why leaders and followers perform emotional labor in leader-follower interactions. They interviewed eight mid-level managers and eight employees. The leaders and the followers did not have matched dyadic relationships. All of the informants acknowledged to have suppressed, exaggerated, and faked emotions in leader-follower interactions. The authors identified four reasons why managers performed emotional labor when interacting with subordinates. The first reason was to comply with organizational display rules and leaders' own implicit leadership beliefs. For example, one leader-informant reported suppressing disappointment and anger because this person believed that managers should not show anger to subordinates. The second reason was to strategically achieve or avoid something specific. For instance, some informants reported that they exaggerated enthusiasm when they wanted subordinates to take on new tasks. The third reason was to maintain a good work atmosphere for subordinates. Some informants suppressed negative emotions to keep a pleasant work atmosphere. The last reason was to avoid unpleasant consequences. Half of the leader-informants disguised

their inner feelings from their subordinates in fear of possible negative reactions from subordinates. However, the followers mainly reported performing emotional labor to achieve specific goals, such as having a positive relationship with their supervisor in order to enhance future career development.

The above four reasons could be reframed from influencing followers' perspective. The first reason could be recategorized as a concern out of impression management in that the leaders tried to avoid negative follower impression. Relatedly, Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) theoretically argue that "Emotional labor can be considered a form of impression management to the extent that the laborer deliberately attempts to direct his or her behavior toward others in order to foster both certain social perceptions of himself or herself and a certain interpersonal climate" (p. 90). The second reason suggests that the leaders were trying to use their emotions to influence followers' motivation. In the example given above, the leaders were trying to use their emotions to make their followers become emotionally connected to expected work behavior. The last two reasons represent the leaders' effort to manage followers to experience expected emotions.

Implications for the Current Study

The above literature review summarizes initial understandings of leaders' emotional labor. Although existing research on leaders' emotional labor does not offer an integrative framework to examine the role of leaders' emotional labor in follower attitudes and performance, this line of research suggests that leaders do engage in emotional labor, which may influence follower leadership perceptions (or impression), motivation, and emotional reactions.

Research on Job Engagement

As discussed above, theoretical and empirical research on leaders' emotional labor suggests that leaders use emotional labor to influence followers' motivation (Glaso et al., 2006; Humphrey et al., 2008). However, prior research is unclear about this link and does not propose any specific follower motivational variable that may be vulnerable to leaders' emotional labor. Since accomplishing work tasks is the focus of leader-follower interactions (Yukl, 2010), leaders are likely to use emotional labor to motivate followers to invest emotional energy in their role performance. Research on job engagement suggests that emotional engagement is the pertinent motivational variable that captures followers' motivational state of being emotionally connected to their work (Kahn, 1990; May, Gilson, & Harter, 2004). To have a better understanding of the concept of emotional engagement, I will briefly review the job engagement literature in what follows.

Conceptualizations of Job Engagement

The concept of job engagement was first introduced to academia by Kahn (1990) and has been extended by other researchers (e.g., Britt, 1999; Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001; May, Gilson, & Harter, 2004; Rich, & Rothbard, 2001; Schaufeli et al., 2002). There is no consensus on what is job engagement (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010). However, along the history of job engagement research, two major approaches to job engagement have emerged: the motivational approach (e.g., Britt, 1999; Kahn, 1990; Rich et al., 2010; Rothbard, 2001); and the opposite antipode of burnout approach (e.g., Maslach et al., 2001; Schaufeli et al., 2002). Driven by these different conceptualizations, job engagement has been operationalized differently.

The motivational approach

This approach generally regards job engagement as a motivational state that describes the extent to which employees simultaneously invest their cognitive, physical, and emotional selves in their role performance (e.g., Kahn, 1990; Rich et al., 2010). This approach is consistent with Kahn's (1990) original conceptualization of job engagement. Kahn (1990) defines engagement as "the harnessing of organization members' selves to their work roles; in engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performance" (p. 694). Rich et al. (2010) argue that Kahn's (1990) definition of job engagement is motivational "because it refers to the allocation of personal resources to role performance and also to how intensely and persistently those resources are applied" (p. 619). Inspired by Kahn (1990), Rothbard (2001) defines job engagement as a two-dimensional motivational construct consisting of attention and absorption. Attention refers to the cognitive availability and the amount of time one spends thinking of a role. Absorption refers to the intensity of one's' focus on a role. Drawing upon the Triangle Model of Responsibility (Schlenker, Britt, Pennington, Murphy, & Doherty, 1994), Britt (1999) defines job engagement as a sense of personal responsibility for job performance. The Triangle Model of Responsibility (Schlenker et al., 1994) posits that responsibility is a transaction between the specific event that has occurred or is anticipated (e.g., exam, performance), the prescriptions or rules that govern the event, and the identity images the individual has that are relevant to the event and prescriptions (e.g., top performer).

The motivational conceptualizations of job engagement lead to slightly different operationalizations of job engagement (see Table 1 for more detail). For instance,

following Kahn's (1990) conceptualization of job engagement, May et al. (2004) developed a scale that measures employee cognitive (e.g., "Time passes quickly when I perform my job"), physical (e.g., "I stay until the job is done"), and emotional engagement (e.g., "I get excited when I perform well on my job"). Although May et al. (2004) theoretically argued that these three dimensions were distinct, only one latent factor emerged from factor analyses. Furthermore, motivated to develop a measure that fully captures Kahn's (1990) conceptualization of job engagement, Rich et al. (2010) developed and validated a measure of job engagement that also assesses employees' cognitive (e.g., "At work, I am absorbed by my job"), physical (e.g., "I exert a lot of energy on my job"), and emotional engagement (e.g., "I am enthusiastic in my job"). The results of their validation studies show acceptable psychometric properties. Confirmatory factor analyses show that the model with the three dimensions loading on a latent factor has better fit than the one-factor model (Rich et al., 2010). In addition, Rothbard (2001) developed measures of attention (e.g., "I spend a lot of time thinking about my work") and absorption (e.g., "When I am working I am totally absorbed"). These two dimensions are strongly correlated (r = .56). Based on the Triangle Model of Responsibility, Britt (1999) also developed a two item measure of job engagement (e.g., "I feel responsible for my job performance"; "I am committed to doing well in my job"). These measures of job engagement have limited applications in the literature (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010).

The opposite antipode of burnout approach

Some authors argue that job engagement is the opposite antipode of burnout and is characterized by high levels of energy, involvement in work, and a sense of personal efficacy, the opposite ends of the three burnout dimensions (exhaustion, cynicism, and

reduced personal efficacy) (Maslach et al., 2001). Following this perspective, Schaufeli et al. (2002) define and operationalize job engagement as "a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption" (p.74). Vigor is featured by high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, the willingness to exert effort in one's work, and persistence in the face of difficulty. Dedication means being highly involved in one's work, and experiencing a sense of significance, enthusiasm, pride, and challenge. Absorption refers to being fully concentrated on one's work and ignoring the passage of time. Vigor and dedication are regarded as opposites of exhaustion and cynicism respectively. The continuum formed by vigor and exhaustion has been called "energy", whereas the continuum formed by dedication and cynicism has been labeled "identification" (Gonzalez-Roma, Schaufeli, Bakker, & Lloret, 2006). Although no label is given to the continuum formed by absorption and reduced personal efficacy, absorption is considered a third dimension of job engagement (Schaufeli et al., 2002).

Maslach et al. (2001) assume job engagement and burnout as two exact opposite ends of a single continuum and operationalize job engagement as the reverse-scoring measures of burnout using the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI, Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996). Based on a sample of university students and employees, Schaufeli et al. (2002) empirically examined this assumption. The results of their study failed to support this assumption. The authors concluded that burnout and job engagement should be treated as two independent but correlated constructs.

Driven by the opposite antipode of burnout approach to job engagement, Schaufeli et al. (2002) developed the three-dimensional questionnaire, named the Utrecht

Work Engagement Scale (UWES), which measures vigor (e.g., “At my job, I feel strong and vigorous”), dedication (e.g., “I am proud of the work that I do”), and absorption (e.g., “Time flies when I’m working”). Confirmatory factor analyses show that a second-order factor model with the three dimensions as the first-order factors demonstrated good fit with the data (Schaufeli et al., 2002; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). The three dimensions were highly correlated with each other. The UWES has shown acceptable reliability and validity and is perhaps the most widely used measure of job engagement in the academic literature (Crawford, LePine, & Rich, 2010).

To sum up, the above two approaches to job engagement have different references (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010). The key reference for the motivational approach is one’s work role (Kahn, 1990), whereas the key reference of the antithesis of burnout approach is one’s work activity or the work itself (Maslach et al., 2001). Although there is no agreement on the meaning of job engagement, the commonality across the two approaches is that job engagement emphasizes one’s emotional investment in successful performance (Britt et al., 2007). After reviewing the diverse conceptualizations of job engagement, Britt et al. (2007) suggest that job engagement represents a motivational state and should be viewed as the investment of self-system in performance. Furthermore, they argue that some components of job engagement, such as vigor, absorption, and effort, are immediate outcomes of job engagement.

In the current study, Kahn’s (1990) motivational approach to job engagement will be adopted. According to this approach, job engagement will be considered a motivational variable that describes the extent to which employees are cognitively, physically, and emotionally invested in their role performance. This decision is based on

the following three reasons. First, Kahn's (1990) approach to job engagement results from rigorous research and has received empirical support (e.g., Rich et al., 2010); Second, the work related state of mind in the opposite antipode of burnout approach could also be regarded as a motivational state in that it refers to a persistent and pervasive affective and cognitive state that determines direction, intensity and persistence of work behavior (Britt et al., 2007; Pinder, 1998). Third, empirical evidence does not support the assumption of the opposite antipode of burnout approach that job engagement is the opposite antipode of burnout. In addition, as suggested by Britt et al. (2007), some components (e.g., absorption, effort) of job engagement based on the opposite antipode of burnout approach are likely to be outcomes of job engagement.

Antecedents of Job Engagement

Driven by the two approaches to job engagement, different antecedents of job engagement have been proposed and examined. Kahn (1990) conducted a rigorous ethnographic study to examine the conditions that lead to engagement and disengagement at work by interviewing two diverse samples: counselors at a children's summer camp and employees at an architectural firm. Kahn (1990) found three psychological conditions that might influence job engagement: psychological meaningfulness, safety, and availability. Psychological meaningfulness refers to the sense of being worthwhile, useful, and valuable. Factors that may influence psychological meaningfulness include task characteristics, role characteristics, and work interaction. Psychological safety refers to the degree to which employees feel that they can invest themselves in their work roles without worrying about negative consequences on self-image, status, or career. Factors that may influence psychological safety include interpersonal relationships, group

dynamics, management style and process, and organizational norms. Psychological availability refers to the feeling of having the cognitive, physical, and emotional resources to personally engage. Factors that may influence psychological availability include physical energy, emotional energy, and self perceptions of confidence. Each of these psychological conditions could be understood as a question that employees ask themselves before deciding to engage themselves in their work roles. (1) How meaningful is it for me to bring myself into this performance? (2) How safe is it to do so ? and (3) How available am I to do so?

Some studies attempt to empirically examine Kahn's (1990) above propositions. May et al. (2004) is the first of its kind. Based on a field study with employees in an insurance company as respondents, May et al. (2004) found that the three psychological conditions were positively related to job engagement. Furthermore, job enrichment and work-role fit were positively related to psychological meaningfulness. Supportive co-worker and supervisor relationships were positively related to psychological safety. Resources availability was positively associated with psychological availability. Building on Kahn's (1990) theoretical framework, Rich et al. (2010) hypothesize that value congruence, perceived organizational support, and core-self evaluation would influence psychological meaningfulness, safety, and availability respectively, which would lead to higher job engagement. Given that the links between the psychological conditions and job engagement have been established theoretically and empirically (May et al., 2004), they did not directly examine the three psychological conditions. Their results show that value congruence, perceived organizational support, and core-self evaluations were positively related to job engagement. In addition, based on transformational leadership theories (e.g.,

Table 1. List of Measures of Job Engagement

Scale	Item	Note
Britt (1999)	1. I feel responsible for my job performance. 2. I am committed to doing well in my job.	
May et al. (2004)	1. I exert a lot of energy performing my job 2. I stay until the job is done. 3. I avoid working overtime whenever possible. (r) 4. I take work home to do. 5. I avoid working too hard. (r)	Physical engagement
	6. I really put my heart into my job. 7. I get excited when I perform well on my job. 8. I often feel emotionally detached from my job. (r) 9. My own feelings are affected by how well I perform my job.	Emotional engagement
	10. Performing my job is so absorbing that I forget about everything else. 11. I often think about other things when performing my job. (r) 12. I am rarely distracted when performing my job. 13. Time passes quickly when I perform my job.	Cognitive engagement
Rich et al. (2010)	1.I work with intensity on my job 2. I exert my full effort to my job 3. I devote a lot of energy to my job 4. I try my hardest to perform well on my job 5. I strive as hard as I can to complete my job 6. I exert a lot of energy on my job	Physical engagement
	7. I am enthusiastic in my job 8. I feel energetic at my job 9. I am interested in my job 10. I am proud of my job 11. I feel positive about my job 12. I am excited about my job	Emotional engagement
	13. At work, my mind is focused on my job 14. At work, I pay a lot of attention to my job 15. At work, I focus a great deal of attention on my job 16. At work, I am absorbed by my job 17. At work, I concentrate on my job 18. At work, I devote a lot of attention to my job	Cognitive engagement

Table 1. Continued

Scale	Item	Note
Rothbard (2001)	1. I spend a lot of time thinking about my work. 2. I focus a great of my attention on my work. 3. I concentrate a lot on my work. 4. I pay a lot of attention to my work.	Attention
	5. When I am working, I often lose track of time. 6. I often get carried away by what I am working on. 7. When I am working, I am totally absorbed by it. 8. Nothing can distract me when I am working.	Absorption
Schaufeli et al. (2002)	1. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work. 2. At my work, I feel bursting with energy. 3. At my work I always persevere, even when things do not go well. 4. I can continue working for very long periods at a time. 5. At my job, I am very resilient, mentally. 6. At my job I feel strong and vigorous.	Vigor
	7. To me, my job is challenging. 8. My job inspires me. 9. I am enthusiastic about my job. 10. I am proud on the work that I do. 11. I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose.	Dedication
	12. When I am working, I forget everything else around me. 13. Time flies when I am working. 14. I get carried away when I am working. 15. It is difficult to detach myself from my job. 16. I am immersed in my work. 17. I feel happy when I am working intensely.	Absorption

Bass, 1985) and Kahn's (1990) framework, Zhu et al. (2009) found that transformational leadership was positively related to job engagement. In sum, empirical evidence provides initial support for Kahn's (1990) argument that the three psychological conditions predict job engagement.

More attention has been paid to examine predictors of job engagement based on the opposite antipode of burnout approach to job engagement (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010). In fact, two meta-analyses have been published to better understand the factors that may influence job engagement as the antithesis of burnout (Crawford et al., 2010; Halbesleben, 2010). The majority of the primary studies are built on job demands-resources model of burnout (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schuafeli, 2001). This model assumes that factors that may influence motivation and job stress could be classified as job demands and job resources across occupations. According to this model, job demands include physical, social, or organizational aspects of the job as well as workload, time pressure, and difficult physical environments, whereas job resources refer to those aspects of the job that are functional in achieving work goals and contribute to personal growth and development as well as job control, participation in decision making, task variety, feedback, and work social support (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti et al., 2001). This model posits that job demands will deplete psychological and physiological energy and lead to stress and exhaustion and that job resources may motivate employees to learn, meet their needs for autonomy and competence, and increase their willingness to invest themselves in their role performance.

The job demands-resources model suggests that job demands will be negatively related to job engagement, whereas job resources will be positively related to job

engagement. The meta-analytic results in Crawford et al. (2010) provide support for this argument in that job demands were negatively related to job engagement (r_c = -.08, N = 26,724, K = 43, 95% CI = -.13- -.03) but job resources were positively related to job engagement (r_c = .36, N = 27, 200, K = 54, 95% CI = .33-.39). In addition, burnout and engagement were negatively related at -.48 (N = 25,998, K = 54, 95% CI = -.51- -.45). Specific types of resources, including autonomy, feedback, opportunities for development, positive workplace climate, recovery, rewards and recognition, support, job variety, and work role fit, were all positively related to job engagement. Specific types of job demands, including role overload, role conflict, resource inadequacies, organizational politics, emotional conflict, and administrative hassles, were negatively related to job engagement. In another meta-analysis, Halbesleben (2010) also reported a negative relationship between demands and job engagement and a positive relationship between resources and job engagement.

In fact, Kahn's (1990) framework of job engagement could also be used to understand the relationships between demands, resources, and job engagement. According to Kahn's framework (1990), job demands are likely to have negative influences on the three psychological conditions and thus disengage employees. For example, role overload and role conflict are role characteristics, which may have negative consequences on psychological meaningfulness. Organizational politics and administrative hassles may negatively affect psychological safety. Resource inadequacies may negatively influence psychological availability. In contrast, job resources are likely to have positive influences on the three psychological conditions, which lead to increased engagement. For instance, autonomy and job variety may be positively associated with

psychological meaningfulness. Positive workplace climate and support may be positively related to psychological safety. Opportunities for development may be positively associated with psychological availability in that opportunities for develop may increase cognitive energy (Kahn, 1990). In this sense, the motivational approach is more inclusive than the other approach.

Consequences of Job Engagement

Consequences of job engagement have received less attention than its antecedents in the literature. Job engagement was treated as the outcome in many studies (e.g., May et al., 2004; Schaufeli et al., 2002). Nevertheless, theories and empirical evidence suggest that job engagement is positively related to desirable work outcomes, such as task performance, OCB, job satisfaction, job involvement, commitment, and health (e.g., Halbesleben, 2010; Rich et al., 2010; Shirom, 2003), and is negatively related to undesirable work outcomes such as turnover intention (Halbesleben, 2010). Both approaches to job engagement suggest that job engagement should be positively related to task performance and OCB. The motivational approach implies that highly engaged employees are likely to exert more effort and achieve higher performance (Locke & Lathem, 1990). The opposite antipode of burnout approach suggests that the high energy at work will lead to increased performance (Schaufeli et al., 2002). Furthermore, the motivational approach suggests that when employees invest their full selves in their role performance, they tend to be emotionally connected to their colleagues and organization. As such, they are likely to perform OCBs (Rich et al., 2010). The identification dimension of the opposite antipode of burnout approach indicates that highly engaged employees are likely to conduct OCBs and have high levels of commitment and

identification because these employees are high on resources availability and may invest their extra resources in positive endeavors (Halbesleben, 2010).

It should be noted that engagement is a popular concept among consulting firms. Various definitions and measures of engagement have been proposed. The most widely used questionnaire is the Gallup's Workplace Audit (GWA), which contains 12 items and assesses knowing what is expected at work, having the necessary resources to do well, receiving recognition or praise, and having co-workers who are committed to their jobs. Although the GWA is claimed to measure job engagement, Harter, Schmidt, and Hayes (2002) argue that the GWA measures perceived level of resources in one's job, which are antecedents of job engagement rather than engagement itself.

Implications for the Current Study

The above review provides the following three implications for the current study. First, the literature in job engagement suggests that emotional investment in role performance (or emotional engagement) best represents the essence and distinctiveness of job engagement (Britt et al., 2007); Second, since leadership is an important contextual factor in followers' work environment and leaders can shape followers' work experience (Yukl, 2010), leaders' emotional labor may influence followers' psychological condition(s), which may impact follower emotional engagement (Kahn, 1990); Third, as suggested by the motivational approach to job engagement, emotionally engaged employees may achieve enhanced performance and have high levels of positive work attitudes.

Research on Service Employees' Emotional Labor

Research on service employees' emotional labor is focused on the impact of emotional labor on emotional laborers' well-being, attitudes, and performance. Review of this literature may provide theoretical and empirical bases to understand the role of leaders' emotional labor in the leaders' well-being and attitudes given the vibrant research in this area since Hochschild (1983) first proposed the concept of emotional labor about three decades ago (Wang et al., in press). As such, I will review the major theories and findings in this field regarding the influence of emotional labor on emotional laborers' well-being, attitudes and performance.

Theories on Consequences of Service Employees' Emotional Labor

Hochschild's (1979, 1983) initial theoretical and empirical work suggests that acting to comply with imposed rules leads to emotional dissonance and is harmful for actors' well-being. Subsequent researchers have used various theories to counter argue or understand her argument. The following major theories have been used to explain the consequences of emotional labor on emotional laborers: social identity theory (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993), emotion regulation theory (Grandey, 2000), demand-control theory (Pugliesi, 1999), conservation of resources theory (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002), and the social interaction model (Coté, 2005). These theories could be could be categorized into intrapersonal models and interpersonal models. Most of these theories are intrapersonal models in that they only focus on "mechanisms that operate inside the mind and body of the person regulating the emotion." (Coté, 2005, p. 509). Only the social interaction model (Coté, 2005) and conservation of resources theory (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002) are

interpersonal models in that they take into account reactions of emotional labor's receivers when exploring the impact of emotional labor on emotional laborers' well-being and satisfaction.

Intrapersonal models

Drawing upon social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1985), Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) challenge Hochschild's argument of uniform negative outcomes of emotional labor. They argue that when service providers identify with their work role, emotional labor may actually enhance their well-being. Their reasoning is that if individuals identify with their organizational roles, they may feel authentic when conforming to display rules. Performing emotional labor will not tax these individuals. Further, they also take into account the influence of time and suggest that over time, surface acting or deep acting will lead to identification with the role and an alignment between expressed emotions and the experience of emotions. Ashforth and Humphrey's (1993) arguments are enlightening. However, they may have exaggerated the influence of role identification on service employees who are not well paid and have low social status. To my knowledge, no studies have empirically examined the moderating effects of role identification on the relationship of emotional labor with its negative consequences.

Grandey (2000) also used emotion regulation theory to explain how emotional labor may result in burnout and job dissatisfaction. Her explanation is biologically based. She argues that inhibiting or suppressing emotions during social interactions will overwork one's cardiovascular and nervous systems and weakens the immune systems. Thus, emotion regulation, specifically surface acting, is likely to result in detrimental outcomes to service providers. However, she does not explain how deep acting process

may influence service providers' well-being and is uncertain about whether deep acting will lead to positive or negative outcomes due to mixed empirical findings that were available to her then. Probably, the relationships between the two forms of emotional labor (i.e., surface acting and deep acting) and burnout (i.e., emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment) have received the most attention in the emotional labor literature. Most findings reveal a positive relationship between surface acting and burnout (e.g., Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Grandey, 2003). However, the results for deep acting across the studies are still mixed (Judge et al., 2009). To have a better understanding of the true consequences of deep acting, a meta-analysis is needed (Hunter & Schmidt, 2004).

Like Ashforth and Humphrey (1993), some researchers (e.g., Pugliesi, 1999) are interested in examining whether organizational factors (e.g., job conditions) will moderate the presumed uniform deleterious outcomes of emotional labor. Based on "demand-control" model of job strain (Karasek, 1979, 1990), which posits that the level of job demands and degree of control influence job stress and can interactively impact stress, Pugliesi (1999) argues when job conditions are low in demand and high in control, emotional labor may actually enhance service employees' well-being. However, the results of her study do not support her prediction. Regardless of the job conditions of the study participants, both forms of emotional labor resulted in negative consequences. Specifically, both surface and deep acting increase distress and perceptions of stress and decrease satisfaction. Her findings contradict some previous studies in which positive consequences of emotional labor were reported (e.g. Adelmann, 1995). To be noted, some researchers (e.g., Kim, Shin, Umbreit, 2007) suggest that job conditions like

autonomy may serve as antecedents of emotional labor. The logic is that if service employees have more control over their emotional displays, they are likely to express genuine emotions or deep act in service encounters and thus are less likely to experience inauthenticity or strain. Mixed support for this argument has been reported (De Castro, 2003; Holman, Chissick, & Totterdell, 2002).

Interpersonal models

Given that most existing theories of how emotional labor affects strain are based on an intrapersonal model, Coté (2005) proposes an interpersonal social interaction model that takes into account not only senders' emotion regulation but also receivers' responses to the senders' emotion regulation and the emotion being regulated. The premise of the social interaction model is that receivers' responses to senders' emotional labor tend to influence senders' strain and thus need to be considered. In addition, since positive and negative emotions (happiness vs. anger) are likely to elicit different reactions from receivers, the social interaction model also incorporates the discrete emotions being regulated. Specifically, the social interaction model suggests that because the inauthenticity in surface acting will provoke unfavorable responses from receivers (Ekman, 1992), senders will experience strain whether positive or negative emotions are regulated. However, the situation is more complicated for deep acting. When positive emotions are deep acted, receivers tend to have favorable responses, which will decrease senders' strain. In contrast, when negative emotions are deep acted, receivers are likely to have unfavorable responses, which may increase senders' strain. Coté (2005) also discusses the moderating effect of receivers' accuracy at decoding senders' emotional displays and the strength of senders' reactions to receivers' responses on the relationship

between emotional labor and strain. Coté's (2005) social interaction model represents an attempt to examine the relationship between emotional labor and strain from an interpersonal perspective, which reflects the interpersonal nature of emotional labor. Although this model has rarely been empirically tested, some studies (e.g., Groth, Hennig-Thurau, & Walsh, 2009) have taken into account interpersonal factors. For instance, Groth et al. (2009) examine the moderating effect of customers' accuracy in detecting employees' emotion regulation strategies (i.e., surface acting and deep acting) on the relationships between emotion regulation strategies and perceived customer orientation and service quality.

Although previous researchers (e.g., Hochschild, 1983) posit that emotional labor consumes resources and thus may lead to strain and job dissatisfaction, Brotheridge and Lee (2002) are probably the first to theoretically examine and test this research question. They used conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989), which states that individuals strive to obtain and retain valued resources and minimize any threats of resource loss. According to this theory, emotional labor consumes resources, whereas building rewarding social relationships helps regain resources (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002). However, when more resources are consumed than regained, people will experience emotional strain. Specifically, they hypothesized that rewarding social relationships would mediate the negative effects of surface and deep acting on authenticity, which would be negatively related to burnout. Their results provide support for most of their hypotheses. Notably, they found that surface acting drained more resources than deep acting. They argued that this might be because surface acting resulted in less rewarding relationships than deep acting. The conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989)

provides another angle to understand the relationship between emotional labor and service employee burnout. It may also be used to predict the relationship between emotional labor and performance outcomes (Wallace, Edwards, Shull, & Finch, 2009). Since surface acting consumes cognitive resources, surface actors may have fewer resources to spend on their non-affective performance, which suggests that surface acting may have negative influences on service employees' non-affective performance. In contrast, since deep acting consumes fewer resources and generates more rewarding social relationships because of the sincerity customers may feel, deep actors will have more resources to invest in task performance and may even result in better job performance. Results of Wallace et al. (2009) show that surface acting is negatively related to task performance but deep acting is positively related to task performance. Thus, their arguments are supported.

In sum, most theories reviewed above focus on the ways in which emotional labor results in destructive consequences on service employees' well-being and job satisfaction. Both intrapersonal and interpersonal models are instrumental in this regard. Only a few theories (e.g., conservation of resources theory, Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Hobfoll, 1989) attempt to predict how surface and deep acting may have different relationships with task performance.

Empirical Findings on Consequences of Service Employees' Emotional labor

Although there has been a fair amount of research on emotional labor in the service sector over the past quarter century, mixed results of the same relationships are frequently reported in different individual studies (e.g., Pugliesi, 1999). These conflicting

results may be due to sampling error and measurement error (Hunter& Schmidt, 2004). Therefore, meta-analytic results will be reviewed in order to have an accurate understanding of the construct level relationships between emotional labor and mental, attitudinal and behavioral outcomes.

There is only one published meta-analysis on the nomological network of emotional labor (Bono & Vey, 2005). However, a very limited number of primary studies (11 studies with 16 independent samples) were available and included in this meta-analytic study. Consequently, the number of studies used to estimate the effect sizes (i.e., correlations) is small, which is subject to second-order sampling error (Hunter & Schmidt, 2004). Further, the effect sizes reported in Bono and Vey (2005) are only corrected for sampling error because bare-bone analyses were conducted. Since measurement errors were not corrected for, the relationships between emotional labor and its antecedents and consequences are underestimated. In addition, only credibility intervals were reported. It is unclear whether the reported effect sizes are significantly different from zero.

Based on a much larger sample (55 studies with 64 independent samples) than Bono & Vey (2005), Wang et al. (in press) meta-analyzed the nomological network of emotional labor and relationships among the three forms of emotional labor using Hunter-Schmidt's (2004) psychometric meta-analysis methods. Consistent with Hochschild's (1983) predictions, the results in Wang et al. (in press) show that surface acting was significantly associated with undesirable work outcomes, such as emotional exhaustion, lower job satisfaction and task performance. In contrast, supporting predictions based on conservation of resources theory (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Hobfoll, 1989), the results show that deep acting was associated with positive work outcomes but

unassociated with deleterious outcomes. Thus, one important implication for practitioners is to encourage deep acting or emphasize "feeling rules" at work. Further, the relatively low meta-analytic correlations among the three forms of emotional labor provide support for the notion that they are distinct from one another. Since only a limited number of studies empirically examine the relationships between display of genuine emotions and its antecedents and consequences, meta-analytic estimates of these relationships were not warranted. However, the fact that display of genuine emotions was negatively related to surface acting but positively related to deep acting and that both correlations were small in magnitude suggests that display of genuine emotions is distinct from surface and deep acting and thus deserves separate research attention.

Implications for the Current Study

The above review provides meaningful implications for the current study. First, examining leaders' emotional labor and its influence on follower outcomes extends the research on service providers' emotional labor, which is mainly focused on consequences of service providers' emotional labor on service providers' own well-being, attitudes, and performance. Second, surface acting, deep acting and display of genuine emotions should be treated as three distinct forms of emotional labor when examining leaders' emotional labor. Third, both intrapersonal and interpersonal models are needed to predict the consequences of leaders' emotional labor on their own well-being and attitudes. For instance, conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989) and emotion regulation theory (Gross, 1998) complement each other in explaining the mechanisms through which leaders' deep and surface acting may have differential relationships with leaders' emotional exhaustion. Last, interpersonal models are appropriate to understand how

leaders' emotional labor may influence followers. However, the limited interpersonal models (i.e., the social interaction model, Coté, 2005; conservation of resources theory, Hobfoll, 1989) reviewed above focus on the influence of emotional labor on emotional laborers' well-being and behaviors even though reactions of emotional labor receivers are incorporated in these models. In conclusion, theoretical and empirical research in the literature of service employees' emotional labor greatly contributes to the prediction of the consequences of leaders' emotional labor on leaders' well-being and attitudes.

CHAPTER III

HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

The forgoing literature reviews suggest an integrative model that explains how leaders' emotional labor may influence followers' attitudes and performance (see Figure 1). Specifically, leaders' emotional labor may influence follower attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction and organizational identification) and performance (i.e., task performance and OCB) through influencing follower cognition (i.e., transformational leadership perceptions; Gardner & Avolio, 1998), motivation (i.e., emotional engagement; Kahn, 1990; May et al., 2004), and affect (positive and negative emotional reactions; Humphrey et al., 2008; Hatfield et al., 1994; Van Kleef et al., 2009). Further, leaders' emotional labor will also play a role in leaders' well-being and attitudes. All hypotheses are listed in Table 2 at the end of this chapter.

Before formulating hypotheses regarding the way that leaders' emotional labor may influence followers' attitudes and performance, I want to point out an important theoretical assumption made by emotional labor theories (Diefendorff & Gosserand, 2003; Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983) that becomes even important in the context of leadership. The theoretical assumption is that leaders use emotional labor in order to express emotions that they believe to be appropriate in the given situation and interaction context (Gardner et al., 2009; Humphrey et al., 2008)

The whole literature in service workers' emotional labor is built on the assumption that service workers perform emotional labor to express organizationally expected emotions specified in display rules (Hochschild, 1983). Several theories (e.g.,

emotional regulation theory, Gross, 1998; control theory, Carver & Scheier, 1998; Klein, 1989) have been applied to predict that service workers will display expected emotions when they engage in emotional labor. For example, based on control theory (Carver & Scheier, 1998; Klein, 1989), Diefendorff and Gosserand (2003) argue that felt emotions and display rules are continuously compared. When a discrepancy between the two is detected, service employees will regulate their emotions to reduce the discrepancy by either surface acting or deep acting. Following their logic, I argue that service employees will express their naturally felt emotions if no discrepancy between naturally felt emotions and expected emotions is detected. This suggests that service employees' genuine emotional displays will also be congruent with organizational expectations (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). Furthermore, the hypothesized conscious monitoring process of one's felt emotions suggests that display of genuine emotions is a form of emotional labor (Diefendorff et al., 2005).

The positive relationships of deep acting with various desirable outcomes (e.g., Groth et al., 2009; Wang et al., in press) provide support for the assumption that service workers engage in emotional labor to display appropriate emotions (i.e., organizationally desired emotions). None of the existing measures of deep acting (e.g., Brotheridge & Lee, 1999; Diefendorff et al., 2005) ask respondents to report what emotions they try to deep act or whether they try to deep act organizational expected emotions. Rather, respondents are only asked the extent to which they deep act the emotions they need to show to customers. For example, a sample item in the most widely used scale of deep acting developed by Diefendorff et al. (2005) is "I make an effort to actually feel the emotions that I need to display toward customers". If service workers deep act inappropriate

emotions or organizationally unexpected emotions, it is difficult to understand the positive relationships of deep acting with various desirable outcomes, such as service quality (Wang et al., in press), customer satisfaction (Diamond et al., 2010), and customer loyalty intention (Groth et al., 2009).

Although display rules are less explicit and salient in leader-follower interactions than in service worker-customer encounters (Gardner et al., 2009; Humphrey et al., 2008), theoretical and empirical research suggests that leaders employ emotional labor to express appropriate emotions (Bono et al., 2007; Glaso et al., 2006; Glaso & Einarsen, 2006; 2008). Gardner et al. (2009) and Humphrey et al. (2008) argue that leaders perform emotional labor to display appropriate emotions. They regard "appropriate emotions" as those that are consistent with situational display rules contained in various organizational contexts in support of achieving desired organizational goals. For example, Humphrey et al. (2009) suggest that social-control type emotions (e.g., anger) may be deemed as appropriate when leaders deal with followers who come in tardy. However, during times of crisis, leaders' displays of positive emotions (e.g., optimism, confidence) are perceived as appropriate. Gardner et al. (2009) conceptualize leaders' emotional labor as the process that leaders use to display appropriate emotions to influence internal and external audiences to attain desired goals. They argue that organizational display rules may cause leaders to refrain from expressing inappropriate emotions. According to Ashforth & Humphrey (1993), organizational displays rules are a function of societal norms, occupational norms, and organizational norms. Although these norms are not always consistent with each other (e.g., occupational and organizational norms may differ from

societal norms), the emotional displays that align with these norms are generally perceived as appropriate (Gardner et al., 2009).

Furthermore, role norms or expectations for the leadership position may also cause leaders to refrain from expressing inappropriate emotions (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). Rafaeli and Sutton (1987) suggest that organizational practices such as recruitment and selection, socialization, rewards and punishments, and emotional transactions may influence leaders' emotional displays. Specifically, organizational recruitment and selection practices are likely to facilitate organizations to hire and promote people who can express appropriate emotions deemed to be appropriate for their roles. Through socialization and training, people can learn to express appropriate emotions. Rewards and punishments from more powerful managers tend to reinforce desired behaviors (e.g., expressing appropriate emotions). Emotional transactions refer to the process that people adjust their emotional expressions based on others' reactions (Weick, 1979). In other words, receivers' reactions can make senders display emotions that are appropriate in a given context.

In addition, leaders' implicit leadership beliefs may also guide leaders to display appropriate emotions. Leaders' past experience and socialization may influence their implicit leadership beliefs (Lord & Alliger, 1985; Lord & Masher, 1993). Empirical research on implicit leadership theories show that leader attributes such as being positive, encouraging, energetic, dynamic, understanding, sincere, and powerful are universally considered prototypical implicit leadership attributes (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004; Den Hartog et al., 1999). These implicit leadership beliefs may drive leaders to strive to

express appropriate emotions when they interact with their followers (Lord & Alliger,1985).

The two studies conducted by Glaso and colleagues (Glaso & Einarsen, 2008; Glaso et al., 2006) provide initial support for the assumption that leaders engage in emotional labor to express appropriate emotions. As reviewed in Chapter 2, findings in Glaso and Einarsen (2008) suggest that leaders frequently express genuine positive emotions, occasionally surface act positive emotions, occasionally express genuine negative emotions, and occasionally surface act negative emotions. That is to say, leader-follower interactions are typically characterized by positive emotions. Although situationally appropriate emotions do not necessarily mean positive emotions, it is reasonable to argue that positive emotions are appropriate in most cases given that positive emotions are socially desirable and preferred to negative emotions (Newcombe & Ashkanasy, 2002; Goffman, 1992). Empirical research on leaders' emotions also shows that followers respond positively to leaders who display positive emotions (e.g., Gaddis et al., 2004; Newcombe & Ashkanasy, 2002). Furthermore, in their qualitative study, Glaso et al. (2006) found that the managers regulated their emotions in terms of situational demands. For example, several of the managers reported that they used emotional labor when they wanted their subordinates to take on new tasks or more work.

In conclusion, the foregoing supports the assumption that leaders use emotional labor to express appropriate emotions in a given context or situation. Based on this assumption, I develop specific hypotheses in the following sections.

The Role of Leaders' Emotional Labor on Followers' Transformational Leadership Perceptions

As suggested by the integrative model derived from theoretical and empirical research (see Figure 1), leader emotional labor may play a role in follower transformational leadership perceptions. Some transformational theorists argue that transformational/charismatic leadership perceptions are socially constructed in a dramaturgical manner (e.g., Bass, 1985; Conger & Kanungo, 1987; Gardner & Avolio, 1998). The assumption of this perspective is that perceptions of transformational/charismatic leadership may stem from leaders' behavior, followers' attribution, or combinations of the two. According to this perspective, leaders are regarded as social actors who may purposely manage positive impressions in the eyes of audiences (followers) in order to be perceived as transformational/charismatic. Bass (1985) argues that "charismatic leaders engage in impression management techniques to bolster their image of competence, increasing subordinate compliance and faith in practices to inspire followers in pursuit of the vision" (p.40). Moreover, according to Conger and Kanungo's (1987) conceptualization of charismatic leadership, the use of impression management is critical in order to be attributed as charismatic leaders.

Followers' leadership prototypical schema may affect their attribution of charismatic/transformational leadership (Lord & Maher, 1993). If a leader's identity images such as sincere, supportive, caring, credible, innovative, and powerful are seen as desired in follower prototypical transformational/charismatic leaders, followers may attribute transformational/charismatic leadership to the leader (Gardner & Avolio, 1998). Past research on transformational/charismatic leadership shows that true

transformational/charismatic leaders are characterized by the above positive identity images (e.g., Avolio, 1999, 2005; Bass, 1985, 1997; Burn, 1978; Conger & Kanungo, 1994; Epitropaki & Martin, 2004; Den Hartog et al., 1999).

Emotional labor has been regarded as one form of impression management strategies (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). Gardner and Martinko (1988) defined impression management as the behaviors individuals directed toward others to create and maintain desired perceptions of themselves. Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) argue that "emotional labor can be considered a form of impression management to the extent that the laborer deliberately attempts to direct his or her behavior toward others in order to foster both certain social perceptions of himself or herself and a certain interpersonal climate" (p.90). Although Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) focus on service workers, it is reasonable to argue that leaders may also use emotional labor as a form of impression management strategy. In fact, research on leader impression management suggests that one impression management tactic that leaders use is to deliberately present themselves as warm and charming to followers (Rozell & Gundersen, 2003). Furthermore, in their qualitative study, Galso et al. (2006) reveal that one of the reasons that leaders suppress negative emotions (e.g., anger, disappointment) is to maintain desirable images in followers.

Drawing upon the dramaturgical perspective of transformational leadership (Gardner & Avolio, 1998), I argue that leaders' emotional labor will be positively related to follower transformational leadership perceptions. Leaders who frequently use emotional labor to express situationally appropriate emotions are emotionally expressive and likely to have positive follower impressions. Specifically, these leaders' emotional

displays will make their communications with followers inspiring and dynamic and make them appear to be sincere, motivated, energetic, confident, powerful, and understanding (Humphrey et al., 2008). This is because situational demands generally require leaders to be inspiring, upbeat, optimistic, confident, caring, sincere, and powerful (Burns, 1978; Gardner & Avolio, 1998; Lord & Maher, 1993; Tiedens, 2001). According to transformational/charismatic leadership theories (e.g., Bass, 1985; 1997; Conger & Kanungo, 1987; 1994), leaders with the above attributes tend to be perceived as transformational/charismatic. Empirically, most of the above leader attributes have been shown to align with followers' prototypical implicit leadership theories (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004) and prototypical implicit charismatic leadership theories (Den Hartog et al., 1999). Therefore, I argue that leaders' emotional labor will be positively related to follower transformational leadership perceptions. However, this argument will only be applicable to the display of genuine emotions and deep acting but not to surface acting.

Specifically, when leaders surface act to display situationally appropriate emotions, they just simulate the emotions that they do not actually feel and try to deceive their followers (Gardner et al., 2009; Humphrey et al., 2008). However, their deception may leak out and convey information about their lack of sincerity toward followers since prior research has shown that observers may detect fake emotions from senders' nonverbal expressions (e.g., Ekman & Friesen, 1982; Grandey et al., 2005). For example, in a lab experiment, Ekman and Friesen (1982) found that subjects reacted less positively to fake smiles than to sincere smiles. In addition, Grandey et al. (2005) trained an actress to deep act (reappraising the event of encountering a troublesome customer as a chance to help others) and surface act (faking a smile while disliking a troublesome customer at

heart). They had the deep and surface acting scenes filmed and invited 114 undergraduates to randomly watch one of the videos and report perceived authenticity of the service clerk (the actress), friendliness of the service clerk, and satisfaction with the encounter. The results show that undergraduate-participants perceived significantly higher level of authenticity ($p<.001$) under the deep acting situation ($M = 3.89$) than under the surface acting situation ($M = 1.38$). Further, undergraduate-participants reported higher levels of perceived friendliness of the service clerk and satisfaction with the encounter.

Thus, the forgoing suggests that followers are likely to detect leaders' surface acting behavior and perceive these leaders as insincere and manipulative (Fineman, 1993; Grandey et al., 2005). This means that leaders fail to retain prototypical transformational/charismatic leadership images given that being manipulative and insincere have been found to be antiprototypical leadership attributes (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004). Even worse, followers tend to develop distrust and cynicism toward these surface acting leaders (Kanter & Mirvis, 1989). Therefore, leaders who frequently surface act will be rated low on transformational leadership.

In contrast, when leaders deep act situationally appropriate emotions, they try to modify their inner thoughts and actually experience these emotions (Gardner et al., 2009; Humphrey et al., 2008). As shown in Grandey et al.'s (2005) lab experiment, deep acting is less observable than surface acting. Further, meta-analytic results show that deep acting was positively related to deep actors' service performance, which was assessed by supervisors, coworkers, or customers (Wang et al., in press). This provides further support for the notion that deep acting is difficult to for observers to detect. In fact, Groth

et al. (2009) argue that since deep actors attempt to feel expected emotions, deep acted emotions tend to be genuine emotions. Thus, when leaders frequently use deep acting to generate appropriate emotions, they are likely to be perceived as emotionally expressive, sincere, and transformational (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004; Garder & Avolio, 1998)

When leaders display situationally appropriate genuine emotions, followers will not question the sincerity of the leaders' emotions. As reasoned above, followers are likely to perceive these leaders as emotionally expressive, sincere, and transformational (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004; Garder & Avolio, 1998). Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 1a: Leader surface acting will be negatively related to follower transformational leadership perceptions.

Hypothesis 1b: Leader deep acting will be positively related to follower transformational leadership perceptions.

Hypothesis 1c: Leader display of genuine emotions will be positively related to follower transformational leadership perceptions.

The Role of Leaders' Emotional Labor on Followers' Emotional Engagement

The theoretical model (Figure 1) also suggests that leaders' emotional labor may influence follower emotional engagement, a motivational state that describes the extent to which followers are emotionally invested in their work roles (Kahn, 1990; Rich et al., 2010). Several authors argue that leaders may use their emotions to influence follower motivation (e.g., Bono & Ilies, 2006; Humphrey et al., 2008). However, theoretical arguments are unclear in this regard. In this study, with reference to Kahn's (1990) job

engagement theory and social learning theory (Bandura, 1977), I argue that leaders' emotional labor may affect follower emotional engagement. Given that accomplishing work tasks are the focus of leader-follower interactions (Yukl, 2010), leaders are likely to use emotional labor to motivate followers to invest emotional energy in their role performance (Humphrey et al., 2008).

In his seminal article, with reference to Hackman and Oldham's (1980) notion that job characteristics may influence one's critical psychological states, which may influence one's attitudes and behavior, Kahn (1990) argues that work contexts (e.g., task characteristics, management style and process, organizational norms) and people's experience of themselves (e.g., physical energy, emotional energy) may affect people's psychological conditions (i.e., psychological meaningfulness, safety, and availability), which may directly affect people's willingness to engage their cognitive, physical, and emotional selves in their work roles. As reviewed in Chapter 2, psychological meaningfulness refers to the sense of being worthwhile, useful, and valuable. Factors that may influence psychological meaningfulness include task characteristics, role characteristics, and work interaction. Psychological safety refers to the degree to which employees feel that they can invest themselves in their work role without worrying about negative consequences on self-image, status, or career. Factors that may influence psychological safety include interpersonal relationships, group dynamics, management style and process, and organizational norms. Psychological availability refers to the feeling of having the cognitive, physical, and emotional resources to personally engage. Factors that may influence psychological availability include physical energy, emotional energy, and self perceptions of confidence. The three psychological conditions are

posited to mediate the influence of work contexts and people's experience of themselves on the extent to which people are engaged in their role performance (Kahn, 1990).

Although Kahn (1990) did not look at the direct effects of the work contexts and people's experience of themselves on people's job engagement, social learning theory (Bandura, 1977) suggests that some direct effects may exist. Social learning theory (Bandura, 1977) posits that if people observe positive and desired outcomes in observed behaviors, they are more likely to model, imitate, and adopt the behavior themselves. For example, managers who are physically invested in their role performance (e.g., working overtime) may serve as role models so that their subordinates may also be willing to invest their physical selves in their role performance (e.g., working over time as well). In the current study, I argue that leaders who frequently use emotional labor tend to serve as role models for followers, who will have levels of emotional engagement in their role performance. In fact, Kahn (1990) regarded cognitive, physical, and emotional engagement as people's internal motivation to engage in cognitive, physical, and emotional labor. Kahn (1990) stated that "My premise is that people have dimensions of themselves that, given appropriate conditions, they prefer to use and express in the course of role performances. To employ such dimensions is to drive personal energies into physical, cognitive, and emotional labors."(p.700).

Since leaders tend to use emotional labor to express situationally appropriate emotions, there is reason to suspect that leaders high on emotional labor will be seen as emotionally engaged in their role performance. Humphrey et al. (2008) argue that leaders are more likely to use emotional labor to express optimism and confidence toward collective goals in times of uncertainty. From followers' perspective, these leaders will be

seen as emotionally engaged in the collective goals. Even if a leader uses emotional labor to express situationally appropriate negative emotions (e.g., being angry to an employee who misses an important meeting with a key account), the leader's negative emotions are likely to be interpreted as an emotional reaction to factors having negative influences on the leader's role performance (e.g., achieving higher sales revenue). Empirically, Glaso et al.'s (2006) qualitative study revealed that the mangers used their emotions strategically when they wanted to get their subordinates to achieve or avoid something specific. Therefore, influenced by their leaders' emotional labor behavior, followers are likely to be emotionally engaged in their role performance (Bandura, 1977).

But the positive relationship between leaders' emotional labor and followers' emotional engagement will hold only for leaders' display of genuine emotions and deep acting but not for leaders' surface acting. As stated above, when leaders surface act, followers may detect their leaders' acting behavior and perceive their leaders as manipulative and untrustworthy (Grandey et al., 2005). This will make followers be less emotionally engaged in their work roles (Kahn, 1990, 1992). In contrast, when leaders deep act, followers are unlikely to detect their leaders' acting behavior (Grandey et al., 2005). Thus, followers tend to perceive their leaders as truly emotionally engaged and thus be willing to emotionally invest in their work roles as well. When leaders display situationally appropriate genuine emotions, followers will not doubt about the authenticity of their leaders' emotions. The same line of logic for leaders' deep acting suggests that leaders' display of genuine emotions will be positively related to follower emotional engagement. Therefore,

Hypothesis 2a: Leader surface acting will be negatively related to follower emotional engagement.

Hypothesis 2b: Leader deep acting will be positively related to follower emotional engagement.

Hypothesis 2c: Leader display of genuine emotions will be positively related to follower emotional engagement.

The Role of Leaders' Emotional Labor on Followers' Emotional Reactions

Theoretical and empirical research suggests that leaders use emotional labor to manage follower emotions (Glaso et al., 2006; Humphrey et al., 2008). Humphrey et al. (2008) argue that leaders need to perform emotional labor to influence follower emotions. For example, they exemplify that under conditions of uncertainty, leaders' display of optimism and confidence will make followers feel optimistic and confident. Glaso et al. (2006) report that one reason leaders regulate their emotions (e.g., suppressing negative emotions) is to avoid letting followers feel unpleasant emotions.

Research on leaders' emotions suggests that emotional contagion (Hatfield et al., 1994) might be the process through which leaders may influence follower emotions (Barsade, 2002; Bono& Ilies, 2006; Erez et al., 2008). According to emotional contagion, followers are likely to subconsciously mimic leaders' facial expressions and then actually experience their leaders' emotions (Hatfield et al., 1994). Due to power and status differences between leaders and followers, followers tend to be more attentive to leaders' emotions (Coté, 2005), which suggests that emotional contagion is likely to be strong in leader-follower interactions. Several studies have shown or argued that leaders' emotions

were transferred to their followers through this process (Bono & Ilies, 2006; Cherulnik et al., 2001; Johnson, 2008; Sy et al., 2005). For instance, Cherulnik et al. (2001) found that leaders' smiles were mimicked by observers. Bono and Ilies (2006) reported that leaders' positive emotions resulted in followers' positive mood.

Given the one-on-one transmission nature of emotional contagion, the influence of leaders' emotional labor on followers' emotional reactions will be contingent on the positive or negative valence of leaders' emotions. That's to say, when leaders use emotional labor to express positive emotions, followers are likely to catch leaders' positive emotions and have positive emotional reactions. In contrast, when leaders use emotional labor to express negative emotions, followers are likely to catch leaders' negative emotions and have negative emotional reactions. This suggests that leaders' emotional labor will interact with the valence (positive vs. negative) of leaders' emotions to affect followers' emotional reactions. To be noted, since leaders could express emotions high on positive (e.g., happiness) or negative (e.g. anger) valence (Humphrey et al., 2008), it is reasonable to argue that followers may have either positive or negative emotional reactions. Further, since emotional contagion is mainly a subconscious process (Erez et al., 2008), followers are likely to automatically mimic leaders' emotions regardless of whether they perceive leaders' emotions as fake or genuine. Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 3a: Leaders' surface acting and the valence of leaders' emotions will have an interactive effect on followers' emotional reactions, such that when leaders frequently express positive emotions, leaders' surface acting will be positively related to followers' positive emotional reactions; whereas when leaders frequently express

negative emotions, leaders' surface acting will be positively related to followers' negative emotional reactions.

Hypothesis 3b: Leaders' deep acting and the valence of leaders' emotions will have an interactive effect on followers' emotional reactions, such that when leaders frequently express positive emotions, leaders' deep acting will be positively related to followers' positive emotional reactions; whereas when leaders frequently express negative emotions, leaders' deep acting will be positively related to followers' negative emotional reactions.

Hypothesis 3c: Leaders' display of genuine emotions and the valence of leaders' emotions will have an interactive effect on followers' emotional reactions, such that when leaders frequently express positive emotions, leaders' display of genuine emotions will be positively related to followers' positive emotional reactions, whereas when leaders frequently express negative emotions, leaders' display of genuine emotions will be positively related to followers' negative emotional reactions.

Transformational Leadership and Follower Emotional Engagement

Theoretical and empirical research suggests that followers' transformational leadership perceptions may also influence their emotional engagement (Bass, 1985; Shamir et al., 2003; Zhu et al., 2009). Transformational leadership theories (e.g., Avolio, 1999; 2005; Bass, 1985) indicate that follower transformational leadership perceptions may influence all of the three antecedents of emotional engagement: psychological safety, meaningfulness, and availability (Kahn, 1990; Zhu et al., 2009).

Specifically, through the behavior of individualized consideration, transformational leaders care about followers' needs for achievement and growth and provide support and personalized interactions to each follower (Bass, 1985). Followers will experience a high level of supervisory support (Avolio, 1999; Bass, 1985; Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986) and psychological safety (Bono et al., 2007; Kahn, 1990). They will have less fear of damaging consequences of their self-images, statuses, or careers. In addition, through the behavior of inspirational motivation, transformational leaders develop and articulate a shared vision that is motivating, inspiring, and challenging, and link followers' work activities with followers' values and beliefs so that followers will perceive their work as important and meaningful (Bono & Judge, 2003). By serving as role models, transformational leaders exhibit the behavior of idealized influence that is consistent with the articulated vision and further strengthens followers' sense of meaningfulness (Kark & Shamir, 2007). Further, transformational leaders intellectually stimulate their followers to challenge the status quo and elicit creative ideas from followers. Transformational leaders' intellectual stimulation tends to increase followers' self-confidence and self-efficacy (Shamir et al., 2003). Thus, followers of transformational leaders will feel that they have resources and abilities available to invest into their work roles.

In sum, transformational leadership will increase followers' feelings of psychological safety, meaningfulness, and availability, which will lead followers to be fully emotionally engaged in their work roles. Empirically, using survey research based on 48 supervisor and 140 direct reports in South Africa, Zhu et al. (2009) found a positive relationship between transformational leadership and follower job engagement. However,

prior research has not examined the relationship of transformational leadership with follower emotional engagement. Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 4: Transformational leadership will be positively related to follower emotional engagement.

Follower Emotional Reactions and Follower Emotional Engagement

Further, the mood congruence judgment model (Bower, 1981; Meyer et al., 1992) suggests that followers' emotional reactions may also influence their emotional engagement. As reviewed in Chapter 2, the mood congruence judgment model (Bower, 1981; Meyer et al., 1992) posits that people's perceptions of themselves, others, or things tend to be congruent with their mood. When people are in a positive mood, they will have positive perceptions toward themselves, others, or things. In contrast, when people are in a negative mood, they will have negative perceptions toward themselves, others, or things. According to this model, it is reasonable to argue that followers who frequently experience positive emotions are likely to be in a positive mood frequently and thus have positive views of themselves regarding their abilities and self-efficacy and the accomplishment of their tasks (Seo et al., 2004). Therefore, these followers tend to experience a high level of readiness to personally engage in their work roles and will be willing to emotionally invest in their work roles. However, if followers frequently experience negative emotions, they tend to be frequently in a negative mood and have negative views of themselves regarding their abilities and self-efficacy and the accomplishment of their tasks. Those followers will experience a low level of readiness

to personally engage in their work roles and be less willing to emotionally invest in their work roles.

In addition, the positive or negative emotions that followers experience will influence the emotional resources that followers have (Kahn, 1990). When followers experience positive emotions, they will have high levels of emotional energy to be invested in their work roles (Fredrickson, 1998; Hobfoll, 1989). In contrast, when followers experience negative emotions, they tend to feel drained and exhausted (Fredrickson, 1998; Hobfoll, 1989) and have low levels of emotional energy to be invested in their work roles. Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 5a: Follower positive emotional reactions will be positively related to follower emotional engagement.

Hypothesis 5b: Follower negative emotional reactions will be negatively related to follower emotional engagement.

As illustrated in Figure 1, the major purpose of this study is to examine the role of leaders' emotional labor on followers' attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction and organizational identification) and performance (i.e., task performance and OCB). The theoretical model (see Figure 1) suggests that leaders' emotional labor may influence followers' attitudes and performance by influencing followers' transformational leadership perceptions, emotional engagement, and emotional reactions. So far, I have hypothesized the possible relationships between leaders' emotional labor and these follower reactions. However, to estimate the impact of leaders' emotional labor on follower attitudes and performance, it is necessary to examine the relationships between follower cognitive, motivational, and emotional reactions and follower attitudes and performance. Therefore, I will briefly

develop these relationships given that most of the relationships have been examined in previous studies.

Transformational Leadership and Follower Attitudes and Performance

Job satisfaction reflects employees' affective and cognitive appraisal of their work experiences in an organization (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Leaders can shape employees' work experience and thus have important influence on employee job satisfaction (Seibert, Wang, & Courtright, 2011, March 28; Yukl, 2010). The essence of transformational leadership theory is that transformational leaders motivate followers to go beyond their self-interest and work for the good of the group or organization by highlighting motivation and instilling a sense of vision (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978; House, 1977). When a follower perceives a leader as transformational, the follower tends to have increased feelings of loyalty and optimism (McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002), which will lead to more enthusiasm (Bono et al., 2007). Thus, followers will have higher job satisfaction. Meta-analytic results have shown that transformational leadership is strongly related to follower job satisfaction (e.g., Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Low et al., 1996).

Organizational identification reflects one's feeling of belongingness to a particular institution (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). It conveys a sense of belongingness since people tend to tie their self-identity to their membership in a particular organization (Ashforth, Harrison, & Corley, 2008). Transformational leaders connect followers' self-concept to the mission of the group (Shamir et al., 1993). In this case, followers will base their self-concept on their belongingness to the group and will experience group successes and failures as their personal successes and failures (Mael & Ashforth, 1992).

The more transformational that a leader is perceived to be, the higher sense of belongingness that a follower develops to the group (Kark, Shamir, & Chen, 2003). Several studies have shown a positive relationship between transformational leadership and organizational identification (e.g., Walumbwa, Avolio, & Zhu, 2008; Wang & Rode, 2010)

Task performance refers to work behaviors that are stipulated by a formal job description (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Harrison, Newman, & Roth, 2006). Transformational leaders enable and motivate their followers to fulfill their assigned job duties in several ways. First, transformational leaders link followers' work roles to a compelling vision of the future of the organization, causing followers of transformational leaders to view their work as more meaningful and significant, and thus increasing its intrinsic motivating potential (Bono & Judge, 2003). In addition, transformational leaders instill in their followers a belief that they can achieve the goals that are set for them (Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993), and these increased levels of self-efficacy positively impact performance (Bandura, 1986). Moreover, since followers of transformational leaders internalize the goals of the collective, they are likely to view actions that support the psychological and social context of their work as meaningful and consistent with their own self-concept.

OCB, which is also called extra-role behavior, refers to voluntarily motivated work behaviors that go beyond prescribed job roles but contribute to the psychological and social contexts around the job (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Organ, 1977). By serving as role models who are willing to sacrifice their own interests for the collective good, transformational leaders influence their followers to engage in contextual

performance (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990). Meta-analytic findings show that transformational leadership is positively related to follower task performance and OCB (Wang et al., 2011).

Emotional Engagement and Follower Attitudes and Performance

Although job engagement theorists (Kahn, 1990; Rich et al., 2010) focus on the consequences of job engagement on job performance, it stands to reason that job engagement may also influence job satisfaction. Rich et al. (2010) theoretically argue that job engagement and job satisfaction are two different constructs. Job satisfaction refers to one's affective and cognitive reactions to their jobs (Weiss & Crapanzano, 1996), whereas job engagement describes a motivational state in which one invests his cognitive, physical, and emotional selves in his work role in a connected and holistic manner (Rich et al., 2010). The results in Rich et al. (2010) show that job engagement and job satisfaction are two distinct albeit highly correlated variables (r =.56).

Emotional engagement may be positively related to job satisfaction. First, when one is fully emotionally invested in one's work roles, one is likely to successfully complete tasks (Rich et al., 2010). The sense of accomplishment and happiness associated with successful completion of tasks represent a pleasant work experience; second, when one is fully emotionally connected to one's work role, one tends to have a positive appraisal of one's job.

Further, emotional engagement will also be positively related to organizational identification. When employees are emotionally engaged in their work roles, they are likely to internalize their role requirements and also be emotionally connected with their

organization. In other words, emotionally engaged employees will be not only concerned about their own job performance but also how their job performance will influence their organizational success. This will make their organizational identity become salient. Thus, these employees tie their self-identity to their group membership and have high levels of organizational identification (Vandenberg, Self, & Seo, 1994).

Job engagement theory (Kahn, 1990) suggests that emotional engagement will be positively related to task performance and OCB. Emotionally engaged employees are likely to exert more effort in their jobs and thus achieve better task performance (Locke & Lathem, 1990). In addition, emotionally engaged employees are likely to be connected to their organization and co-workers (Rich et al., 2010). Thus, they will be more willing to step out and help their organization and co-workers. Rich et al. (2010) found that job engagement was positively related to task performance and OCB.

Emotional Reactions and Follower Attitudes and Performance

Research on emotion suggests that followers' emotional reactions will influence their attitudes and performance (e.g., Bower, 1981; Schwartz & Clore, 1983; Van Kleef et al., 2009). Specifically, follower positive emotional reactions will be positively related to follower job satisfaction and organizational identification. Experiencing positive emotions at work represents a pleasant work experience (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Thus, followers who frequently experience positive emotions at work are likely to be high on job satisfaction. Further, followers who frequently experience positive emotions are likely to be highly identified with their organization in that the mood congruence judgment model (Bower, 1981, Meyer et al., 1994) suggests that these followers will

have a positive perception of their organizational identity. In addition, the affect-as-information model (Schwartz & Clore, 1983) indicates that the positive emotions that followers experience suggest that they need to continue with their current level of effort, which will continuously lead to increased task performance. Furthermore, the broaden-and-build theory (Fredrickson, 1998) suggests that positive affect will lead to broadened thought-action repertoires. Thus, followers in a positive mood are likely to come up with creative ways to accomplish their tasks. In addition, the mood congruence model (e.g., Bower, 1981) suggests that followers who frequently experience positive emotions at work are likely to have a positive view of their organization and co-workers. As such, they are more likely to perform OCB targeted at their organization and colleagues.

In contrast, followers who frequently experience negative emotions at work are likely to be low on job satisfaction because experiencing negative emotions represents an unpleasant work experience (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Further, the mood congruence judgment model (e.g., Bower, 1981) suggests that these employees will have low on organizational identification. In addition, the affect-as-information model (Schwartz & Clore, 1983) suggests that the negative emotions will inform followers that they need to exert more effort, which will lead to better task performance (Locke & Lathem, 1990). Prior research suggests that followers in a negative mood are likely to improve performance on effort-based tasks but are unlikely to improve performance on creativity-based tasks (e.g., Damen et al., 2008). This may be because negative moods tend to narrow thought-action repertoires (Fredrickson, 1998). Given that the task performance of study subjects in this study is mainly based on effort, I expect that leaders' negative emotions will lead to increased followers' task performance. As for OCB, the mood

congruence model (Bower, 1981) implies that followers in negative mood tend to view their organization and co-workers negatively. Thus, they are unlikely to perform OCB.

To summarize the above relationships, the following hypotheses are proposed. Although most of these relationships have been studied, it is still necessary to replicate and extend previous findings.

Hypothesis 6a: Follower transformational leadership perceptions, emotional engagement, and positive emotional reactions will each be positively related to follower attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction and organizational identification) and performance (i.e., task performance, OCB-I, and OCB-O).

Hypothesis 6b: Follower negative emotional reactions will be negatively related to follower attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction and organizational identification) and OCB-I and OCB-O but positively related to follower task performance.

The Role of Leaders' Emotional Labor on Leaders' Well-Being and Attitudes

Due to the paucity of prior research on leaders' emotional labor, the relationships between leaders' emotional labor and their own well-being and attitudes are not clear. With reference to the high emotional labor demands for leaders (Brotheridge, 2006; Gardner et al., 2009; Glaso et al., 2006), it is necessary to examine the role of leaders' emotional labor on their own attitudes and well-being. So far, only Glaso and Einarsen (2008) report that leaders' suppressing and faking behaviors are negatively related to their job satisfaction and positively related to their health complaints. Since suppressing and faking emotions constitute surface acting (Brotheridge, 2006; Grandey, 2000), the relationships of leaders' deep acting and authentic emotional displays with leaders' well-

being and attitudes remain uninvestigated. With reference to intrapersonal and interpersonal models of service employees' emotional labor and the unique features of leaders' emotional labor, I argue that the three forms of leaders' emotional labor will have different relationships with leaders' emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction.

Specifically, I expect that leaders' surface acting will be positively associated with their emotional exhaustion and job dissatisfaction. As suggested by emotion regulation theory (Grandey, 2000; Gross, 1998), during leader-follower interactions, leaders may experience some unwanted emotions (e.g., anger) and have a tendency to express these emotions. However, guided by motivational forces (e.g., impression management concerns), leaders have to inhibit expressions of these unwanted emotions. This regulation process overworks the leaders' cardiovascular and nervous systems and weakens the immune system over time. The biological explanations provided by emotion regulation theory (Grandey, 2000; Gross, 1998) suggest that surface acting may also lead to emotional exhaustion in leaders.

In addition, leaders' surface acting tends to be negatively related to their momentary affective job experiences and long-term cognitive evaluations of the job (Judge et al., 2009). When surface acting, leaders will instantly experience emotional dissonance and inauthenticity. These immediate feelings result from differences between felt emotions and expressed ones, which signify compromises between one's preferences and work role requirements. Thus, leaders will have a sense of loss of control and job dissatisfaction (Grosserand, 2003; Morris & Feldman, 1996). Moreover, surface actors just hide or suppress inappropriate emotions (e.g., anger, sadness), which may have negative impact on the surface actors' cognitive evaluations of job satisfaction (Judge,

Scott, & Ilies, 2006). In addition, based on Coté's (2005) social interaction model, followers' unfavorable reactions to leaders' surface acting tend to contribute to leaders' negative work experiences, which will also have deleterious influences on leaders' momentary evaluations of job. Empirically, meta-analytic results have shown that surface acting had a moderately positive relationship with service employees' emotional exhaustion and a moderately negative relationship with their job satisfaction (Wang et al., in press). Thus the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 7a: Leader surface acting will be positively related to leader emotional exhaustion.

Hypothesis 7b: Leader surface acting will be negatively related to leader job satisfaction.

Unlike leaders' surface acting, leaders' deep acting tends to have different pattern of relationships with emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction. Although emotion regulation theory (Grandey, 2000; Groth, 1998) does not offer predictions of the relationship between deep acting and emotional exhaustion, I think conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989) and the social interaction model (Coté', 2005) together provide an integrated framework to understand this relationship. Even though the process of deep acting consumes cognitive resources, followers' positive reactions to leaders' deep acting may help the leaders regain resources and thus maintain conservation of resources. Taken together, leaders' deep acting may not lead to emotional exhaustion. Empirically, Wang et al. (in press) provide support for this argument in that an insignificant relationship of deep acting with emotional exhaustion is reported.

In addition, leaders' deep acting tends to be positively related to their job satisfaction (Judge et al., 2009). Since deep acting leaders try to experience expressed emotions, they will not experience emotional dissonance or inauthenticity. In contrast, they will have a sense of authenticity. In addition, followers' positive reactions to leaders' deep acting may give them a sense of accomplishment. These positive feelings associated with leaders' deep acting suggest that leaders' deep acting tends to be positively related to their job satisfaction. Again, a significantly positive relationship between deep acting and job satisfaction was reported in Wang et al. (in press).

When leaders display genuine emotions, this process should not consume many cognitive resources given that leaders spontaneously experience the genuine emotions. Thus, leaders who display genuine emotions are unlikely to feel emotionally exhausted. In addition, leaders who express genuine emotions will experience alignment between inner feelings and expressed emotions, which allows the authentic expression of self and may lead to a sense of personal accomplishment (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002). Prior research shows that the authentic expression of self is positively related to job satisfaction (Sheldon, Ryan, Rawsthorne, & Hardi, 1997). Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 8: Leader deep acting and display of genuine emotions will be positively related to leader job satisfaction.

Table 2. List of Hypotheses

No.	Hypothesis	Page No.
H1a	Leader surface acting will be negatively related to follower transformational leadership perceptions.	80
H1b	Leader deep acting will be positively related to follower transformational leadership perceptions.	80
H1c	Leader display of genuine emotions will be positively related to follower transformational leadership perceptions.	80
H2a	Leader surface acting will be negatively related to follower emotional engagement.	84
H2b	Leader deep acting will be positively related to follower emotional engagement.	84
H2c	Leader display of genuine emotions will be positively related to follower emotional engagement.	84
H3a	Leaders' surface acting and the valence of leaders' emotions will have an interactive effect on followers' emotional reactions, such that when leaders frequently express positive emotions, leaders' surface acting will be positively related to followers' positive emotional reactions, whereas when leaders frequently express negative emotions, leaders' surface acting will be positively related to followers' negative emotional reactions.	85
H3b	Leaders' deep acting and the valence of leaders' emotions will have an interactive effect on followers' emotional reactions, such that when leaders frequently express positive emotions, leaders' deep acting will be positively related to followers' positive emotional reactions, whereas when leaders frequently express negative emotions, leaders' deep acting will be positively related to followers' negative emotional reactions.	86
H3c	Leaders' display of genuine emotions and the valence of leaders' emotions will have an interactive effect on followers' emotional reactions, such that when leaders frequently express positive emotions, leaders' display of genuine emotions will be positively related to followers' positive emotional reactions, whereas when leaders frequently express negative emotions, leaders' display of genuine emotions will be positively related to followers' negative emotional reactions.	86

Table 2. Continued

No.	Hypothesis	Page No.
H4	Transformational leadership will be positively related to follower emotional engagement.	88
H5a	Follower positive emotional reactions will be positively related to follower emotional engagement.	89
H5b	Follower negative emotional reactions will be negatively related to follower emotional engagement.	89
H6a	Follower transformational leadership perceptions, emotional engagement, and positive emotional reactions will be positively related to follower attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction and organizational identification) and performance (i.e., task performance and OCB).	95
H6b	Follower negative emotional reactions will be negatively related to follower attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction and organizational identification) and OCB-I and OCB-O but positively related to follower task performance.	95
H7a	Leader surface acting will be positively related to leader emotional exhaustion.	97
H7b	Leader surface acting will be negatively related to leader job satisfaction.	97
H8	Leader deep acting and display of genuine emotions will be positively related to leader job satisfaction.	98

CHAPTER IV

METHODOLOGY

Sample

Study participants were made up of supervisors and their direct reports in three business organizations in the Midwest. The three organizations cover industries of banking (Company A), electrical engineering (Company B), and hospitality (Company C). Company A has twenty six branches and provides personal financing services and commercial loan services. I was granted access to Company A's employees in Iowa City, including those in four branches and those in the headquarters. Company B mainly provides power wire services, technical support, and consulting such as project management and inventory management. Company C operates 45 franchised hotels and 10 restaurants. To be noted, in this study leaders are defined as those who hold formal supervisory positions and have at least one direct report.

Contact persons in the HR departments of the three companies first disseminated information about this study to supervisors in their organizations and encouraged participation. The contact persons then shared with me the names and email addresses of supervisors who were interested in the study and the names and email (or mail) addresses of those supervisors' direct reports. One hundred eighty five supervisors expressed interest in the study. Of those supervisors, 62% completed the first survey and 59% completed the second survey. 49 % of the supervisors were males. The majority (58%) were between 31 to 40 years old; 18% of the supervisors were between 21 and 30 years old; 20% of the supervisors were between 51 and 60 years old; 4% of the supervisors

were over 60 years old. 20% of the supervisors had been with their organizations for one to two years; 28% of the supervisors had been with their organizations for three to five years; 22% of the supervisors had been with their organizations for six to ten years; 19% of the supervisors had been with their organizations for over 10 years. The majority had more than six years of supervisory experience (70%) and received associates degrees or above (57%).

Leaders' direct reports were also invited to take part in the study. Of the 835 direct reports who were invited, 53% completed the survey. 48% of the followers were males. The majority (58%) were between 21 to 40 years old; 20% were between 41 and 50 years old; 14 % were between 51 to 60 years old; 5% were under 21 years old and 4% were over 60 years old. 5% had worked in their organizations for less than six months; 15% had worked in the organizations for six months to one year; 26% of the followers had worked in their organizations for one to two years; 24% had worked in their organizations for three to five years; 14% had worked in their organizations for six to ten years; 16% had worked in their organizations for over 10 years. The majority had been working under their direct supervisors for one to five years (67%) and had received some college education or above (73%).

Complete data were matched between 86 supervisors and 354 direct reports. Of the 354 direct reports, performance ratings (task performance, OCB-I, and OCB-O) were provided for 239 employees from 66 supervisors. Specifically, matched data were available for 24 supervisors and 98 direct reports in Company A, 17 supervisors and 109 direct reports in Company B, and 45 supervisors and 147 direct reports in Company C.

Among the matched data, 20, 16, and 30 supervisors in companies A, B, and C provided performance ratings for 73, 75, and 91 direct reports respectively.

Procedures

A longitudinal survey design was used to collect data to reduce common method biases (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Online surveys were used for all three companies while paper-and-pencil surveys were used to collect data from direct reports in Company C, based on employee's limited access to computers at work in this company. In each company the order of survey administration was as follows: first, supervisors were asked to complete Time 1 surveys that measured demographics (i.e., age, organizational tenure, supervisory tenure, and gender), emotional labor (i.e., surface acting, deep acting, and display of genuine emotions), and control variables (i.e., positive and negative affectivity, interactional characteristics, emotional display culture, and job satisfaction); two weeks later employees were asked to complete surveys measuring demographics (i.e., age, gender, organizational tenure, time with their current leader, and education level), leader positive and negative emotions, transformational leadership perceptions, emotional engagement, positive and negative emotional reactions, job satisfaction, organizational identification, and positive and negative affectivity. Finally, two weeks later (four weeks after the Time 1 survey), supervisors were administered a survey asking them to report their own job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion and to rate employees' task performance, organizational citizenship behavior directed toward other individuals, and organizational citizenship behavior directed toward the organization.

Two online surveys were administered four weeks apart to collect data from supervisors in all three companies. Supervisors were given two weeks to complete each online survey. Direct reports in Companies A and B were invited to complete an online survey within two weeks. Following the suggestion of the contact person in Company C, paper-and-pencil surveys were administered to subordinates in this company. All of the online surveys were hosted by WebSurveyor. The total data collection process lasted for ten weeks. Data collection from the three companies was initiated within six weeks of each other.

Measures

Unless otherwise noted, all of the measures in this study were taken or adapted from reliable and previously validated scales. If not indicated otherwise, all items in this study were measured using a 5-point Likert scale with 1 representing strongly disagree (or rarely) and 5 representing strongly agree (or very often). Please refer to Appendices A and B for a complete list of scales and specific items for the two leader surveys and the follower survey respectively.

*Leaders' Emotional Labor***.** To measure leaders' surface and deep acting, I adapted a 7-item surface acting scale and a 4-item deep acting scale from Diefendorff et al. (2005) by changing the target of surface and deep acting given that the original scales were developed to assess service workers' surface and deep acting in service worker-customer encounters. For example, an original item of surface acting includes "I put on an act in order to deal with customers in an appropriate way". This item was then adapted as "I put on an act in order to deal with my direct reports in an appropriate way" to reflect the context of leader-follower interactions. The two original scales are widely used in the

service literature and have shown acceptable internal consistency (coefficient alpha) reliabilities in previous studies (e.g., $\alpha = .91$ for surface acting and .82 for deep acting; Diefendorff et al., 2005). The data in this study yielded coefficient alpha of .90 and .58 for surface and deep acting respectively. The coefficient alpha for deep acting is lower than the suggested cutoff value of .70 (Nunnally & Bernstain, 1994). However, empirical and theoretical research suggests that leaders deep act (e.g., Brotheridge & Grandey, 2003; Gardner et al., 2009; Humphrey et al., 2008). Further, the relatively low coefficient alpha would attenuate observed relationships concerning deep acting and thus lead to underestimated rather than overestimated relationships. Thus, I decided to include deep acting in the subsequent analyses.

Leaders' display of genuine emotions was measured using an updated scale of Diefendorff et al.'s (2005) 3-item measure. The original scale focuses on whether the emotions one shows are genuine (e.g., "the emotions I express are genuine"). However, as discussed above, one may choose to show one's genuine emotions at certain times and not others. The Diefendorff et al.'s (2005) scale does not ask about the extent to which the person regulates his or her expressions of genuine emotions.

To explicitly measure leaders' conscious effort of regulating the expression of their genuine emotions, I added five items to Diefendorff et al.'s (2005) 3-item scale following the process of developing and validating construct measures (e.g., Hinkin, 1998; Rich et al., 2010). I first searched the literature for scales that fit the definition of display of genuine emotions. The only measure available was the three-item scale in Diefendorff et al. (2005). Based on the definition of display of genuine emotions, one of my dissertation chairs developed ten items. Another chair and I chose five items from the

ten that we thought best reflected the meaning of the construct. The five items were "I purposely use my natural emotions to influence my subordinates", "I am careful about the genuine emotions I show my subordinates", "I let my subordinates know how I really feel when it seems constructive", "I am selective about the genuine emotions I show my subordinates", and "I show my subordinates my genuine emotions".

I first conducted exploratory factor analysis (EFA) of the eight items in the updated measure of display of genuine emotions using SPSS 19. Principal axis factor analysis and direct oblique rotation were employed to extract factors based on eigenvalues (Kaiser, 1974). Two factors were extracted. However, only the first factor's eigenvalue (3.22) was greater than 1 and accounted for 40% of the variance in the items. The second factor's eignvalue was .53 and accounted for 7% of the variance in the items. Six items including three newly developed items loaded on the first factor and did not substantially cross-load on the second factor. Two newly developed items (i.e., "I am selective about the genuine emotions I show my subordinates" and "I am careful about the genuine emotions I show my subordinates") highly loaded on the second factor with factor loadings of .83 and .57 respectively and did not cross-load on the first factor. Therefore, the two newly developed items were deleted. The internal consistency coefficient of the remaining six-item scale was .77.

In addition, to examine cross loadings of the three newly added items of display of genuine emotions on surface and deep acting and the factor structure of leaders' emotional labor, I conducted principal axis factor analysis with direct oblique rotation again based on the seven surface acting items, the four deep acting items, and the six

Table 3. Leaders' Emotional Labor Items and Factor Loadings

Items	Factor		
	1	2	3
I just pretend to have the emotions I need to display toward my direct reports (SA)	.89		
I put on a “show” or “performance” when interacting with my direct reports (SA)	.87		.16
I fake an appropriate mood when interacting with my direct reports (SA)	.83		
I fake the emotions I show when dealing with my direct reports (SA)	.76		
I put on a “mask” in order to display appropriate emotions toward my direct reports (SA)	.70		
I put on an act in order to deal with my direct reports in an appropriate way (SA)	.63		-.17
I show feelings to my direct reports that are different from what I feel inside (SA)	.45	.11	-.33
I try to actually experience the emotions that I must show to my direct reports (DA)		.62	.19
I make an effort to actually feel the emotions that I need to display toward my direct reports (DA)		.59	
I work at developing the feelings inside of me that I need to show to my direct reports (DA)	.19	.44	
I work hard to feel the emotions that I need to show to my direct reports (DA)		.43	-.26
I purposely use my natural emotions to influence my direct reports (GE)	-.12	.39	.19
The emotions I show my direct reports come naturally (GE)		-.13	.82
I show my direct reports my genuine emotions (GE)	-.24		.74
The emotions I show my direct reports match what I spontaneously feel (GE)	-.13		.69
The emotions I express to my direct reports are genuine (GE)	-.17		.51
I let my direct reports know how I really feel when it seems constructive (GE)			.43

Note: Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factor Analysis. Rotation Method: Oblique with Kaiser Normalization. Letters in parentheses after each item represent the specific form of emotional labor that the item was hypothesized to measure. SA = surface acting. DA = Deep acting. GE = Display of genuine emotions.

items of display of genuine emotions. Three factors had an eigenvalue greater than 1 after extraction and accounted for 49% of total variance in all items. As shown in Table 3, the pattern matrix of the three extracted factors demonstrates that all surface acting items highly loaded on the first factor. Only one item (i.e. "I show feelings to my direct reports that are different from what I feel inside") negatively cross loaded on the third factor (factor loading = -.33). All deep acting items loaded on the second factor with factor loadings ranging from .43 to .62 and did not substantially cross load on any other factors. Five of the six items of display of genuine emotions had high factor loadings on the third factor. The remaining item (i.e., "I purposely use my natural emotions to influence my subordinates") of display of genuine emotions had a low factor loading (.19) on the third but had a higher cross factor loading on the second factor (.39). Therefore, this item was deleted from the updated scale of display of genuine emotions. Based on the forgoing, two items (i.e., "I let my subordinates know how I really feel when it seems constructive" and "I show my subordinates my genuine emotions") were added to the existing scale of display of genuine emotions. The internal consistency reliability of the resulting 5-item scale of display of genuine emotions was .81, which was higher than that ($\alpha = .73$) of the original 3-item scale by Diefendorff and colleagues (2005). This updated measure of display of genuine emotions was used in all of the following analyses.

Emotional Exhaustion. Supervisors' emotional exhaustion was measured using a six-item scale from Wharton (1993). A sample item is, "I feel emotionally drained at work." Several studies used this scale to measure emotional exhaustion (e.g., Clark, 2007; Glomb & Tews, 2004; Goldberg & Grandey, 2007) and reported high internal

consistency reliabilities (e.g., α = .85; Glomb & Tews, 2004). Coefficient alpha for this sample was .89.

Job Satisfaction. Edwards and Rothbard's (1999) three-item scale was used to measure overall job satisfaction. This scale has been widely used and consistently shown acceptable reliabilities in previous studies (e.g., α = .85; Wang, Colbert, Bingham, & Choi, 2008). Coefficient alpha in this study was .96 and .88 for supervisor at Time 1 and Time 2 respectively, and .90 for direct reports.

Valence of Leader Expressed Emotion (leader positive / negative emotions). Followers reported the positive and negative valence of leaders' expressed emotion (or leader positive and negative emotions) with five positive emotions (i.e., happiness, enthusiasm, optimism, excitement, and interest) and five negative emotions (i.e., frustration, disappointment, anger, anxiety, and irritation) used in Bono et al. (2007). The internal consistency reliabilities of the scales formed by the positive and negative emotions were high in Bono et al. (2007) (α = .95, .90 respectively). Coefficient alpha in the current study was .89 for the positive valence scale and .85 for the negative valence scale.

Emotional engagement. Emotional engagement was measured with the 4-item scale from May et al. (2004). May and colleagues developed the scale based on Kahn's (1980) motivational approach to engagement. A sample item was "I get excited when I perform well on my job". This sample yielded a relatively low coefficient alpha of .56 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994), which may lead to underestimated relationships. Inter-item correlations reveal that one item (i.e., "My own feelings are affected by how well I perform my job") had a negative correlation with another item and small positive

correlations with the other two items. If this item were deleted from the scale, the remaining 3-item scale would have a coefficient alpha of .72. However, subsequent analyses reveal that emotional engagement measured with or without this item had practically the same relationships with other variables in this study. Given that using the same sample to modify a measure and test substantive hypotheses can capitalize on chance sampling variability and produce results that do not generalize (Campbell, 1976), I decided to use the May et al.'s (2004) original 4-item scale in subsequent analyses.

As shown in Table 1, Rich and colleagues (2010) recently developed another measure of emotional engagement based on Kahn's (1980) motivational conceptualization of engagement. A sample item includes "I am enthusiastic in my job". A review of the items in this scale suggests that this scale is more likely to measure one's positive affectivity instead of one's motivational state of the extent to which one is emotionally attached to one's work role. Specifically, four adjectives ("enthusiastic", "interested", "proud", and "excited") in the mostly widely used measure of positive affectivity by Watson, Clark, and Tellegen (1998) were employed in four items of the Rich et al.'s (2010) six-item scale. In fact, Rich et al. (2010) stated in their article, "we wrote items that refer to emotions that reflect both high pleasantness and high activation" (p.623). The potential pitfall with this scale is that emotional engagement would behave as an individual difference variable that could not be influenced by situational factors such as leaders' emotional labor. Given that the construct of emotional engagement is relatively new and that the Rich et al.'s (2004) scale was not validated in other studies, I included four items with the highest factor loading from the six-item scale of emotional engagement by Rich et al. (2010) in the survey due to survey length considerations. The

shortened scale had a high internal consistency reliability (α = .89). However, consistent with my above speculation, this scale had low discriminant validity with follower PA (r = .74) and was not significantly related to any form of leaders' emotional labor. Therefore, this measure of emotional engagement was not used in this study. The relative low correlation of the original May et al.'s (2004) 4-item scale with follower positive affectivity (r = .61) suggests that this scale was a better measure of follower motivation than the Rich et al.'s (2010) and thus was used in subsequent analyses in the current study.

Transformational Leadership. Perceptions of leaders' transformational leadership were assessed with the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ Form-5X; Bass & Avolio, 1995), which is the most widely used measure of transformational leadership (Wang et al., 2011). The MLQ measures idealized influence with an eight-item scale and the remaining three components (i.e., inspirational motivation, intellectual consideration, and individualized consideration) with four-item scales. A sample item for idealized influence includes "My supervisors instills pride in me for being associated with him/her"; A sample item for inspiration motivation is "My supervisor talks optimistically about the future". Prior studies using this measure have reported high internal consistency reliability and have shown support for a single higher order factor (e.g., Colbert, Kristof-Brown, Bradley, & Barrick, 2008; Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006; Wang et al., 2008). Confirmatory factor analysis based on this sample was conducted to determine whether the four components measure a higher order transformational leadership factor in the current study. The fit indices of the higher order factor model (χ^2 = 604.9, *df* = 166, *RMSEA* = .081, *SRMR* = .042, *CFI* = .98, *NNFI* = .98) provided justification for

combining the four components into a composite measure of transformational leadership (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Coefficient alpha in the current study was .95.

Emotional Reactions. Subordinates' positive and negative emotional reactions to their leader were measured with two scales adapted from the affective reaction scale in Van Kleef et al. (2009) and the measure of positive and negative emotions in Bono et al. (2007). Van Kleef et al. (2009) measured both positive and negative affect reactions but reverse-coded negative affective reactions. However, in this study, positive and negative affective reactions were treated as two separate variables. Thus, I selected two items that measure positive and negative emotional reactions respectively from Van Kleef et al. (2009)'s scale and adapted three positive and negative emotions in Bono et al. (2007) to measure followers' positive and negative emotional reactions to their leader respectively. For follower positive emotional reactions, a sample item taken from Van Kleef et al. (2009) is "My supervisor makes me feel enthusiastic" and an item adapted from Bono et al. (2007) includes "My supervisor makes me feel optimistic". For follower negative emotional reactions, a sample item taken from Van Kleef et al. (2009) is "My supervisor makes me feel angry" and a sample item adapted from Bono et al. (2007) is "My supervisor makes me feel anxious". The two scales in the current study had high coefficient alpha (α = .91 for positive emotional reactions and .94 for negative emotional reactions).

Organizational Identification. Mael and Ashforth's (1992) six-item organizational identification scale was used to assess employee's identification with the organization. A sample item is "when someone criticizes my company, it feels like a personal insult". This scale has been widely used and has consistently shown high reliabilities in previous

studies (e.g., Wiesenfeld, Raghuram, Garud, 2001). Coefficient alpha in this study was .87.

Task Performance. Supervisors assessed their direct reports' task performance using Turnley, Bolino, Lester, and Bloodgood's (2003) six-item scale (e.g., fulfills all the responsibilities specified in his/her job description). This scale has been widely used and has shown high reliabilities in previous studies (e.g., Tsai, Chen, & Liu, 2007). Coefficient alpha in this study was high ($\alpha = .95$).

Organizational Citizenship Behavior. Supervisors evaluated their subordinates' organizational citizenship behaviors directed toward other individuals (OCB-I) using four items of the six-item scale by Williams and Anderson's (1991) in order to keep survey length as short as possible. In addition, to reduce the length of the second online leader survey, a four-item scale measuring organizational citizenship behaviors directed toward the organization (OCB-O) by Welbourne, Johnson, and Erez (1998) was used. Sample items include "works for the overall good of the company" and "Helps so that the company is a good place to be". The two scales have been widely used in previous studies (e.g., Stamper & Van Dyne, 2001; Purvanova, Bono, & Dzieweczynski, 2006). Coefficient alpha in this study was .87 for OCB-I and .92 for OCB-O.

Control Variables. Given that one's affectivity may influence the extent to which one engages in emotional labor (Judge et al., 2009), supervisors' positive and negative affectivity were measured as control variables using PANA-X (Watson et al., 1998). Further, organizational emotional display culture (see Appendix A) and interactional characteristics (i.e., frequency, duration, and variety of interactions; see Appendix A) for leaders were also measured as control variables given that these factors may affect the

frequency with which leaders perform emotional labor. Leaders were asked to self report organizational emotional display culture with a four-item scale from Diefendorff, Gabriel , and Leung (2010). A sample item includes, "My company has unwritten norms for displaying emotions". A four-item scale from Diefendorff et al. (2005) was used to measure interactional characteristics for leaders. A sample item is "I interact with many different subordinates on a daily basis." Leaders' job satisfaction at Time 1 was measured as a control variable in that prior research has shown that job satisfaction might influence the extent to which one engages in emotional labor (Grandey, 2003). Supervisors' age, organizational tenure, supervisory tenure, gender (male = 1, female = 2), and education level were measured as control variables in that prior research has shown that these variables tend to correlate with the study variables and thus may confound results (Colbert & Witt, 2009). Similarly, direct reports' age, organizational tenure, relationship tenure with supervisor, gender (male = 1, female = 2), and education level were also measured as control variables. In addition, subordinates' PA and NA were measured as control variables with a shortened version of PANA-X (Watson et al., 1998).

Analyses

Hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) and Ordinary Least Square (OLS) hierarchical regression were used to test hypotheses of the study. HLM refers to a statistical method that allows researchers to examine the influences of higher-level constructs on lower-level constructs or relationships (Hofmann, 1997; Hofmann, Griffin, & Gavin, 2000; Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). HLM has been widely used in the management field in the last two decades (Zhang, Zyphur, & Preacher, 2009). HLM can be used to analyze the influence of a higher-level predictor on a lower-level criterion.

HLM can also be used to estimate same level or cross level moderating effects (Gavin & Hofmann, 2002; Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). In addition, HLM can also be applied to examine relationships within the lower level (level-1) by the use of the random-coefficient regression model, which is similar to ordinary regression analysis (Hofmann, 1997).

In the current study, followers were nested within leaders. Since leaders self-report the extent to which they use the three forms of emotional labor in general when interacting with followers and not with each follower separately, leader behavior can be considered a group level effect (Hofmann et al., 2000). Thus, HLM is an appropriate method to test hypotheses related to the role of leaders' emotional labor in followers' cognition (i.e., transformational leadership perceptions), motivation (e.g., emotional engagement), and affect (i.e., positive and negative emotional reactions) as well as the relationships of followers' motivation with followers' cognition and affect and the relationships of followers' cognition, motivation, and affect with followers' attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction, organizational identification) and performance (i.e., task performance, OCB-I, and OCB-O).

The precondition of using HLM is that there should be significant between-group variance for the dependent variables of interest. If this precondition were not met, OLS regression would be used to test relevant hypotheses at the individual (subordinate) level of analysis. In this case, I assigned scores of leader-level variables (e.g., emotional labor) to each of their direct reports.

Hypotheses 7 and 8 were about the relationships between leaders' emotional labor and leaders' emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction. Given that the two hypotheses

involve relationships at the higher level of analysis (level-2), HLM was inappropriate. Instead, OLS hierarchical regression analysis was performed to test these hypotheses. HLM 7 was used to conduct HLM analysis and SPSS 19 was used to conduct regression analysis. The outputs of HLM 7 and SPSS 19 provided hypothesis testing results.

CHAPTER V

RESULTS

This chapter begins with descriptive statistics and zero-order correlations, followed by hypothesis testing results, and additional analyses.

Descriptive Statistics and Zero-Order Correlations

Relationships among variables of primary interest at the same level of analysis. Table 4 summarizes the means, standard deviations, zero-order correlations and Cronbach alpha coefficients of leader-level variables based on responses from supervisors in the three participating organizations. The correlations among the variables of interest were in the expected direction. Surface acting was negatively correlated with job satisfaction measured at Time 2 ($r = -.35$, $p<.01$) and positively related to emotional exhaustion ($r = .23$, $p<.01$), providing preliminary support for Hypothesis 7a and 7b. Deep acting ($r = .16$) and display of genuine emotions ($r = .40$, $p<.01$) were positively correlated with job satisfaction at Time 2, providing preliminary support for Hypothesis 8. To be noted, the correlation between surface acting and display of genuine emotions was highly negative ($r = -.62$, $p<.01$), whereas deep acting was not correlated with surface acting ($r = .00$) or display of genuine emotions ($r = .04$). A relatively highly negative correlation between surface acting and display of genuine emotions ($r = -.48$) was also reported in the original study by Diefendorff and colleagues (2005).

Table 5 presents the means, standard deviations, zero-order correlations, and Cronbach alpha coefficients of follower-level variables based on responses from followers in the three participating organizations with the exception of followers' task

Table 4. Means, Standard Deviations, and Zero-Order Correlations of Leader-Level Variables

	Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.	Surface acting	(.90)					
2.	Deep acting	.00	(.58)				
3.	Display of genuine emotions	-.62**	.04	(.81)			
4.	Interaction characteristics	-.14	.02	.30**	(.64)		
5.	Emotional display culture	.28**	-.07	-.23**	-.31**	(.83)	
6.	Leader PA	-.40**	.19	.60**	.36**	-.23**	(.90)
7.	Leader NA	.39**	-.05	-.27**	-.06	.26**	-.39**
8.	Job satisfaction (T1)	-.40**	.12	.46**	.11	-.15	.61**
9.	Job satisfaction (T2)	-.35**	.16	.40**	.13	-.09	.56**
10.	Emotional exhaustion	.23**	-.09	-.33**	-.04	.21	-.47**
11.	Gender	.00	.06	.16	.23**	.06	.13
12.	Supervisory Tenure	.05	-.02	.02	.06	-.17	.17
13.	Education	.06	-.14	.09	-.01	.05	-.02
14.	Age	-.19	-.08	.21	-.04	-.10	.13
	Mean	1.67	2.94	4.04	3.88	2.98	4.07
	Standard deviation	.68	.77	.66	.70	.86	.62

Table 4. Continued

	Variable	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
7.	Leader NA	(.83)							
8.	Job satisfaction (T1)	-.48**	(.96)						
9.	Job satisfaction (T2)	-.47**	.76**	(.88)					
10.	Emotional exhaustion	.59**	-.66**	-.66**	(.89)				
11.	Gender	-.11	.11	.03	.02				
12.	Supervisory Tenure	-.08	.11	.10	-.22	-.12			
13.	Education	.02	-.05	.04	.02	-.14	-.16		
14.	Age	-.15	.27	.09	-.26**	-.02	.45**	-.18	
	Mean	1.63	4.16	3.89	2.46	1.48	4.95	2.94	3.63
	Standard deviation	.48	.88	.80	.85	.50	1.25	1.17	1.13

Note: Listwise N = 99. Cronbach alpha coefficients are on the diagonal in parentheses. T1 = time 1. T2 = time 2. Gender was dummy coded as follows: Male = 1; Female = 2.

*p<.05. **p<.01

performance, OCB-I, and OCB-O, which were assessed by leaders. The variables were correlated with each other as expected with the exception of negative emotional reactions which were negatively rather than positively related to task performance. Transformational leadership and positive emotional reactions were positively correlated with emotional engagement, job satisfaction, organizational identification, task performance, OCB-I, and OCB-O. Negative emotional reactions were negatively correlated with emotional engagement, job satisfaction, organizational identification, task performance, OCB-I, and OCB-O. Emotional engagement was positively correlated with job satisfaction, organizational identification, task performance, OCB-I, and OCB-O. The above correlations provide preliminary support for Hypotheses 4, 5a, 5b, 6a, and 6b with the exception that negative emotional reactions were hypothesized to be positively related to task performance.

Relationships between control variables and variables of primary interest at the same level of analysis. As shown in Table 4, emotional display culture, leader PA, NA, and job satisfaction (Time 1) were significantly correlated with surface acting (r = .28, -40, .39, -.41, p<.01). Age, education level, and supervisory tenure were correlated with surface acting to a lesser extent (r = -.19, .06, .05). Gender and organizational tenure were uncorrelated with surface acting (r = .00, -00). Interactional characteristics, emotional display culture, leader PA, NA, job satisfaction (Time 1), and age were significantly correlated with display of genuine emotions (r = .30, -.23, 60, -.27, 46, .21, p<.01). Gender, education level, and supervisory tenure were correlated with display of genuine emotions to a less extent (r = .16, 09, .02). Organizational tenure was uncorrelated with display of genuine emotions (r = .00). Although none of the control variables were

statistically correlated with deep acting, they were correlated with deep acting to some extent (r = .19, -.14, .12, -.08, -.07, 06, -.05, -.05, .02. -.02, for PA, education level, job satisfaction at Time 1, age, emotional display culture, gender, NA, organizational tenure, emotional display culture, and supervisory tenure respectively). Given its negligible and zero correlations with the three forms of leaders' emotional labor, leaders' organizational tenure was not included in the test of study hypotheses.

The lower section of Table 5 shows correlations between follower control variables and variables of primary interest. Follower PA and NA were significantly correlated with all study variables of primary interest at the follower-level of analysis (i.e., transformational leadership, emotional engagement, positive emotional reactions, negative emotional reactions, job satisfaction, organizational identification, task performance, OCB-I, and OCB-O). Follower education level, organizational tenure, tenure with supervisor, age, and gender were correlated with the above follower-level variables of primary interest and thus were included in the test of relevant hypotheses.

Table 6 presents the means and standard deviations of leader- and follower- levels of variables in each of the three participating companies. The first fifteen variables in Table 6 are at the leader-level of analysis and were self-reported by leaders. Independent t-tests show that leaders in companies A and B significantly differ in terms of surface acting (t_{42} = 2.86, p<.01), display of genuine emotions (t_{42} = -4.85, p<.01), interaction characteristics (t_{42} = -2.63, p<.05), organizational display culture (t_{42} = 2.63, p<.05), PA (t_{42} = -6.11, p<.01), NA (t_{42} = 3.06, p<.01), job satisfaction at Time 1 (t_{42} = -4.16, p<.01), job satisfaction at Time 2 (t_{42} = -3.10, p<.01), emotional exhaustion (t_{42} = 3.38, p<.01), and age (t_{42} = -1.77, p<.10). Similarly, independent t-tests indicate that leaders in

companies B and C significantly differ in terms of surface acting (t_{90} = -3.39, p<.01), display of genuine emotions (t_{90} = 4.26, p<.01), interaction characteristics (t_{90} = 3.32, p<.01), organizational display culture (t_{90} = -2.43, p<.05), PA (t_{90} = 4.13, p<.01), NA (t_{90} = -3.57, p<.01), job satisfaction at Time 1 (t_{90} = 3.85, p<.01), job satisfaction at Time 2 (t_{90} = 2.87, p<.01), and emotional exhaustion (t_{90} = 3.50, p<.01). Independent t-tests show that leaders in companies A and C significantly differ in terms of education level (t_{98} = 3.08, p<.01), deep acting (t_{98} = -2.10, p<.05), and supervisory tenure (t_{98} = -1.97, p<.10).

For follower-level variables (variable No.16 to No.33 in Table 6), results of independent t-tests show that followers in companies A and B significantly differ in terms of leader positive emotions (t_{205} = -4.51, p<.01), transformational leadership (t_{205} = -4.60, p<.01), positive emotional reactions (t_{205} = -5.77, p<.01), negative emotional reactions (t_{205} = 3.35, p<.01), emotional engagement (t_{205} = 5.85, p<.01), job satisfaction (t_{205} = 5.76, p<.01), organizational identification (t_{205} = -5.34, p<.01), task performance (t_{158} = -5.01, p<.01), OCB-I (t_{158} = -4.24, p<.01), OCB-O (t_{158} = -5.79, p<.01), PA (t_{205} = -6.23, p<.01), age (t_{205} = 3.41, p<.01), gender (t_{205} = 3.55, p<.01), education level (t_{205} = 1.99, p<.05), organizational tenure(t_{205} = -1.90, p<.10), and tenure with supervisor(t_{205} = 1.83, p<.10). Results of independent t-tests also show that followers in companies B and C significantly differ in terms of leader positive emotions (t_{254} = 4.26, p<.01), leader negative emotions (t_{254} = 3.26, p<.01), transformational leadership (t_{254} = 4.42, p<.01), positive emotional reactions (t_{254} = 4.20, p<.01), negative emotional reactions (t_{254} = 4.70, p<.01), emotional engagement (t_{254} = 6.51, p<.01), job satisfaction (t_{254} = 5.68, p<.01), organizational identification (t_{254} = 6.70, p<.01), task performance (t_{198} = 5.41, p<.01), OCB-I (t_{198} = 4.53, p<.01), OCB-O (t_{198} = 5.43, p<.01), PA (t_{254} = 4.76, p<.01),

Table 5. Means, Standard Deviations, and Zero-Order Correlations of Follower-Level Variables

	Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.	Leader positive emotions	3.81	.88	(.89)					
2.	Leader negative emotions	1.89	.80	-.35**	(.85)				
3.	Transformational leadership	3.73	.69	.69**	-.43**	(.95)			
4.	Positive emotional reactions	3.67	.83	.69**	-.39**	.84**	(.91)		
5.	Negative emotional reactions	2.08	.97	-.58**	.51**	-.71**	-.71**	(.94)	
6.	Emotional engagement	4.08	.77	.32**	-.20**	.43**	.47**	-.33**	(.56)
7.	Job satisfaction	3.94	.79	.39**	-.20**	.54**	.59**	-.49**	.57**
8.	Organizational identification	3.84	.77	.29**	-.23**	.45**	.48**	-.38**	.56**
9.	Task performance	4.11	.56	.22**	-.11	.24**	.22**	-.22**	.19**
10.	OCB-I	3.92	.70	.25**	-.07	.28**	.27**	-.25**	.26**
11.	OCB-O	3.99	.75	.31**	-.08	.37**	.36**	-.30**	.31**
12.	Follower PA	3.78	.81	.51**	-.23**	.55**	.63**	-.45**	.61**
13.	Follower NA	1.73	.69	-.23**	.41**	-.33**	-.35**	.51**	-.18**
14.	Age	3.13	1.29	-.03	.03	-.04	-.01	.02	.11*
15.	Gender	1.52	.51	.04	.02	-.02	.01	.07	.05
16.	Organizational Tenure	3.79	1.42	-.01	.06	.05	.03	.00	.14**
17.	Tenure with supervisor	2.95	1.09	-.06	.15**	-.05	-.05	.12*	.06
18.	Education	2.57	1.28	.06	-.15**	.07	.01	-.13*	.02

Table 5. Continued

	Variable	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
7.	Job satisfaction	(.90)						
8.	Organizational identification	.64**	(.87)					
9.	Task performance	.21**	.19**	(.95)				
10.	OCB-I	.26**	.27**	.57**	(.87)			
11.	OCB-O	.32**	.34**	.66**	.84**	(.92)		
12.	Follower PA	.68**	.64**	.22**	.26*	.35*	(.88)	
13.	Follower NA	-.33**	-.27**	-.16**	-.07	-.12*	-.27**	(.80)
14.	Age	.08	.13**	.11	-.03	.00	.07	-.05
15.	Gender	.01	-.05	-.04	-.03	-.08	-.02	.03
16.	Organizational Tenure	.08	.14**	.15*	.08	.07	.11*	-.01
17.	Tenure with supervisor	-.03	-.02	.03	-.01	.00	-.01	.02
18.	Education	-.06	.02	.09	.09	.12	.04	-.04

Table 5. Continued

	Variable	14	15	16	17
14.	Age				
15.	Gender	-.02			
16.	Organizational Tenure	.44**	-.08		
17.	Tenure with supervisor	.27**	.10	.60**	
18.	Education	-.13*	-.13*	-.08	-.16**

Note: Listwise N = 258 for correlations involved task performance, OCB-I, and OCB-O. Listwise N = 398 for all other correlations. Cronbach alpha coefficients are on the diagonal in parentheses.

*p<.05. **p<.01

Table 6. Means and Standard Deviations of Leader- and Follower- Levels of Variables in Each of the Three Participating Companies

	Variable	Company A			Company B			Company C		
		N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
1.	Surface acting	26	1.57	.51	18	1.20	.26	74	1.84	.79
2.	Deep acting	26	2.69	.81	18	2.96	.82	74	3.06	.75
3.	Display of genuine emotions	26	4.00	.42	18	4.63	.43	74	3.84	.76
4.	Interaction characteristics	26	3.80	.64	18	4.29	.57	73	3.72	.67
5.	Emotional display culture	26	3.26	.86	18	2.53	.97	73	3.04	.75
6.	Leader PA	26	3.85	.49	18	4.63	.29	73	4.01	.62
7.	Leader NA	26	1.67	.48	18	1.30	.23	73	1.75	.52
8.	Leader job satisfaction (T1)	26	4.01	.80	18	4.85	.35	73	4.04	.88
9.	Leader job satisfaction (T2)	26	3.77	.67	17	4.43	.70	57	3.80	.82
10.	Emotional exhaustion	26	2.69	.92	17	1.82	.65	57	2.54	.78
11.	Leader gender	26	1.46	.51	18	1.39	.50	73	1.56	.50
12.	Supervisory Tenure	26	4.62	1.33	18	4.83	1.15	73	5.14	1.18
13.	Leader education	26	3.46	1.24	18	2.83	1.20	73	2.64	1.13
14.	Leader age	26	3.38	1.20	18	4.00	1.03	74	4.43	1.22
15.	Leader organizational Tenure	26	4.31	1.09	18	4.28	1.32	73	4.10	1.35
16.	Leader positive emotions	98	3.66	.86	109	4.17	.76	147	3.73	.87
17.	Leader negative emotions	98	1.79	.71	109	1.67	.65	147	1.98	.81
18.	Transformational leadership	98	3.63	.59	109	4.02	.63	147	3.66	.66
19.	Positive emotional reactions	98	3.42	.78	109	4.04	.76	147	3.63	.79
20.	Negative emotional reactions	98	2.10	.93	109	1.71	.77	147	2.26	1.04

Table 6. Continued

	Variable	Company A			Company B			Company C		
		N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
21.	Emotional engagement	98	3.77	.67	109	4.25	.50	147	3.77	.64
22.	Job satisfaction	98	3.77	.74	109	4.33	.66	147	3.78	.83
23.	Organizational identification	98	3.77	.67	109	4.23	.57	147	3.61	.84
24.	Task performance	76	4.01	.44	84	4.39	.52	276	4.09	.59
25.	OCB-I	76	3.83	.56	84	4.22	.61	276	3.91	.71
26.	OCB-O	76	3.88	.47	84	4.37	.57	276	3.98	.76
27.	Follower PA	98	3.56	.65	109	4.15	.70	147	3.67	.85
28.	Follower NA	98	1.72	.63	109	1.64	.52	147	1.77	.77
29.	Follower age	98	2.89	1.30	109	3.47	1.15	147	3.06	1.33
30.	Follower gender	98	1.51	.50	109	1.28	.45	147	1.66	.49
31.	Follower organizational Tenure	98	3.94	1.47	109	4.32	1.43	147	3.43	1.36
32.	Tenure with supervisor	98	3.07	1.16	109	2.79	1.06	147	2.97	1.10
33.	Follower education	98	3.21	1.14	109	2.88	1.26	147	2.16	1.21

Note: The first fifteen variables are at the leader-level of analysis and are based on leaders' self-reports. The remaining variables are at the follower-level of analysis and are based on followers' self-reports with the exception of task performance, OCB-I, and OCB-O, which were assessed by leaders. SD = standard deviation.

organizational tenure (t_{254} = -6.44, p<.01), and tenure with supervisor(t_{254} = 5.08, p<.01), education level (t_{254} = 4.62, p<.01), and age (t_{254} = 2.56, p<.05). Finally, results of independent t-tests show that followers in companies A and C significantly differ on positive emotional reactions (t_{243} = -2.03, p<.05), leader negative emotions (t_{243} = -1.83, p<.10), education level (t_{243} = 6.83, p<.01), and organizational tenure (t_{243} = 2.78, p<.01).

Tests of Hypotheses

The first two hypotheses of this study were built on the assumption that leaders use emotional labor to express emotions pertinent to a given context or situation. Although the study was not designed to measure leaders' spontaneous emotional labor and the situation under which a certain form of emotional labor was performed and appropriate emotions are contingent on situations, positive emotions ought to be deemed appropriate in most social interactions (Goffman, 1992). Thus, one way to examine the assumption is to test whether leaders express positive emotions more frequently than negative ones. In this study, followers were asked to report the frequency with which their leaders expressed positive and negative emotions. The means and standard deviations of leaders' expressed positive (Mean = 3.81, SD = .88) and negative (Means = 1.89, SD = .80) emotions were reported in Table 5. Dependent T-test result ($t_{428} = 28.67$, $p<.01$) shows that leaders express positive emotions significantly more frequently than negative emotions. Thus, the assumption of this study was supported. In the following section, I am going to present hypothesis testing results.

As discussed in the Method section, HLM was an appropriate method to examine the influence of leaders' emotional labor on follower outcomes (e.g., transformational leadership perceptions, emotional engagement, and emotional reactions) given that followers were nested within leaders in this study. A requirement of using HLM is that there should be significant between-group variance in each of the individual level dependent variables of interest for a group level variable to explain. In addition, data for this study were collected from three different organizations. Organizational level factors (e.g., formalization, organizational culture) might also account for between-group

variance for dependent variables of interest. Thus, as a first step, I examined whether participants' organizational membership significantly explained between-group (leader) variance of level-1 outcome variables. Two dummy variables were created with Company C as the base category in that the largest sample came from this company.

To investigate organizational effects, I tested a simple HLM model with the two dummy variables as level-2 covariates using HLM 7 for every level-1 dependent variable. This HLM model provided estimates of within- and between- group variance, which was equivalent to a one-way ANOVA with random effects for level-1 outcomes of interest after controlling for organizational membership represented by the two dummy variables. The results are reported in Table 7. There were significant organizational effects for all of the level-1 variables as at least one of the dummy variables had a significant effect. However, the between-group variances (see random effect τ_{00}) for transformational leadership, positive emotional reactions, negative emotional reactions, task performance, OCB-I and OCB-O were statistically different from zero after organizational membership was controlled for. The ICC(1) statistic represents the proportion of between-group variance in total variance (Bliese, 2000). In other words, the ICC(1) statistic could be interpreted as the percentage of variance in individual responses that is accounted for by group membership. Specifically, the ICC(1) values in Table 7 show that followers' group membership accounted for 16% of the variance in transformational leadership perceptions, 15% of the variance in positive emotional reactions, 17% of the variance in negative emotional reactions, 35% of the variance in task performance, 25% of the variance in OCB-I, and 36% of the variance in OCB-O, after differences due to organizational membership were accounted for. The above results provide justifications

Table 7. Hierarchical Linear Modeling Results of Testing Organizational Effects on Level-1 Outcome Variables

Level and variable	Transformational leadership	Emotional engagement	Positive emotional reactions	Negative emotional reactions
Fixed effect				
Level 1				
Intercept, γ_{00}	3.73**	4.05**	3.66**	2.09**
Level 2				
V, γ_{01}	.38**	.35**	.44**	-.59**
M, γ_{02}	-.05	-.30**	-.22†	-.16
Random effect				
τ_{00}	.06534**	.00061	.09349**	.15258**
σ^2	.33750	.53911	.51878	.72807
ICC(1)	16%	0%	15%	17%

Table 7. Continued

Level and Variable	Job satisfaction	Organizational identification	Task performance	OCB-I	OCB-O
Fixed effect					
Level 1					
Intercept, γ_{00}	3.89**	3.79**	4.07**	3.94**	4.00**
Level 2					
V, γ_{01}	.55**	.60**	.42**	.42**	.57**
M, γ_{02}	-.02	.16	.04	-.01	.07
Random effect					
τ_{00}	.00089	.01838	.09962**	.10725**	.16986**
σ^2	.57118	.49472	.18515	.32956	.29707
ICC(1)	0%	4%	35%	25%	36%

Note: N = 354 (level 1) and 86 (level 2). HLM coefficients are estimations of the fixed effects with robust standard errors. V and M are dummy variables with the third organization as the base category. ICC(1) = Intraclass correlation

*p<.05. **p<.01

for using HLM to test hypotheses related to these outcome variables by pooling groups from the three organizations.

However, the between-group variance (see τ_{00} in Table 7) for emotional engagement, job satisfaction and organizational identification were not statistically different from zero, suggesting that groups did not significantly differ in terms of emotional engagement, job satisfaction, and organizational identification after organizational membership was controlled for. Therefore, for hypotheses related to these outcome variables, HLM was inappropriate and OLS regression was used (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002).

Table 8 summarizes HLM results of testing Hypotheses 1a, 1b, and 1c, which stated that leaders' surface acting would be negatively related to followers' transformational leadership perceptions, whereas leaders' deep acting and display of genuine emotions would be positively related to followers' transformational leadership perceptions. To rigorously test the main effect of leaders' emotional labor, leaders' organizational membership, interactional characteristics, emotional display culture, PA, NA, gender, supervisory tenure, education level, age, and job satisfaction at Time 1 as well as followers' PA, NA, gender, age, organizational tenure, relationship tenure with supervisor, and education level were controlled for in Model 1. As mentioned above, previous research has shown that one's PA, NA, gender, education level, and age correlated with one's surface and deep acting behavior (e.g., Grandey, 2000; Judge et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2011). Although prior research has not studied the relationships between leaders' emotional labor and leaders' supervisory tenure, it is reasonable to argue that leaders with longer supervisory tenure might be good at performing emotional

labor through practice (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). In addition, interactional characteristics (e.g., Diefendorff et al., 2005), emotional display culture (e.g., Diefendorff, Erickson, Grandey, Dahling, 2011), and job satisfaction (e.g., Grandey, 2003) were found to be significantly associated with emotional labor. Thus, the above leader variables were controlled for. HLM results in Table 8 (Model 1) show that leader education level and organizational membership in Company B were significantly related to followers' transformational leadership perceptions. Further, the variance of the random intercept was still significant ($\tau_{00} = .02544$, $p<.01$) after controlling for the leader variables, suggesting that there was between-group variance in followers' transformational leadership perceptions that could be explained by leaders' emotional labor.

The reason for controlling for the follower individual differences and demographics is that prior research suggests that they may correlate with follower transformational leadership perceptions (e.g., Kirkman, Chen, Farh, Chen, & Lowe, 2009; Walumbwa & Lawler, 2003). For instance, followers high on PA may have a positive view of their supervisors and thus may give higher ratings of their supervisors' transformational leadership behavior than followers low on PA (Bower, 1981). Older and well-educated employees may have more human capital and thus may attribute less importance to the role played by their supervisors than younger employees and those who received less education (Kerr & Jermier, 1978). Employees who had a long organizational tenure and relationship tenure with supervisor were likely to be satisfied with their supervisor and organization and thus might give high ratings of their supervisors' transformational leadership behavior. Females might be more attentive to their supervisors' behavior and might give more accurate ratings of their supervisor's

Table 8. Hierarchical Linear Modeling Results: Relationships of Leaders' Emotional Labor with Followers' Transformational Leadership Perceptions

Level and variable	Transformational leadership	
	Model 1	Model 2
Level 1		
Intercept	3.75**	3.75**
Follower PA	.40**	.41**
Follower NA	-.11*	-.10*
Follower gender	.09	.07
Follower age	-.02	-.02
Follower organizational tenure	-.01	-.01
Follower relationship tenure with supervisor	.01	.01
Follower education level	.01	.00
Level 2		
V	.22**	.08
M	.05	-.07
Interactional characteristics	-.04	-.02
Emotional display culture	.01	.02
Leader job satisfaction (T1)	.04	.02
Leader PA	.01	-.05
Leader NA	.08	.05
Leader gender	-.04	-.00
Leader age	-.02	-.03
Supervisory tenure	-.02	-.02
Leader education level	-.07**	-.06**
Surface acting		-.14*
Deep acting		-.01
Display of genuine emotions		.05
n(level 1)	354	354
n(level 2)	86	86

Note: All level-1 variables were grand-mean centered. HLM coefficients are estimations of the fixed effects γs, with robust standard errors. V and M are two dummy variables with Company C as the base organization.

† p<.10. *p<.05. **p<.01.

transformational leadership behavior than males. HLM results in Table 8 (Model 1) show that only follower PA and NA were significantly related to follower transformational leadership perceptions. To be noted, I did not control for leader positive or negative emotions because the two variables reflect true variance in transformational leadership rather than error variance. Several studies (e.g., Bono & Ilies, 2006; Bono et al., 2007; Erez et al., 2008) have shown that transformational/charismatic leaders display more positive emotions and fewer negative emotions than non-transformational/charismatic leaders. If these two variables were controlled for, true variance in transformational leadership would have been inadvertently partialled out. Thus, the two variables were not controlled for (Becker, 2005). To reduce multicollinearity between level-2 intercept and slope estimates, all level-1 variables were grand-mean centered (Hofmann & Gavin, 1998; Raudenbush, 1989) in HLM models.

Hypotheses 1a, 1b, and 1c were tested by entering the three forms of leaders' emotional labor in Model 2 (see column 3, Table 8), which included all of the control variables in Model 1. Supporting Hypothesis 1a, the fixed effect coefficient ($\gamma = -.14$, $p<.01$) in Model 2 of Table 8 indicates that leaders' surface acting had a significant negative association with followers' transformational leadership perceptions after controlling for leaders' organizational membership, interactional characteristics, emotional display culture perceptions, PA, NA, gender, supervisory tenure, age, and education level as well as followers' PA, NA, gender, age, organizational tenure, relationship tenure with supervisor, and education level. Contrary to Hypotheses 1b and

1c, leaders' deep acting and display of genuine emotions were not significantly associated with followers' transformational leadership perceptions.

Hypothesis 2a stated that leaders' surface acting would be negatively related to followers' emotional engagement, whereas Hypotheses 2b and 2c predicted that leaders' deep acting and display of genuine emotions would be positively related to followers' emotional engagement. As mentioned above, OLS regression was used to examine the relationships between leaders' emotional labor and followers' emotional engagement given that there wasn't significant between-group variance after organizational membership was controlled for. Level-2 data were disaggregated to the level-1 level of analysis. The three hypotheses were tested by first entering control variables and then the three forms of leaders' emotional labor. As explained above, leader organizational membership, interactional characteristics, emotional display culture, PA, NA, job satisfaction at Time 1, supervisory tenure, age, and education level were controlled for given that these variables might affect or correlate with leaders' emotional labor.

In addition, follower PA and NA were also controlled for in that followers high on PA were likely to frequently experience positive emotions and thus might have substantial emotional resources to invest in their work roles, whereas followers high on NA were likely to frequently experience negative emotions and thus might have little emotional resources to invest in their work roles. Age and education level may reflect employees' level of human capital (Becker, 1964). Elder employees and employees with high level education might have substantial human capital that could be invested in their work roles. Employees with long organizational tenure were likely to have high trust in their organization and thus experience high levels of psychological safety, which

Table 9. Regression Results: Relationships of Leaders' Emotional Labor with Followers' Emotional Engagement

Variable	Emotional engagement	
	Model 1	Model 2
Step 1		
Controls of follower variables		
Leader positive emotions	-.02	-.03
Leader negative emotions	-.04	-.04
Follower PA	.56**	.57**
Follower NA	.01	.01
Follower gender	.12**	.10*
Follower age	.00	.00
Follower organizational tenure	.03	-.03
Follower education level	-.02	-.03
Controls of leader variables		
V	.23**	.18*
M	.06	.07
Interactional characteristics	-.09	-.10†
Emotional display culture	.01	-.01
Leader PA	.01	-.06
Leader NA	.04	.02
Leader job satisfaction (Time 1)	.09	.09
Leader gender	.02	-.01
Leader age	.03	.04
Supervisory tenure	.02	.02
Leader education	.03	.02
ΔR2	.53**	.53**
Step 2		
Surface acting		.08
Deep acting		.09†
Display of genuine emotions		.12†
ΔR2		.01

Note: N = 354.Regression coefficients are standardized beta. V and M are two dummy variables with Company C as the base organization.

† p<.10. *p<.05. **p<.01.

was proposed as an antecedent of job engagement (Kahn, 1990). Prior research on engagement found that women were depleted by their work roles, whereas men were enriched by their work roles (Rothbard, 2001). The findings suggest that women might have fewer emotional resources to invest in their work roles than men. Thus, followers' gender was also controlled for. Further, to be rigorous, leader positive and negative emotions were also controlled for given that leaders' emotions might be spread to followers (Hatfield et al., 1994) and thus influence followers' emotional resources to be invested in their work roles.

Regression results in Table 9 (see Model 1) suggest that among the above control variables, only follower PA ($\beta = .56$, $p<.01$), gender ($\beta = .12$, $p<.05$), and organizational membership in Company B ($\beta = .23$, $p<.01$) were significantly related to follower emotional engagement. Hypotheses 2a, 2b, and 2c were tested when leaders' surface acting, deep acting, and display of genuine emotions were included in Model 2. As shown in Table 9 (Model 2), leaders' surface acting was not significantly related to followers' emotional engagement after controlling for the leader and follower control variables and the other two forms of leaders' emotional labor. Thus, Hypothesis 2a was not supported. Consistent with Hypotheses 2b and 2c, both leaders' deep acting ($\beta = .09$, $p<.10$) and display of genuine emotions ($\beta = .12$, $p<.10$) were marginally significantly related to followers' emotional engagement when the influences of control variables and other forms of leaders' emotional labor were partialled out. Therefore, *Hypotheses 2b and 2c were supported.*

Hypotheses 3a, 3b and 3c suggested that the positive and negative valence of leaders' expressed emotions might moderate the relationships between the three forms of

leaders' emotional labor and followers' positive and negative emotional reactions. This theoretical formulation specifies that the valence of leader's expressed emotions is at level 2, the leader level of analysis. Since the positive and negative valence of leaders' expressed emotions were measured at level-1 (direct reports reported the frequency with which their supervisors expressed five positive emotions and five negative emotions), they needed to be aggregated to the leader level (level-2) of analysis. Before aggregating the two variables, I examined whether there was within-group agreement that supported aggregation (Bliese, 2000). According to Bliese (2000), $r_{wg(j)}$ and ICC(2) provide complementary information and should be considered jointly. $r_{wg(j)}$ reflects agreement within groups (James, Demaree, & Wolf, 1984, 1993). It is computed by comparing observed variance with an expected null random variance for each group. The traditional uniform or rectangular null distribution of responses to each option of survey items has been criticized as unrealistic in organizational research and researcher were advised to compute $r_{wg(j)}$ values using alternative distributions such as triangular or skewed distributions in addition to the uniform distribution (LeBreton & Senter, 2007). In this study, I computed $r_{wg(j)}$ values based upon the assumption of a slightly skewed, triangular, and uniform distribution. The average $r_{wg(j)}$ values for mean leader positive emotions (MLPE) were .59 (slighted skewed distribution), .59 (triangular distribution), and .77 (uniform or rectangular distribution). The average $r_{wg(j)}$ values for mean leader negative emotions (MLNE) was .67 (slighted skewed distribution), .67 (triangular distribution), and .77 (uniform or rectangular distribution). LeBreton and Senter (2007) suggest that $r_{wg(j)}$ values above .51 indicate moderate agreement and those above .71 indicate strong agreement. Thus, the $r_{wg(j)}$ values for MLPE and MLNE suggest that there was within-

group agreement among followers regarding the mean level of positive and negative emotions that leaders expressed.

It is also necessary to examine ICC(2) before a data aggregation decision is made (Bliese, 2000; LeBreton & Senter, 2007). The ICC(2) statistic is an estimate of the reliability of the group mean. It reflects the extent to which a group member's response is representative of the group. It is computed based on data from all groups and is a function of ICC(1) and group size (Bliese, 2000). The ICC(2) values for MLPE and MLNE were .53 and .35 respectively. Although the ICC(2) values were on the low side, they were comparable to the median ICC(2) values in the organizational research literatures (Bliese, 2000; Hofman & Jones, 2005; Liao et al., 2007) and were attenuated by the relatively small average group size (N = 4). I acknowledge that the relatively low ICC(2) values could attenuate the relationships of the two variables with other variables in the study and thus might result in underestimated relationships of interest. Overall, the above results provided support for aggregating leader positive and negative emotions to the group (leader) level of analysis.

Table 10 reports results of testing the moderating effect of MLPE on the relationships between the three forms of leaders' emotional labor and followers' positive emotional reactions. The moderating effect of MLPE was tested by entering control variables in Model 1, the main effects of MLPE, surface acting, deep acting, and display of genuine emotions in Model 2, and the interaction terms in Model 3. Following the recommendation of Aguinis (2004), I added all two-way interaction terms in Model 3 to rule out the possibility of spurious effect (Chi, Grandey, Diamond, & Krimmel, 2011,

April 11). It should be noted that the significance level of the interaction terms did not change if they were entered separately in the model. As shown in column 2, Table 10 (Model 1), leader organizational membership, interactional characteristics, emotional display culture, job satisfaction at Time 1, PA, NA, gender, supervisory tenure, education level, and age were controlled for given that these variables may correlate or influence leaders' emotional labor.

Follower PA was controlled for because followers high on PA were likely to experience positive emotions themselves and thus have positive emotional reactions to their leader. Followers' NA was not controlled for in that it had a theoretically distant relationship. Among follower demographics, only followers' relationship tenure was controlled for because it had a relatively large correlation with follower positive emotional reactions ($r = -.05$). In addition, individual-level leader positive emotions were controlled in that the focus of the study was on the role of MLPE and thus the potential influence of individual-level leader positive emotions on follower positive emotional reactions should be ruled out (Hoffman & Gavin, 1998). Becker (2005) suggests that including impotent control variables (i.e., variables uncorrelated with dependent variable) might increase Type II error rate and reduce power. Thus, follower age, gender and education level were not controlled for given their negligible correlations with follower positive emotional reactions (r ranges from .01 to .03). It should be noted that the results remained basically the same with these demographics being controlled for.

HLM regression coefficients in Table 10 (Model 1) show that among the control variables, level-1 leader positive emotions ($\gamma = .49$, $p<.01$) and follower PA ($\gamma = .39$, $p<.01$) and level-2 leader organizational membership in Company A ($\gamma = -.12$, $p<.10$)

Table 10. Hierarchical Linear Modeling Results: Moderating Effects of the Positive Valence of Leaders' Expressed Emotions on the Relationships between Leaders' Emotional Labor and Followers' Positive Emotional Reactions

Level and variable	Positive emotional reactions		
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Level 1			
Intercept	3.70**	3.70**	3.71**
Leader positive emotions	.49**	.43**	.44**
Follower PA	.39**	.39**	.38**
Follower relationship tenure with supervisor	-.00	.00	.00
Level 2			
V	.04	-.05	-.10
M	-.12†	-.15*	-.13†
Interactional characteristics	-.03	-.04	-.05
Emotional display culture	.04	.03	.01
Leader job satisfaction (T1)	.03	.02	.03
Leader PA	.02	.03	.04
Leader NA	.08	.10†	.11*
Leader gender	-.06	-.06	-.08
Leader age	-.00	.01	.01
Supervisory tenure	-.03	-.03	-.03
Leader education	-.01	.00	.00
Surface acting (SA)		-.11*	-.28
Deep acting (DA)		.04	.39
Display of genuine emotions (GE)		-.05	-.62†
Mean leader positive emotions (MLPE)		.16*	-.28
SA*MLPE			.05
DA*MLPE			-.09
GE*MLPE			.15†
n(level 1)	354	354	354
n(level 2)	86	86	86

Note: All level-1 variables were grand-mean centered. HLM coefficients are estimations of the fixed effects γs, with robust standard errors. V and M are two dummy variables with Company C as the base organization.

† p<.10. *p<.05. **p<.01.

were significantly related to followers' positive emotional reactions. When the main effect variables were entered in Model 2, HLM regression coefficients demonstrate that leaders' surface acting (γ = -.11, p<.05) and MLPE (γ = .16, p<.05) were significantly associated with followers' positive emotional reactions. When the interaction terms were entered in Model 3, the results show that only the interaction term between display of genuine emotions and MLPE (γ = .15, p<.10) had a marginally significant relationship with follower positive emotional reactions. Following Preacher, Curran, and Bauer's (2006) procedures of probing interactions in multilevel modeling, I plotted the interaction under high (1 SD above the mean) and low (1 SD below the mean) levels of MLPE in Figure 2. Both simple slopes at ±1 SD of MLPE are significant (p<.05). Figure 2 shows that leaders' display of genuine emotions had the most positive relationship with followers' positive emotional reactions when followers perceived the valence of the emotions expressed by leaders to be highly positive.

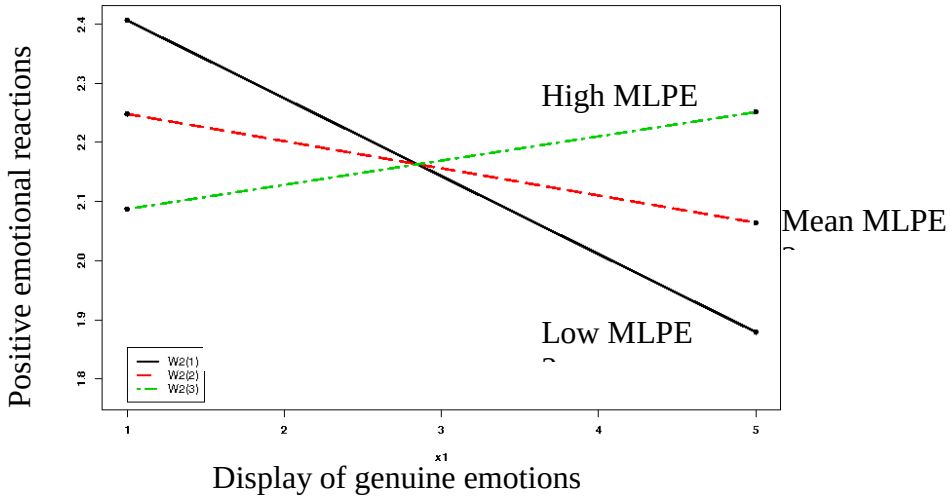

Figure 2. Interaction effects of leaders' display of genuine emotions and MLPE on followers' positive emotional reactions.

Table 11. Hierarchical Linear Modeling Results: Moderating Effects of the Negative Valence of Leaders' Expressed Emotions on the Relationships between Leaders' Emotional Labor and Followers' Negative Emotional Reactions

Level and variable	Negative emotional reactions		
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Level 1			
Intercept	2.33**	2.05**	3.29*
Leader negative emotions	.41**	.35**	.35**
Follower NA	.50**	.50**	.49**
Follower gender	-.01	.01	.02
Follower relationship tenure with supervisor	.00	-.01	-.01
Follower education	-.05	-.04	-.04
Level 2			
V	-.33**	-.23	-.21
M	-.03	-.03	-.05
Interactional characteristics	-.10	-.10	-.09
Emotional display culture	-.01	.00	.02
Leader job satisfaction (T1)	.00	.02	.01
Leader PA	.01	.01	.01
Leader NA	-.24*	-.23*	-.23*
Leader gender	.05	-.04	.05
Leader age	-.03	-.02	-.02
Supervisory tenure	.09†	.06	.05
Leader education	.06†	.08*	.08*
Surface acting (SA)		-.05	-.29
Deep acting (DA)		.03	.20
Display of genuine emotions (GE)		-.10	-.43
Mean leader negative emotions (MLNE)		.32*	-.22
SA*MLNE			.13
DA*MLNE			-.10
GE*MLNE			.17
n(level 1)	354	354	354
n(level 2)	86	86	86

Note: All level-1 variables were grand-mean centered. HLM coefficients are estimations of the fixed effects γs, with robust standard errors. V and M are two dummy variables with Company C as the base organization.

† p<.10. *p<.05. **p<.01.

Table 11 presents results of testing the moderating effect of the mean leader negative emotions (MLNE) on the relationships between the three forms of leaders' emotional labor and followers' negative emotional reactions. Similarly, the moderating effect was examined by entering control variables in Model 1, the main effects of MLNE, surface acting, deep acting, and display of genuine emotions in Model 2, and the interaction terms in Model 3. In Model 1, the same leader variables as above were controlled for. Follower NA was controlled for since followers high on NA were likely to experience negative emotions and have negative emotional reactions to their leader. Individual-level leader negative emotions were also controlled for to rule out any spurious effect. Follower organizational tenure and age were not controlled for given their negligible correlations with follower negative emotional reactions (r = .00 and .02 respectively). HLM regression coefficients in Table 11 (Model 1) show that level-1 leader negative emotions (γ = .41, p<.01) and follower NA (γ = .50, p<.01) were significantly related to follower negative emotional reactions within groups. Further, level-2 leader organizational membership in Company B (γ = -.33, p<.01), leader NA (γ = -.24, p<.05), supervisory tenure (γ = .09, p<.10) and education level (γ = .06, p<.10) significantly explained between-group variance in negative emotional reactions. To be noted, the significant negative relationship between leaders' NA and followers' negative emotional reactions might be due to the multicollinearity between leaders' NA and other independent variables (Lindley, 1987). Additional analyses show that leaders' NA alone had a positive but insignificant relationship with followers' negative emotional reactions (γ = .09, p<.10).

In addition, the residual between-group variance in follower negative emotional reactions was significant (τ_{00} = .07255, p<.01), suggesting the possibility of adding other level-2 predictors. When the main effect variables were entered in Model 2, only MLNE significantly explained between-group variance in follower negative emotional reactions. When the interaction terms were added in Model 3, none of them was significant. Based on results reported in Tables 10 and 11, *only Hypothesis 3c received partial support*, whereas Hypotheses 3a and 3b were not supported.

Hypothesis 4 stated that transformational leadership would be positively related to emotional engagement. Given that this relationship resides at the lower level of analysis and that there was no significant between-group variance in follower emotional engagement after partialling out differences in organizational membership, OLS regression was used to test Hypothesis 4. As explained above, follower PA, NA, gender, age, organizational tenure, education level, and organizational membership were controlled for. In addition, leader positive and negative emotions were also controlled for given that they were significantly correlated with both emotional engagement and transformational leadership. Consistent with Hypothesis 4, regression results in Table 11 show that transformational leadership was positively related to emotional engagement (β = .15, p<.05). Thus, *Hypothesis 4 was supported.*

Hypotheses 5a suggested that follower positive emotional reactions would be positively related to follower emotional engagement and Hypothesis 5b stated that follower negative emotional reactions would be negatively related to follower emotional engagement. To rule out spurious effect, follower PA, gender, age, organizational tenure, education level, and organizational membership as well as leader positive emotions were

Table 12. Regression Results: Relationships of Transformational Leadership and Emotional Reactions with Emotional Engagement

Variable	Emotional engagement					
	M 1	M 2	M 3	M 4	M 5	M 6
Step 1						
Follower control variables						
Leader positive emotions	-.03	-.11†	-.02			
Leader negative emotions	-.04	-.02			-.11*	-.03
Follower PA	.56**	.52**	.56**	.50**		
Follower NA	.00	.01			-.11*	-.02
Follower gender	.12**	.12**	.12**	.11**	.16**	.16**
Follower age	.01	.02	.02	.02	.02	.02
Follower organizational tenure	.03	.02	.03	.03	.08	.07
Follower education level	-.01	-.03	-.02	-.02	-.01	-.02
FV	.23**	.22**	.23**	.22**	.35**	-.00
FM	.05	.06	.06	.06	-.00	-.03
ΔR^2	.42**	.42*	.42*	.42*	.18**	.18**
Step 2						
Transformational leadership		.15*				
Positive emotional reactions				.10†		
Negative emotional reactions						-.24**
ΔR^2		.01*		.01*		.04**

Note: N = 354. Regression coefficients are standardized beta. FV and FM are two dummy variables representing followers' organizational membership. M = model.

† p<.10. *p<.05. **p<.01.

controlled for when Hypothesis 5a was tested. Supporting Hypotheses 5a, regression results in Table 12 show that positive emotional reactions were positively related to emotional engagement ($\beta = .10$, $p<.10$). Similarly, to rule out any possible spurious effect, follower NA, gender, age, organizational tenure, education level, and organizational membership as well as leader negative emotions were controlled for when Hypothesis 5b was tested. Consistent with Hypothesis 5b, negative emotional reactions were negatively related to emotional engagement ($\beta = -.24$, $p<.01$) after the follower variables were controlled for. Thus, *both Hypotheses 5 (a) and (b) were supported.*

Hypothesis 6a stated that transformational leadership, emotional engagement and positive emotional reactions would each be positively related to job satisfaction, organizational identification, task performance, OCB-I, and OCB-O. As shown in Table 7, there was no significant between-group variance for job satisfaction and organizational identification after controlling for organizational membership. Thus, hypotheses related to job satisfaction and organizational identification were examined using OLS regression. I first examined the relationships of transformational leadership with job satisfaction and organizational identification. For the same reasons as Hypothesis 1a was tested, follower individual differences and demographics (i.e., follower PA, NA, age, gender, education, relationship tenure with supervisor, organizational tenure, and organizational membership represented by two dummy variables) that might correlate with follower transformational leadership perceptions were controlled for. Regression results in Tables 13 and 14 show that transformational leadership was significantly related to job satisfaction ($\beta = 17$, $p<.01$) and organizational identification ($\beta = 10$, $p<.05$).

I then examined the relationships of emotional engagement with job satisfaction and organizational identification. The same follower variables that may influence emotional engagement as in testing Hypothesis 2 were controlled for. Regression results in Tables 13 and 14 show that emotional engagement was positively related to job satisfaction ($\beta = .19$, $p<.01$) and organizational identification ($\beta = .23$, $p<.01$). Finally, the relationships between positive emotional reactions and job satisfaction and organizational identification were investigated. In addition to follower PA and relationship tenure with supervisor, follower age, gender, organizational tenure and education level were also controlled for. Although these variables had negligible correlations with positive emotional reactions, prior research suggests that they might correlate with job satisfaction and organizational identification (e.g., Clark, Oswald, & Warr, 1996; Ng & Feldman, 2010). Regression results in Tables 13 and 14 show that positive emotional reactions were positively related to job satisfaction ($\beta = .29$, $p<.01$) and organizational identification ($\beta = .20$, $p<.01$).

The one-way ANOVA results reported in Table 7 suggest that there were between-group (leader) effects in performance ratings. Thus, HLM was used to examine the within-group relationships of transformational leadership, emotional engagement, positive emotional reactions, and negative emotional reactions with task performance, OCB-I, and OCB-O in that this method takes between-group variance into account when examining within-group relationships. I first tested the relationships of transformational leadership with task performance, OCB-I, and OCB-O. Given that followers' performance was rated by their leaders, leaders' individual differences and demographics that might influence leaders' ratings of followers' performance need to be controlled for.

Table 13. Regression Results: Relationships of Transformational Leadership, Emotional Engagement, and Positive Emotional reactions with Job Satisfaction

Variable	Job satisfaction					
	M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	M6
Step 1						
Follower control variables						
Leader positive emotions			.05	.05	.06	-.09†
Leader negative emotions			.03	.04		
Follower PA	.62**	.54**	.61**	.51**	.64**	.53**
Follower NA	-.14**	-.12**	-.14**	-.14**		
Follower gender	.07†	.05	.06	.04	.06	.06
Follower age	.03	.03	.02	.02	.02	.02
Follower organizational tenure	-.01	-.02	-.03	-.04	-.03	-.03
Follower relationship tenure with supervisor	-.01	-.03				
Follower education	-.13**	-.14**	-.13**	-.12**	-.13**	-.13**
FV	.19**	.17**	.19**	.15**	.19**	.19**
FM	.09†	.09*	.09*	.08†	.10*	.10*
ΔR^2	.54**	.54**	.54**	.54**	.53**	.53**
Step 2						
Transformational leadership		.17**				
Emotional engagement				.19**		
Positive emotional reactions						.29**
ΔR^2		.02**		.02**		.03**

Note. N = 354. Regression coefficients are standardized beta. FV and FM are two dummy variables representing followers' organizational membership. M = model.

† p<.10. *p<.05. **p<.01.

Table 14. Regression Results: Relationships of Transformational Leadership, Emotional Engagement, and Positive Emotional Reactions with Organizational Identification

Variable	Organizational identification					
	M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	M6
Step 1						
Follower control variables						
Leader positive emotions			-.07	-.06	-.05	-.15**
Leader negative emotions			-.04	-.03		
Follower PA	.58**	.53**	.60**	.47**	.62**	.55**
Follower NA	-.08†	-.07	-.07	-.07†		
Follower gender	.02	.01	.02	-.01	.02	.01
Follower age	.05	.06	.05	.05	.06	.06
Follower organizational tenure	.01	.01	-.02	-.02	-.03	-.02
Follower relationship tenure with supervisor	-.04	-.04				
Follower education	-.06	-.06	-.06	-.06	-.06	-.05
FV	.22**	.20**	.23**	.18**	.24**	.23**
FM	.16**	.16**	.16**	.14**	.17**	.18**
ΔR^2	.46**	.46**	.46**	.46**	.45**	.45**
Step 2						
Transformational leadership		.10*				
Emotional engagement				.23**		
Positive emotional reactions						.20**
ΔR^2		.01**		.03**		.02*

Note. N = 354. Regression coefficients are standardized beta. FV and FM are two dummy variables representing followers' organizational membership. M = model

† p<.10. *p<.05. **p<.01.

Since leaders high on PA frequently experience positive emotions and thus might have a positive view of their followers (Bower, 1981), high PA leaders might give high performance ratings to their followers. Similarly, leaders high on NA might have a negative view of their followers and thus might give low performance ratings to their followers. Thus, leaders' PA and NA were controlled for. Further, leaders' supervisory tenure and education level might also influence their performance ratings in that leaders might have learned to give accurate performance ratings from their experience and education. Prior research suggests that raters' gender might influence their performance ratings (e.g., Lenny, 1977; Pulakos, White, Oppler, Borman, 1989; Shore & Thornton III, 1984). Thus, leader gender was controlled for. In addition, follower variables that might correlate with transformational leadership were also controlled for.

HLM results in Table 15 show that transformational leadership was significantly related to task performance ($\gamma = .11$, $p<.05$) and OCB-O ($\gamma = .15$, $p<.05$) but had an insignificant relationship with OCB-I.

I proceeded with investigating the relationships of emotional engagement with task performance, OCB-I, and OCB-O. As shown in Table 16, after factors that might affect leaders' performance ratings and followers' emotional engagement were controlled for, emotional engagement was marginally positively related to OCB-O ($\gamma = .14$, $p<.10$) and had insignificant relationships with task performance and OCB-I.

Table 15. Hierarchical Linear Modeling Results: Relationships of Transformational Leadership with Task Performance, OCB-I, and OCB-O

Level and variable	Task performance		OCB-I		OCB-O	
	M 1	M 2	M 3	M 4	M 5	M 6
Level 1						
Intercept	4.07**	4.07**	3.95**	3.96**		4.02**
Follower PA	.07*	.04	.16*	.14†	.30**	.24**
Follower NA	-.12*	-.09†	-.01	.01	.02	.02
Follower gender	.00	-.01	.19*	.15†	.05	.02
Follower age	.04	.05†	-.02	-.02	.00	.01
Follower organizational tenure	.08*	.07*	.08*	.08*	.03	.03
Follower education	.06*	.06*	.05†	.06†	.07*	.07*
Transformational leadership		.11*		.12		.15*
Level 2						
V	.11	.23*	.22†	.14	.34*	.30*
M	-.10	-.04	-.04	-.05	.07	.05
Leader PA	.17**	.12*	.36**	.33**	.29**	.30**
Leader NA	.08	.08	.43**	.41**	.40**	.41**
Leader gender	.24**	.27**	.06	.05	.23**	.27**
Supervisory tenure	.02	.06	-.04	-.06	.04	.04
Leader education	.07*	.09**	.01	.02	.01	.01
n(level 1)	239	240	239	239	239	239
n(level 2)	66	66	66	66	66	66

Note: All level-1 variables were grand-mean centered. HLM coefficients are estimations of the fixed effects γs, with robust standard errors. V and M are two dummy variables with Company C as the base organization. M = model.

† p<.10. *p<.05. **p<.01.

Table 16. Hierarchical Linear Modeling Results: Relationships of Emotional Engagement with Task Performance, OCB-I, and OCB-O

Level and variable	Task performance		OCB-I		OCB-O	
	M 1	M 2	M 3	M 4	M 5	M 6
Level 1						
Intercept	4.06**	4.05**	3.95**	3.96**	3.98**	3.98**
Leader positive emotions	.11**	.10**	.12**	.13**	.18*	.16**
Leader negative emotions	.02	.01	.04	.02	.04	.02
Follower PA	.02	.02	.12†	.07	.21**	.16**
Follower NA	-.07	-.04	-.01	.01	.00	.01
Follower gender	-.01	.00	.13†	.13†	.01	.03
Follower age	.05†	.06*	-.02	-.03	.03	.01
Follower organizational tenure	.05**	.04*	.06*	.06*	.02	.04
Follower education	.06*	.06*	.06†	.07†	.10**	.08**
Emotional engagement		.04		.11		.14*
Level 2						
V	.21*	.19†	.19	.16*	.28**	.26**
M	.03	.06	-.03	-.08	.15	.08
Leader PA	.13*	.13*	.35**	.34**	.32**	.37**
Leader NA	.16†	.17*	.42**	.38**	.39**	.42**
Leader gender	.28**	.30**	.06	.07	.23*	.24**
Supervisory tenure	.07	.06	-.03	-.06	.06	.03
Leader education	.08**	.08**	.03	.05	.01	.05†
n(level 1)	238	238	238	238	238	238
n(level 2)	66	66	66	66	66	66

Note: All level-1 variables were grand-mean centered. HLM coefficients are estimations of the fixed effects γs, with robust standard errors. V and M are two dummy variables with Company C as the base organization. M = model.

† p<.10. *p<.05. **p<.01.

Table 17. Hierarchical Linear Modeling Results: Relationships of Positive Emotional Reactions with Task Performance, OCB-I, and OCB-O

Level and variable	Task performance		OCB-I		OCB-O	
	M 1	M 2	M 3	M 4	M 5	M 6
Level 1						
Intercept	4.07**	4.07**	3.96**	3.96**	4.01**	4.00**
Follower PA	.00	.00	.15*	.05	.27**	.14*
Follower gender	.00	.00	.18*	.09	.07	-0.03
Follower age	.07†	.07*	-.01	-.01	.00	.00
Follower organizational tenure	.05**	.05**	.05†	.05†	.02	.03
Follower education	.05*	.05*	.04	.04	.07*	.07*
Positive emotional reactions		.07		.17*		.22**
Level 2						
V	.24*	.24*	.28*	.16	.35**	.23†
M	-.07	-0.06	.00	-.04	.10	.07
Leader PA	.04	.04	.29**	.30*	.28**	.29**
Leader NA	.06	.04	.38**	.31*	.39**	.36**
Leader gender	.30**	.30**	.06	.08	.22*	.28**
Supervisory tenure	.04	.04	-.03	-.03	.05	.07
Leader education	.10**	.10**	.03	.04	.00	.02
n(level 1)	239	239	239	239	239	239
n(level 2)	65	66	65	66	65	66

Note: All level-1 variables were grand-mean centered. HLM coefficients are estimations of the fixed effects γs, with robust standard errors. V and M are two dummy variables with Company C as the base organization. M = model.

† p<.10. *p<.05. **p<.01.

Table 17 reports the HLM results of testing the relationships between positive emotional reactions and performance (task performance, OCB-I, and OCB-O). The HLM results (Models 4 and 6) show that positive emotional reactions were significantly related to OCB-I ($\gamma = .17$, $p<.05$) and OCB-O ($\gamma = .22$, $p<.01$) but had an insignificant relationship with task performance after factors that might affect leader performance ratings and follower positive emotional reactions were controlled for. In sum, *five of the nine hypothesized relationships in Hypothesis 6a were supported.*

Hypothesis 6b stated that follower negative emotional reactions would be negatively related to follower job satisfaction, organizational identification, OCB-I and OCB-O but would be positively related to follower task performance. The relationships of negative emotional reactions with job satisfaction and organizational identification were tested using OLS regression. Follower NA, relationship tenure with supervisor, age, organizational tenure, education level were controlled as these variables might correlate with negative emotional reactions or job satisfaction and organizational identification. Results show that negative emotional reactions were negatively associated with job satisfaction ($\beta = -.39$, $p<.01$) and organizational identification ($\beta = -.29$, $p<.01$). The relationships of negative emotional reactions with task performance, OCB-I, and OCB-O were examined using HLM. Results in Table 18 show that negative emotional reactions were negatively related to task performance ($\gamma = -.10$, $p<.05$), OCB-I ($\gamma = -.20$, $p<.01$), and OCB-O ($\gamma = -.22$, $p<.01$). Thus, *four of the five hypothesized relationships in Hypothesis 6b were supported.*

Table 18. Hierarchical Linear Modeling Results: Relationships of Negative Emotional Reactions with Task Performance, OCB-I, and OCB-O

Level and variable	Task performance		OCB-I		OCB-O	
	M 1	M 2	M 3	M 4	M 5	M 6
Level 1						
Intercept	4.07**	4.07**	3.95**	3.96**	4.01**	4.00**
Follower NA	-.14*	-.06	-.08	.04	-.08	.03
Follower gender	.01	.00	.19*	.17*	.11	.10
Follower age	.05†	.06†	-.02	-.02	.00	.01
Follower organizational tenure	.05*	.05**	.06*	.06*	.03	.04†
Follower education	.05†	.06*	.04	.04	.05†	.05*
Negative emotional reactions		-.10*		-.20*		-.22**
Level 2						
V	.26*	.15	.28*	.15	.48**	.32*
M	-.07	-0.1	-.07	-.12	.03	-0.04
Leader PA	.13*	.12†	.37**	.38**	.30**	.38**
Leader NA	.09	.06	.41**	.34**	.40**	.38**
Leader gender	.22**	.24**	.01	.04	.17†	.23*
Supervisory tenure	.05	.04	-.03	-.03	.06	.06
Leader education	.09**	.07**	.01	.03	.00	.03
n(level 1)	239	239	239	239	239	239
n(level 2)	65	66	65	66	65	66

Note: All level-1 variables were grand-mean centered. HLM coefficients are estimations of the fixed effects γs, with robust standard errors. V and M are two dummy variables with Company C as the base organization. M = model.

† p<.10. *p<.05. **p<.01.

Table 19. Regression Results: Relationships of Leaders' Emotional Labor with Leaders' Emotional Exhaustion and Job satisfaction

Variable	Emotional exhaustion		Job satisfaction (Time 2)	
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2
Step 1				
Leader control variables				
V	-.05	-.04	-.04	-.04
M	.07	.04	-.05	-.05
Interactional characteristics	.05	.05	.05	.05
Emotional display culture	.00	.03	.09	.11
Leader job satisfaction (Time 1)	-.45**	-.46**	.66**	.65**
Leader PA	-.02	-.02	.13	.09
Leader NA	.34**	.39**	-.16*	-.16†
Leader gender	.07	.10	-.08	-.09
Leader age	-.02	-.03	-.13†	-.14†
Supervisory tenure	-.13	-.09	.05	.07
Leader education	-.05	-.01	.06	.07
Deep acting	-.01	-.00		
Display of genuine emotions	-.02	-.13		
ΔR^2	.57**			.64**
Step 2				
Surface acting		-.21*		-.04
Deep acting				.06
Display of genuine emotions				.05
ΔR^2	.02*			.01

Note. N = 99. Regression coefficients are standardized beta. V and M are two dummy variables with Company C as the base organization.

† p<.10. *p<.05. **p<.01.

Hypotheses 7a, 7b and 8 were centered on the relationships of the three forms of leaders' emotional labor and leaders' job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion. Since these relationships reside in the same level (level-2), hierarchical regression analysis was used to test these hypotheses. Specifically, Hypothesis 7a predicted that leader surface acting would be positively related to leader emotional exhaustion. Contrary to Hypothesis 7a, regression results in Table 19 show that surface acting was negatively related to emotional exhaustion ($\beta = -.21$, $p<.05$) after factors that might influence leaders' surface acting were controlled for. Hypothesis 7b predicted that leader surface acting would be negatively related to leader job satisfaction and Hypothesis 8 suggested that leader deep acting and display of genuine emotions would be positively related to leader job satisfaction. Results in Table 19 show that none of the three forms of leaders' emotional labor was significantly related to leaders' job satisfaction. Thus, Hypotheses 7a, 7b, and 8 were not supported.

Additional Analyses

Apart part from the above hypothesized relationships, the relationships of leaders' emotional labor and followers' attitudes and performance were worth examining in that they were related to the main purpose of this study. Due to lack of theoretical support, these relationships were not hypothesized upfront. Given that there was no significant between-group variance in follower job satisfaction and organizational identification, the relationships between leaders 'emotional labor (i.e., surface acting, deep acting, and display of genuine emotions) and followers' job satisfaction and organizational identification were examined using hierarchical regression by disaggregating leader (higher) level variables to follower (lower) level of analysis.

Table 20. Regression Results: Relationships of Leaders' Emotional Labor with Followers' Job Satisfaction and Organizational Identification

Variable	Job satisfaction		Organizational identification	
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
Step 1				
Follower control variables				
Follower PA	.65**	.65**	.59**	.59**
Follower NA	-.13**	-.12**	-.08†	-.07†
Follower age	.01	.02	.05	.05
Follower gender			.04	.03
Follower organizational tenure	-.03	-.03	-.02	-.02
Follower education	-.13**	-.12**		
Leader control variables				
V	.22**	.25**	.22**	.19**
M	.11*	.12*	.19**	.16**
Interactional characteristics	-.09†	-.10†	-.04	-.03
Emotional display culture	-.02	-.03	-.02	-.02
Leader job satisfaction (Time 1)	.05	.05	.10†	.09
Leader PA	-.03	-.00	.02	.01
Leader NA	.06	.10*	.12**	.12*
Leader gender	.03	.04	-.06	-.05
Leader age	.01	.05	-.03	-.02
Supervisory tenure	-.02	-.03	.09	.09
Leader education	.00	.03	-.03	-.02
ΔR^2	.55**	.55**	.48**	.48**
Step 2				
Surface acting		-.07		-.07
Deep acting		.07†		-.00
Display of genuine emotions		-.13*		-.02
ΔR^2		.01†		.00

Note: N = 354. Regression coefficients are standardized beta. V and M are two dummy variables with Company C as the base organization.

† p<.10. *p<.05. **p<.01.

Follower individual differences and demographics were controlled for since these variables might correlate with follower job satisfaction and organizational identification (Ng & Feldman, 2010). To be noted, follower gender was not controlled for when the relationship between leaders' emotional labor and followers' job satisfaction was examined given its negligible correlation with job satisfaction ($r = .01$) to increase power (Becker, 2005). For the same reason, followers' education level was not controlled for when the relationship between leaders' emotional labor and followers' organizational identification was examined. The results were practically the same with or without the two control variables. In addition, as explained above, factors that might affect or correlate with leaders' emotional labor were also controlled for. As shown in Table 20, regression results show that leaders' deep acting was marginally significantly and positively related to followers' job satisfaction ($\beta = .07$, $p<.05$), whereas display of genuine emotions was significantly negatively related to follower job satisfaction ($\beta = -.13$, $p<.05$). Leaders' surface acting had an insignificant relationship with followers' job satisfaction. Additionally, results in Table 19 also show that none of the three forms of leaders' emotional labor was significantly related to followers' organizational identification after follower and leader control variables were controlled for.

The relationships of leaders' emotional labor (i.e., surface acting, deep acting, and display of genuine emotions) with followers' performance (i.e., task performance, OCB-I, and OCB-O) were examined using HLM given that there was significant between-group variance in followers' performance even after differences in organizational membership were controlled for. Follower individual differences and demographics were controlled for in that these variables might influence or correlate with followers' performance levels.

Table 21. Hierarchical Linear Modeling Results: Relationships of Leaders' Emotional Labor with Followers' Task Performance, OCB-I, and OCB-O

Level and variable	Task performance		OCB-I		OCB-O	
	M 1	M 2	M 3	M 4	M 5	M 6
Level 1						
Intercept	4.06**	4.07**	3.95**	4.07**	4.02**	4.02**
Follower PA	.08*	.06	.17**	.16**	.31**	.29**
Follower NA	-.12*	-.13*	-.03	-.03	-.01	-.01
Follower gender	.01	.04	.17*	.16†	.06	.05
Follower age	.06†	.05	-.02	-.03	-.01	-.02
Follower organizational tenure	.05**	.05**	.06*	.05†	.03	.02
Follower education	.06	.04	.05†	.04	.08**	.06*
Level 2						
V	.14	-.01	.11	.00	.22	.02
M	-.02	.00	.04	-.01	.16	.06
Interactional characteristics	-.01	-.02	.00	.01	-.06	-.07
Emotional display culture	-.11**	-.11**	-.17**	-.17**	-.20**	-.19**
Leader job Satisfaction (Time 1)	.11†	.07	.05	.03	.06	.01
Leader PA	.11†	.10	.35**	.27*	.29*	.20†
Leader NA	.18**	.18	.51**	.49**	.49**	.42**
Leader gender	.24**	.27**	.02	.01	.22*	.23*
Leader age	-.06	-.05	.06	.08	.06	.04
Supervisory tenure	.07	.07	-.09*	-.09†	-.00	.02
Leader education	.06*	.07**	.01	.01	-.00	-.01
Surface acting		-.13		-.11		-.15
Deep acting		-.02		.02		-.02
Display of genuine emotions		.09		.10		.26*

Note: N = 269 (level 1) and 66 (level 2). All level-1 variables were grand-mean centered. HLM coefficients are estimations of the fixed effects γs, with robust standard errors. V and M are two dummy variables with Company C as the base organization. M = model.

† p<.10. *p<.05. **p<.01.

Again, factors that might correlate with leaders' emotional labor were also controlled for. HLM results in Table 21 (Model 6) show that only display of genuine emotions was positively related to follower OCB-O ($\gamma = .26$, $p<.05$). Surface acting and deep acing was not significantly related to followers' task performance, OCB-I, or OCB-O.

Although not hypothesized, the positive and negative valence of leaders' expressed emotions, or MLPE and MLNE, might also moderate the relationships between leaders' emotional labor and followers' transformational leadership perceptions. One of the reasons that Hypotheses 1b and 1c were not supported might be because the role of leaders' expressed emotions was not taken into account. Given that prior research has shown that charismatic leaders express more positive emotions than non-charismatic leaders (Erez et al., 2008), it stands to reason that leaders who report frequently displaying genuine emotions or deep act and who are seen by their followers as expressing high levels of positive emotions might be perceived as transformational leaders, whereas those who report frequently display genuine emotions or deep act and who are seen by their followers as expressing high levels of negative emotions might be perceived as non-transformational. Likewise, there might even be interactions between surface acting and the positive and negative valence of leaders' expressed emotions. The negative association between leaders' surface acting and followers' transformational leadership perceptions might be mitigated by the positive valence of leaders' expressed emotions. In contrast, the negative association between leaders' surface acting and followers' transformational leadership perceptions might be worsened by the negative valence of leaders' expressed emotions.

Table 22. Hierarchical Linear Modeling Results: Moderating Effects of the Positive Valence of Leaders' Expressed Emotions on the Relationships of Leaders' Emotional Labor with Followers' Transformational Leadership Perceptions

Level and variable	Transformational leadership		
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Level 1			
Intercept	3.75**	3.75**	3.76**
Leader positive emotions	.43**	.40**	.40**
Follower PA	.19**	.20**	.20**
Follower NA	-.08*	-.07†	-.07†
Follower gender	.00	-.01	-.02
Follower age	-.03†	-.04†	-.04†
Follower organizational tenure	.01	.01	.01
Follower relationship tenure with supervisor	.01	.02	.02
Follower education level	.03	.02	.02
Level 2			
V	.10	.02	-.03
M	.05	-.01	-.00
Interactional characteristics	-.07	-.07	-.07
Emotional display culture	-.01	-.01	-.01
Leader job satisfaction (T1)	.02	.00	.03
Leader PA	.03	.02	.07
Leader NA	.07	.06	.12
Leader gender	-.03	-.01	-.04
Leader age	-.00	.00	.01
Supervisory tenure	.02	.02	.02
Leader education level	-.02	-.02	-.01
Surface acting (SA)		-.08	-.24
Deep acting (DA)		.00	.13
Display of genuine emotions (GE)		-.00	-1.02**
MLPE		.08	-.51
SA x MLPE			.04
DA x MLPE			-.04
GE x MLPE			.26**
n(level 1)	354	354	354
n(level 2)	86	86	86

Note. All level-1 variables were grand-mean centered. HLM coefficients are estimations of the fixed effects γs, with robust standard errors. MLPE = mean leader positive emotions

† p<.10. *p<.05. **p<.01.

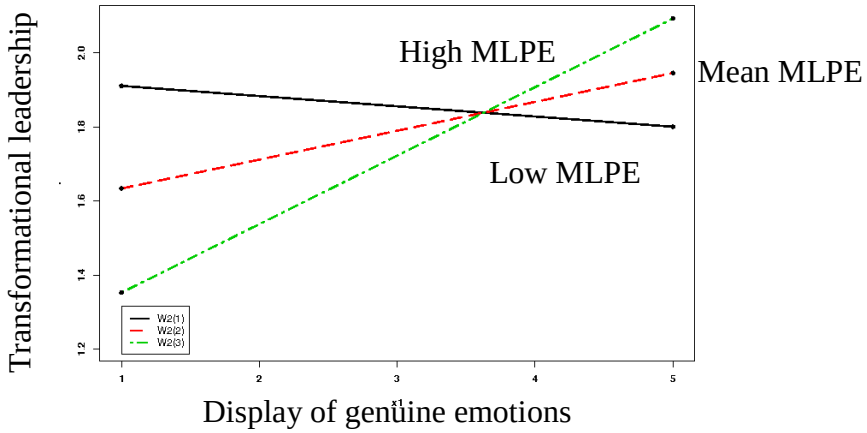

Figure 3. Interaction Effects of leaders' display of genuine emotions and MLPE on followers' transformational leadership perceptions.

The two-way interactions between leaders' emotional labor and followers' transformational leadership were tested using HLM since there was significant between-group variance in followers' transformational leadership perceptions. I followed a similar procedure to test the interactions as was used to test Hypotheses 3a, 3b, and 3c. The results are presented in Table 22. To reduce spurious effect, individual- level leader positive emotions were controlled for (Hoffman & Gavin, 1998). In Model 1, leader and follower control variables were entered. Among the control variables, individual-level leader positive emotions, follower PA and NA, and follower age significantly predicted follower transformational leadership perceptions. In Model 2, the main effect variables were entered. None of the main effects was significant. In Model 3, the interaction terms were entered. The interaction term between display of genuine emotions and MLPE significantly predicted follower transformational leadership perceptions ($\gamma = .26$, $p<.01$).

However, neither surface acting nor deep acting significantly interacted with MLPE to predict followers' transformational leadership perceptions.

Again, I followed Preacher et al.'s (2006) procedures and plotted the interaction under high (1 SD above the mean) and low levels (1 SD below the mean) of MLPE (see Figure 3). The simple slope is .19 ($p<.01$) at +1 SD and -.03 ($p>.10$, insignificant) at -1 SD, suggesting that leaders' display of genuine emotions had the most positive effect on followers' transformational leadership perceptions when followers perceived the valence of leaders' expressed emotions to be highly positive.

Table 23 reports the results of testing the moderating effects of MLNE on the relationships between leaders' emotional labor and followers' transformational leadership perceptions. Factors that might confound followers' transformational leadership perceptions and leaders' emotional labor were controlled for. Similarly, individual-level leader negative emotions were controlled for to rule out spurious effect of MLNE. As shown in Model 1, among the control variables, individual-level leader negative emotions, follower PA, leader organizational membership in Company B, and leader education level significantly predicted followers' transformational leadership perceptions. When the main effects were tested in Model 2, display of genuine emotions was marginally significantly and positively related to follower transformational leadership perceptions ($\gamma = .09$, $p<.10$), whereas MLNE was significantly negatively associated with follower transformational leadership perceptions. As shown in Model 3, there was a significant interaction between display of genuine emotions and MLNE ($\gamma = -.09$, $p<.10$).

The interaction was plotted in Figure 4 using Preacher et al.'s (2006) procedures. The simple slope at -1 SD of MLNE is significant ($p<.05$), whereas the

Table 23. Hierarchical Linear Modeling Results: Moderating Effects of the Negative Valence of Leaders' Expressed Emotions on the Relationships of Leaders' Emotional Labor with Followers' Transformational Leadership Perceptions

Level and variable	Transformational leadership		
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Level 1			
Intercept	3.75**	3.76**	3.75**
Leader negative emotions	-.23**	-.19**	-.19**
Follower PA	.37**	.37**	.36**
Follower NA	-.03	-.02	-.02
Follower gender	.06	.04	.03
Follower age	-.02	-.02	-.02
Follower organizational tenure	-.01	-.01	-.01
Follower relationship tenure with	.04	.04†	.04†
Follower education level	.01	.00	-.01
Level 2			
V	.15†	-.04	-.08
M	.04	-.08	-.06
Interactional characteristics	-.03	-.01	-.02
Emotional display culture	-.01	-.01	-.02
Leader job satisfaction (T1)	.04	.02	.03
Leader PA	-.01	-.06	-.06
Leader NA	.10	.07	.07
Leader gender	-.01	.02	.03
Leader age	-.01	.00	-.01
Supervisory tenure	.00	.01	.01
Leader education level	-.08**	-.09**	-.09**
Surface acting (SA)		-.10	-.22
Deep acting (DA)		-.02	-.14
Display of genuine emotions (GE)		.09†	.61*
MLNE		-.18*	.59
SA x MLNE			.07
DA x MLNE			.06
GE x MLNE			-.27*

Note: N = 354 (level 1) and 86 (level 2). All level-1 variables were grand-mean centered. HLM coefficients are estimations of the fixed effects γs, with robust standard errors. V and M are two dummy variables with Company C as the base organization. MLNE = mean leader negative emotions.

† p<.10. *p<.05. **p<.01.

simple slope at +1 SD of MLNE is insignificant. This means that leaders' display of genuine emotions had the most positive association with followers' transformational leadership perceptions when the mean negative valence of leaders' expressed emotions was low. The interaction between surface acting and MLNE or between deep acting and MLNE was insignificant.

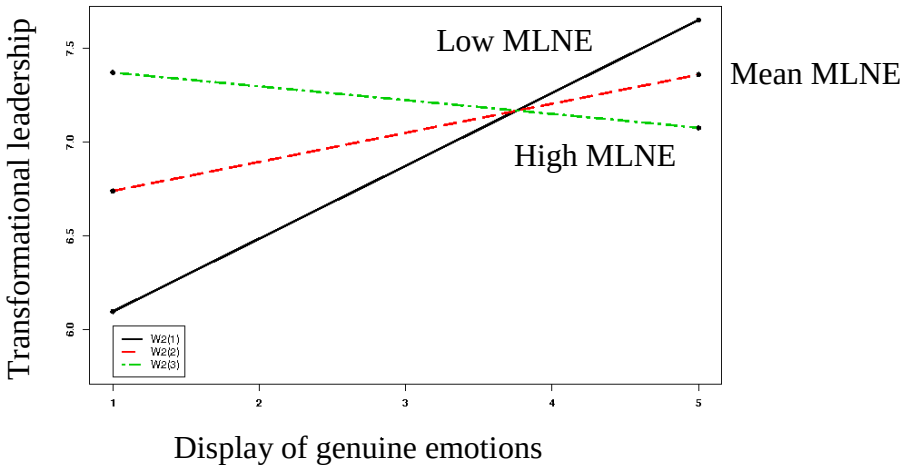

Figure 4. Interaction effects of leaders' display of genuine emotions and MLNE on followers' transformational leadership perceptions.

The positive and negative valence of leaders' expressed emotions might also moderate the relationships between leaders' emotional labor and followers' emotional engagement. It's possible that leaders' emotional labor will have a different effect on followers' emotional engagement depending on the valence of leaders' expressed emotions. For example, when leaders report frequently displaying genuine emotions and followers perceive the valence of those emotions to be highly positive, followers might have high expectancy of goal accomplishment and thus be strongly emotionally attached

to their work roles (Seo et al., 2004). The interactions were tested with hierarchical regression by first entering control variables, then the main effects, and finally the interaction terms since there wasn't significant between-group variance for emotional engagement. The results show that none of the interactions between the three forms of leaders' emotional labor and followers' emotional engagement was significant.

Relatedly, I suspected that the positive and negative valence of leaders' expressed emotions might also moderate the relationships of leaders' emotional labor and followers' attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction and organizational identification). The fact that I did not find significant main effects of surface and deep acting on follower attitudes and performance suggested that the content of leaders' emotional labor, that is, the positive and negative valence of leaders' expressed emotions (i.e., MLPE and MLNE) might need to be considered. It is possible that followers tend to have a pleasant work experience and thus be high on job satisfaction and organizational identification when their leaders report frequently surface acting, deep acting, or displaying genuine emotions and they perceive their leaders' expressed emotions to be high on positive valence due to the socially desirable nature of positive emotions. In contrast, followers are likely to have an unpleasant work experience and thus be low on job satisfaction and organizational identification when their leaders report frequently surface acting, deep acting, or displaying genuine emotions and they perceive the emotions expressed by their leaders to be high on negative valence due to the socially undesirable nature of negative emotions. The plausible two-way interactions between leaders' emotional labor and followers' job satisfaction and organizational identification were tested using hierarchical regression since there wasn't significant between-group variance for job satisfaction or

Table 24. Regression Results: Moderating Effects of the Positive Valence of Leaders' Expressed Emotions on the Relationships of Leaders' Emotional Labor with Followers' Job Satisfaction and Organizational Identification

Variable	Job satisfaction			Organizational identification		
	M 1	M 2	M 3	M 4	M 5	M 6
Step 1						
Follower control variables						
Leader positive emotions	.05	.11*	.11*	-.06	-.06	-.06
Follower PA	.62**	.63**	.63**	.61**	61**	.62**
Follower NA	-.12**	-.11**	-.11**	-.08†	-.08†	-.08†
Follower age	.01	.02	.02	.05	.05	.06
Follower gender				.04	.04	.03
Follower organizational tenure	-.03	-.03	-.03	-.03	-.03	-.05
Follower education	-.13**	-.11**	-.11*			
Leader control variables						
V	.22**	.25**	.24**	.22**	20**	.19*
M	.11*	.11*	.11*	.19**	16**	.16**
Interactional characteristics	-.10†	-.09†	-.09†	-.04	-.02	-.05
Emotional display culture	-.02	-.03	-.03	-.02	-.02	-.00
Leader job satisfaction (Time 1)	.05	.06	.07	.10†	.10	.11
Leader PA	-.03	-.01	-.01	.01	.00	-.03
Leader NA	.06	.09*	.10*	.13**	.12*	.11*
Leader gender	.03	.04	.04	-.06	-.05	-.00
Leader age	.03	.05	.05	-.03	-.03	-.04
Supervisory tenure	-.02	-.04	-.04	.08	.08	.08
Leader education	.01	.02	.01	-.04	-.03	-.04
ΔR^2	.55**	.55**	.55**	.48**	48**	.48**
Step 2						
Surface acting (SA)		-.08	-.09		-.07	-.12†
Deep acting (DA)		.07†	.07		-.00	.01
Display of genuine emotions(GE)		-.13*	-.12*		-.01	-.03
MLPE		-.11*	-.11*		-.01	.03
ΔR^2		.02*	.02*		.00	.00

Table 24. Continued

Step 3		
SAxMLPE	-.01	-.14*
DAxMLPE	.01	.03
GExMLPE	.05	-.05
ΔR^2	.00	.01

Note. N = 354. Regression coefficients are standardized beta. V and M are two dummy variables with Company C as the base organization. M = model. MLNE = mean leader negative emotions.

† p<.10. *p<.05. **p<.01.

organizational identification. Again, leader (higher) level variables were disaggregated to follower (lower) level of analysis. A typical procedure of testing two-way interactions using hierarchical regression was followed. In Step 1, follower variables that might confound job satisfaction or organizational identification were controlled as well as leader variables that might confound leaders' emotional labor. In Step 2, the main effects were entered. In Step 3, the interaction terms were entered.

Table 24 presents the results of testing the interaction between leaders' emotional labor and MLPE. For follower job satisfaction, Model 3 shows that none of the interaction terms was significant. For follower organizational identification, Model 6 shows that the interaction term between surface acting and MLPE was significantly negative (β = -.11, p<.05). I followed Aiken and West's (1991) procedures of probing interactions in liner regression and plotted the interaction at high (1 SD above the mean) and low (1 SD below the mean) levels of MLPE in Figure 5. A simple slope analysis revealed that the slope at -1 SD was not significantly different from zero (t_{350} = -.70,

p>.10), whereas the slope at +1SD was significantly different from zero (t_{350} = -25.64, p<.01). Figure 5 shows that leaders' surface acting had the most negative relationship with followers' organizational identification when followers perceived the emotions expressed by leaders to be high on positive valence.

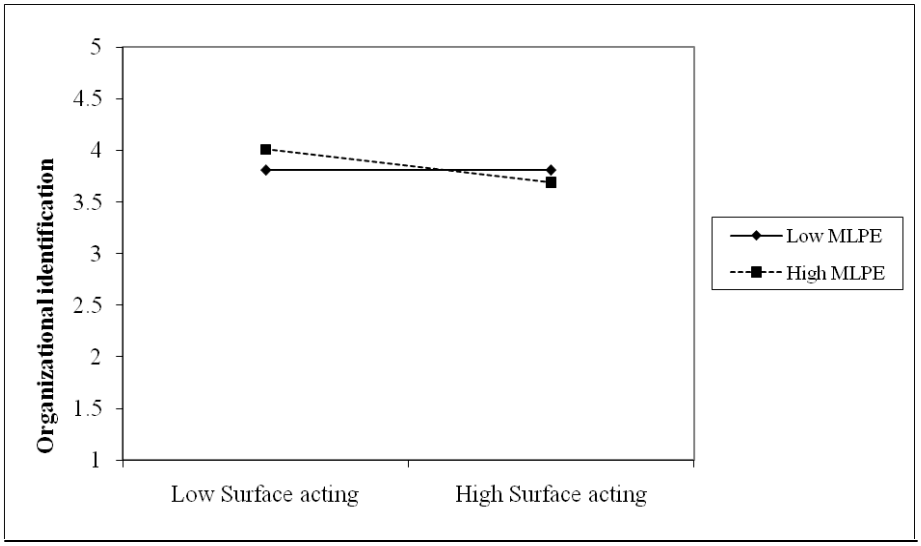

Figure 5. Interaction effects of leaders' surface acting and MLPE on followers' organizational identification.

Table 25 reports the results of testing the interaction between leaders' emotional labor and MLNE. For job satisfaction, Model 3 shows that none of the interaction terms was significant. For organizational identification, Model 6 shows that the interaction term between surface acting and MLNE was significantly positive (β = .11, p<.05). Similarly, I plotted the interaction following Aiken and West's (1991) procedures (see Figure 6). The simple slopes at ±1 SD of the mean of MLNE were significantly different from zero (p<.05). Figure 6 suggests that leaders' surface acting had a less negative effect on

Table 25. Regression Results: Moderating Effects of the Negative Valence of Leaders' Expressed Emotions on the Relationships of Leaders' Emotional Labor with Followers' Job Satisfaction and Organizational Identification

Variable	Job satisfaction			Organizational identification		
	M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	M6
Step 1						
Follower control variables						
Leader negative emotions	.01	.01	.01	-.04	-.06	-.06
Follower PA	.65**	.65**	.63**	.58**	.58**	.58**
Follower NA	-.13**	-.12**	-.13**	-.06	-.06	-.07
Follower age	.01	.02	.02	.05	.05	.05
Follower gender				.03	.03	.02
Follower organizational tenure	-.03	-.04	-.03	-.02	-.02	-.01
Follower education	-.13**	-.12**	-.12*			
Leader control variables						
V	.23**	.25**	.24**	.22**	.20**	.17*
M	.11*	.13*	.13*	.18**	.16**	.16**
Interactional characteristics	-.09†	-.10†	-.10†	-.04	-.03	-.03
Emotional display culture	-.02	-.03	-.03	-.03	-.02	-.01
Leader job satisfaction (Time 1)	.05	.05	.06	.10†	.09	.10†
Leader PA	-.03	.00	.00	.01	.01	.00
Leader NA	.06	.10*	.10*	.13**	.12*	.11*
Leader gender	.03	.04	.04	-.05	-.05	-.02
Leader age	.01	.05	.05	-.03	-.03	-.02
Supervisory tenure	-.03	-.03	-.04	.10†	.08	.08
Leader education	.00	.03	.01	-.03	-.02	-.05
ΔR^2	.55**	.55**	.55**	.48**	.48**	.48**
Step 2						
Surface acting (SA)		-.08	-.08		-.07	-.11†
Deep acting (DA)		.08†	.07		.00	-.01
Display of genuine emotions(GE)		-.13*	-.14*		-.02	-.03
MLNE		.01	-.01		.06	.00
ΔR^2		.01	.01		.00	.00

Table 25. Continued

Step 3		
SAxMLNE	.03	.10*
DAxMLNE	-.03	-.04
GExMLNE	-.04	-.05
ΔR^2	.00	.01†

Note. N = 354; Regression coefficients are standardized beta. V and M are two dummy variables with Company C as the base organization. M = Model. MLNE = mean leader negative emotions.

† p<.10. *p<.05. **p<.01.

followers' organizational identification when followers perceived high levels of negative emotions expressed by leaders than when followers perceived low levels of negative emotions expressed by leaders.

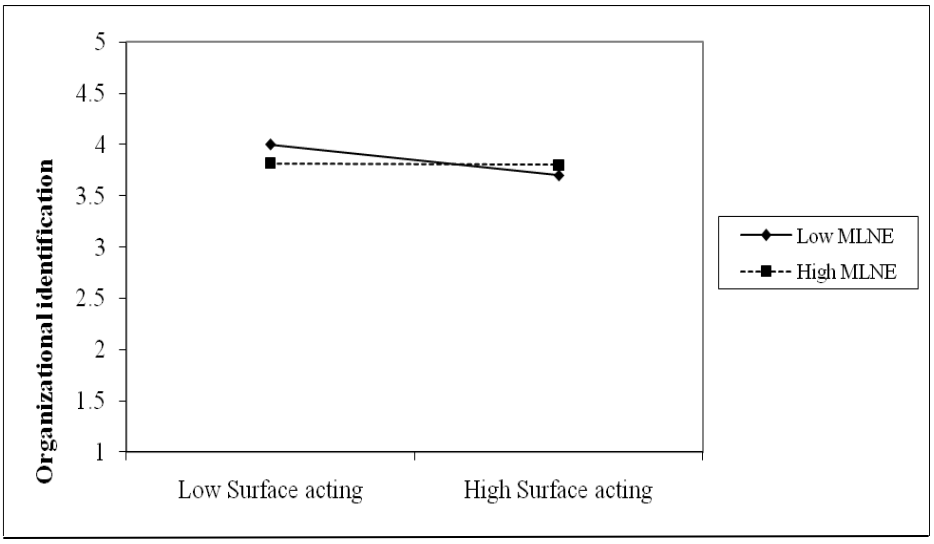

Figure 6. Interaction effects of leaders' surface acting and MLNE on followers' organizational identification.

Likewise, I also suspected that the positive and negative valence of leaders' expressed emotions might also moderate the relationships of leaders' emotional labor and followers' performance (i.e., task performance, OCB-I, and OCB-O). With reference to past research on leaders' emotions, it is likely that followers will keep increasing performance levels when leaders report frequently displaying genuine emotions or deep acting and followers perceive high levels of positive emotions expressed by their leaders in that leaders' positive emotions may convey information about leaders' satisfaction with followers' current performance levels (Van Keel et al., 2009) and followers will not question the authenticity of the information. However, when leaders report frequently surface acting and followers perceive high levels of positive emotions expressed by leaders, followers might perceive that leaders are not really satisfied with their current performance and thus try to improve their performance. In contrast, when leaders report frequently expressing genuine emotions or deep acting and followers perceive high levels of negative emotions expressed by leaders, leaders' negative emotions might convey information about leaders' dissatisfaction with followers' performance levels and followers would not question the authenticity of the information. Thus, followers may try to increase performance. However, when leaders report frequently surface acting and followers perceive high levels of negative emotions expressed by leaders, followers may perceive that leaders aren't really dissatisfied with their current performance and just stay with their current performance levels.

The two-way interactions between leaders' emotional labor and followers' task performance, OCB-I, and OCB-O were tested using HLM given that the interactive

Table 26. Hierarchical Linear Modeling Results: Moderating Effects of the Positive Valence of Leaders' Expressed Emotions on the Relationships of Leaders' Emotional Labor with Followers' OCB-O

Level and variable	OCB-O		
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Level 1			
Intercept	4.01**	4.01**	4.02**
Leader positive emotions	.17*	.16*	.17*
Follower PA	.21**	.21**	.20**
Follower NA	-.01	-.01	-.01
Follower gender	-.02	-.02	-.05
Follower age	.02	.00	.00
Follower organizational tenure	.04	.03	.02
Follower education level	.09**	.08**	.08*
Level 2			
V	.17	.01	-.05
M	.22*	.13	.16
Interactional characteristics	-.01	-.09	-.09
Emotional display culture	-.10**	-.24**	-.22**
Leader job satisfaction (T1)	.09	.10†	.13*
Leader PA	.27**	.15	.18
Leader NA	.48**	.39**	.45**
Leader gender	.28**	.25**	.27**
Leader age	.02	.01	.00
Supervisory tenure	.04	.05	.06
Leader education level	.00	-.01	-.02
Surface acting (SA)		-.07	.63†
Deep acting (DA)		-.02	.30
Display of genuine emotions (GE)		.25*	.61**
MLPE		-.02	.18
SA x MLPE			-.20†
DA x MLPE			-.09
GE x MLPE			.09

Note: N = 239 (level 1) and 66 (level 2). All level-1 variables were grand-mean centered. HLM coefficients are estimations of the fixed effects γs, with robust standard errors. V and M are two dummy variables with Company C as the base organization. MLNE = mean leader negative emotions.

† p<.10. *p<.05. **p<.01.

effects involved leader (higher) level predictors and follower (lower) level outcomes, which had significant between-group variance. I followed the three-step procedure used in testing Hypothesis 3. In addition to follower and leader variables that might confound followers' performance and leaders' emotional labor, individual-level leader positive emotions were also controlled. Results show that none of the three forms of leaders' emotional interacted with MLPE to predict followers' task performance or OCB-I. However, as shown in Table 26 (Model 3), for follower OCB-O, the interaction term between surface acting and MLPE was marginally significantly negative (γ = -.20, $p<.10$). Again, following Preacher et al.'s (2006) procedures, I plotted the interaction in Figure 7. The simple slope at -1 SD of the mean of MLPE was significant ($p<.05$), whereas the simple slope at +1 SD of the mean of MLPE was marginally significant ($p<.10$). As shown in Figure 7, leaders' surface acting had the least positive effect on followers' OCB-O when followers perceived high levels of positive emotions expressed by leaders.

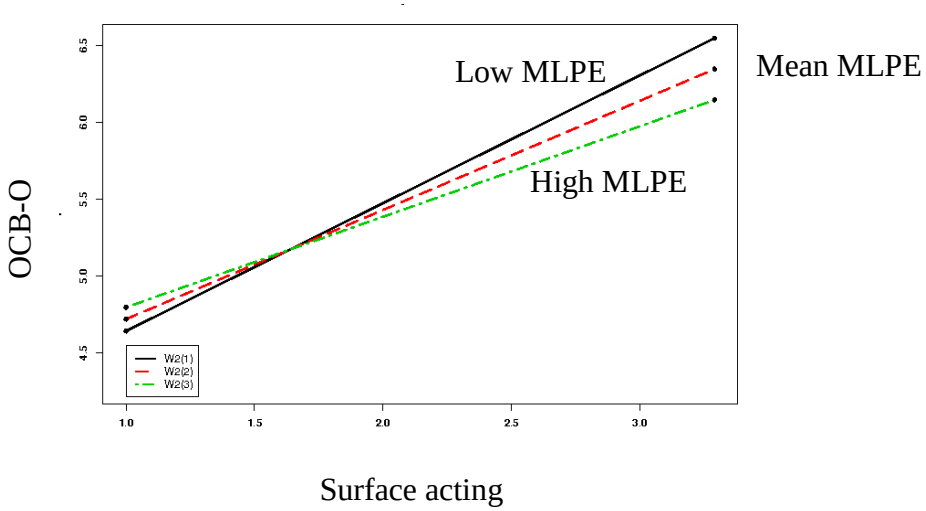

Figure 7. Interaction effects of leaders' surface acting and MLPE on followers' OCB-O.

Table 27. Hierarchical Linear Modeling Results: Moderating Effects of the Negative Valence of Leaders' Expressed Emotions on the Relationships of Leaders' Emotional Labor with Followers' Task Performance

Level and variable	Task performance		
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Level 1			
Intercept	4.06**	4.07**	4.09**
Leader negative emotions	-.02	.00	.00
Follower PA	.08*	.08†	.07†
Follower NA	-.11†	-.11†	-.14**
Follower gender	.01	.03	-.00
Follower age	.05†	.04	.04
Follower organizational tenure	.06**	.06**	.06**
Follower education level	.06*	.05†	.04
Level 2			
V	.14	-.01	-.09
M	-.01	-.09	-.15†
Interactional characteristics	-.01	-.01	.02
Emotional display culture	-.11**	-.12**	-.11**
Leader job satisfaction (T1)	.12*	.07	.09
Leader PA	.13*	.12	.10
Leader NA	.23**	.24†	.22†
Leader gender	.24**	.30**	.33**
Leader age	-.06	-.03	-.07
Supervisory tenure	.07	.08	.10*
Leader education level	.05†	.06*	.04
Surface acting (SA)		-.16	-.97**
Deep acting (DA)		-.02	-.03
Display of genuine emotions (GE)		.08	.01
MLNE		-.06	-.94
SA x MLNE			.40*
DA x MLNE			.00
GE x MLNE			.02

Note: N = 239 (level 1) and 66 (level 2). All level-1 variables were grand-mean centered. HLM coefficients are estimations of the fixed effects γs, with robust standard errors. V and M are two dummy variables with Company C as the base organization. MLNE = mean leader negative emotions.

† p<.10. *p<.05. **p<.01.

The results of testing the moderating effects of MLNE on the relationships between the three forms of leaders' emotional labor and followers' task performance, OCB-I, and OCB-O were summarized in Tables 27, 28, and 29. Apart from follower and leader control variables, individual-level leader negative emotions were also controlled for. Table 27 reports the results of testing the interactive effects of leaders' emotional labor and MLNE on followers' task performance. Model 3 in Table 27 shows that leaders' surface acting significantly interacted with MLNE to predict followers' task performance ($\gamma = .40$, $p<.05$). The interaction was plotted in Figure 8 using Preacher et al.'s (2006) procedures. Both slopes at ±1 SD of the mean of MLNE were significantly negative ($p<.05$). Figure 8 indicates that leaders' surface acting had a less negative effect on followers' task performance when followers perceived high levels of negative emotions expressed by their leaders than when followers perceived low levels of negative emotions expressed by their leaders. Neither deep acting nor display of genuine emotions significantly interacted with MLNE to predict followers' task performance.

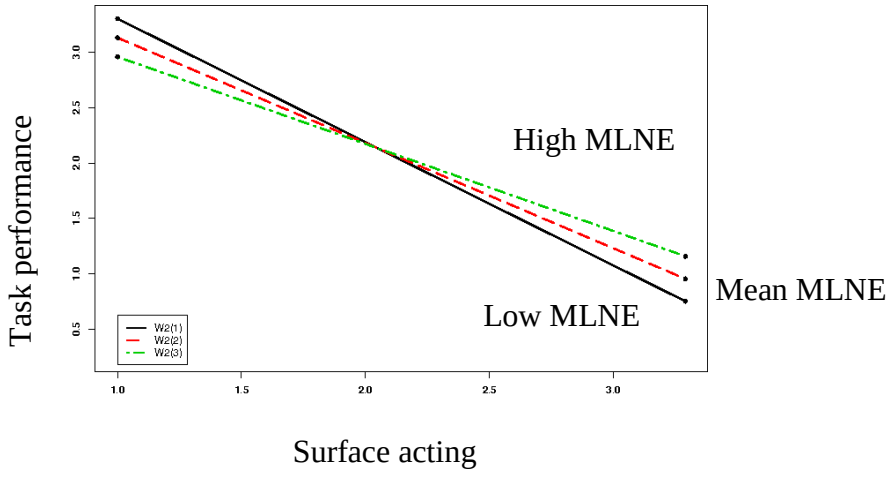

Figure 8. Interaction effects of leaders' surface acting and MLNE on followers' task performance.

Table 28. Hierarchical Linear Modeling Results: Moderating Effects of the Negative Valence of Leaders' Expressed Emotions on the Relationships of Leaders' Emotional Labor with Followers' OCB-I

Level and variable	OCB-I		
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Level 1			
Intercept	4.01**	3.95**	3.96**
Leader negative emotions	-.02	-.04	-.05
Follower PA	.18**	.18**	.17**
Follower NA	-.03	-.03	-.04
Follower gender	.16†	.15†	.13
Follower age	-.02	-.03	-.02
Follower organizational tenure	.06*	.05†	.05†
Follower education level	.06†	.06†	.05
Level 2			
V	.06	.02	-.00
M	.00	-.03	-.08
Interactional characteristics	.03	.04	.05
Emotional display culture	-.16**	-.16**	-.16**
Leader job satisfaction (T1)	.06	.04	.05
Leader PA	.34**	.28**	.26**
Leader NA	.50**	.51**	.50**
Leader gender	.03	.01	.04
Leader age	.06	.07	.02
Supervisory tenure	-.09*	-.09*	-.06
Leader education level	.01	.02	.03
Surface acting (SA)		-.12	-.57†
Deep acting (DA)		.03	-.52**
Display of genuine emotions (GE)		.07	-.06
MLNE		.14	-1.36†
SA x MLNE			.20
DA x MLNE			.33*
GE x MLNE			.06

Note: N = 239 (level 1) and 66 (level 2). All level-1 variables were grand-mean centered. HLM coefficients are estimations of the fixed effects γs, with robust standard errors. V and M are two dummy variables with Company C as the base organization. MLNE = mean leader negative emotions.

† p<.10. *p<.05. **p<.01.

Table 28 reports the results of testing the interactive effects of leaders' emotional labor and MLNE on followers' OCB-I. Model 3 shows that only the interaction term of deep acting and MLNE was significantly positive ($\gamma = .33$, $p<.05$). The interaction was plotted in Figure 9 according to Preacher et al.'s (2006) procedures. The simple slope at +1 SD of the mean of MLNE was significant ($p<.05$), whereas the simple slope at -1 SD of the mean of MLNE was insignificant. Figure 9 suggests that leaders' deep acting had the most positive relationship with followers' OCB-I when followers perceived high levels of negative emotions expressed by leaders.

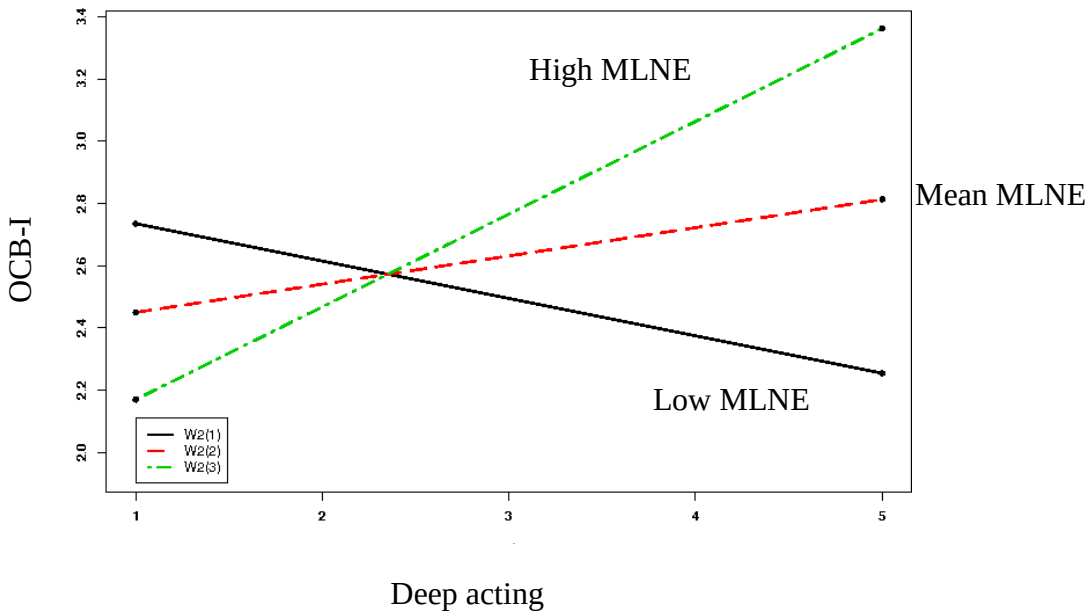

Figure 9. Interaction effects of leaders' deep acting and MLNE on followers' OCB-I.

Table 29. Hierarchical Linear Modeling Results: Moderating Effects of the Negative Valence of Leaders' Expressed Emotions on the Relationships of Leaders' Emotional Labor with Followers' OCB-O

Level and variable	OCB-O		
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Level 1			
Intercept	4.01**	4.01**	4.02**
Leader negative emotions	-.04	-.01	-.02
Follower PA	.32**	.30**	.28**
Follower NA	.00	-.01	-.02
Follower gender	.03	.04	.01
Follower age	-.01	-.02	-.02
Follower organizational tenure	.04	.03	.03
Follower education level	.08**	.07**	.06†
Level 2			
V	.16	-.00	-.04
M	.12	.05	-.02
Interactional characteristics	-.04	-.04	.00
Emotional display culture	-.19**	-.19**	-.18**
Leader job satisfaction (T1)	.06	.05	.07
Leader PA	.28**	.18†	.14
Leader NA	.47**	.42**	.40**
Leader gender	.21*	.22*	.26*
Leader age	.05	.04	-.01
Supervisory tenure	-.00	.04	.06
Leader education level	.00	-.00	-.00
Surface acting (SA)		-.13	-.81
Deep acting (DA)		-.01	-.42
Display of genuine emotions (GE)		.24*	.01
MLNE		-.06	-1.79
SA x MLNE			.32*
DA x MLNE			.25†
GE x MLNE			.12

Note: N = 239 (level 1) and 66 (level 2). All level-1 variables were grand-mean centered. HLM coefficients are estimations of the fixed effects γs, with robust standard errors. V and M are two dummy variables with Company C as the base organization. MLNE = mean leader negative emotions.

† p<.10. *p<.05. **p<.01.

Table 29 presents the results of testing the interactive effects of leaders' emotional labor and MLNE on followers' OCB-O. Model 3 shows that MLNE significantly moderated the relationship between leaders' surface acting and followers' OCB-O ($\gamma = .32$, $p<.05$) and marginally significantly moderated the relationship between leaders' deep acting and followers' OCB-O. However, MLNE did not moderate the relationship between leaders' display of genuine emotions and followers' OCB-O.

The two interactions were plotted in Figures 10 and 11 respectively using Preacher et al.'s (2006) procedures. In Figure 10, the simple slopes at ±1 SD of the mean of MLNE were significant ($p<.05$). Figure 10 suggests that leaders' surface acting had a less negative relationship with followers' OCB-O when followers perceived high levels of negative emotions expressed by leaders than when followers perceived low levels of negative emotions expressed by leaders. In Figure 11, the simple slopes at ±1 SD of the mean of MLNE were marginally significant ($p<.10$). Figure 11 indicates that leaders' deep acting had the most positive effect on followers' OCB-O when followers perceived high levels of negative emotions expressed by leaders.

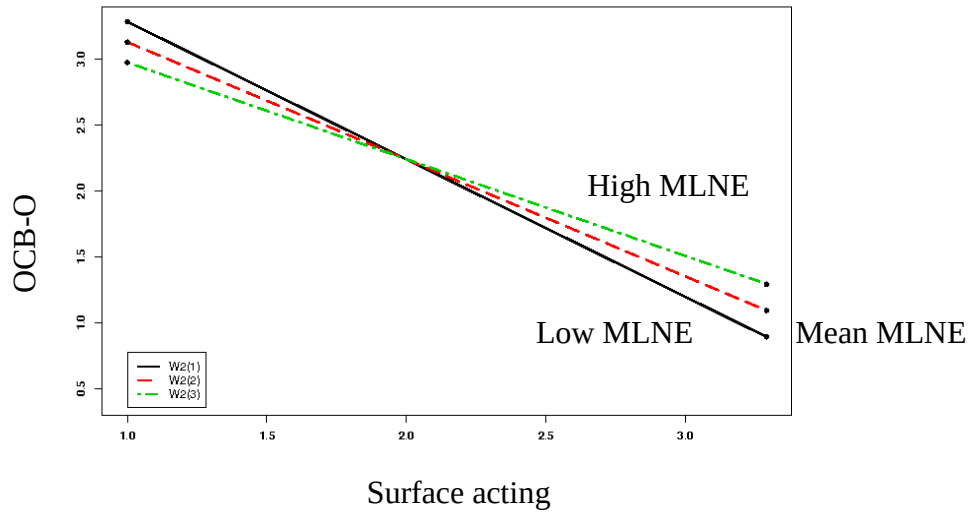

Figure 10. Interaction effects of leaders' surface acting and MLNE on followers' OCB-O.

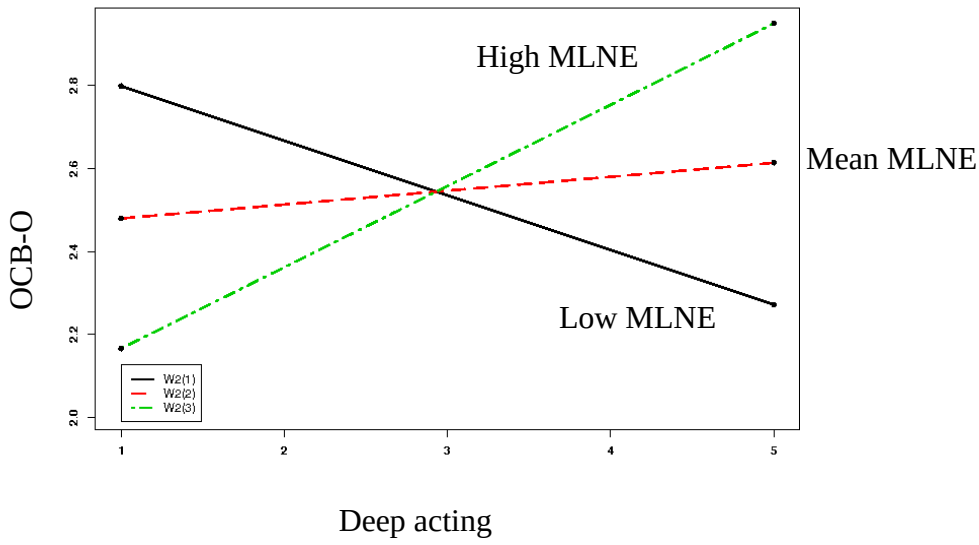

Figure 11. Interaction effects of leaders' deep acting and MLNE on followers' OCB-O.

CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSION

In this study, I built on and integrated the dramaturgical perspective of transformational leadership (Gardner & Avolio, 1998), job engagement theory (Kahn, 1990), emotional labor theory (Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983), and the qualitative research on leaders' emotional labor (Glaso et al., 2006) to examine the role of leaders' emotional labor on followers' attitudes and performance and on leaders' attitudes and well-being (see Figure 1).

In the theoretical framework, I developed that leaders' emotional labor may influence followers' transformational leadership perceptions, emotional engagement, and emotional reactions to their leader contingent on the valence of leaders' expressed emotions and that these follower variables in turn will affect followers' attitudes and performance. Results partially supported my hypotheses. However, additional analyses found that leaders' emotional labor was directly associated with followers' attitudes and performance and interacted with the valence of leaders' expressed emotions in influencing followers' attitudes and performance as well as transformational leadership perceptions. Additionally, in the framework, I also posited that leaders' emotional labor might also affect leaders' well-being and attitudes, unexpectedly, results did not support these hypotheses.

This study complements extant research on leaders' emotion and extends emotional labor theory (Grandy, 2000; Hochschild, 1983) from the customer service sector to the field of leadership. The findings of this study contribute to both the

leadership and the emotional labor literature. In the following sections, I will discuss the results, the theoretical contributions, the implications for managers, the limitations of the research, and its implications for future research.

Interpretation of the Findings

Given that the findings concerning the effects of leaders' emotional labor were reported in the results section, in this section I will summarize (see Table 30) and interpret the effects of each form of leaders' emotional labor (i.e., surface acting, deep acting, and display of genuine emotions).

Effects of Leaders' Surface Acting on Followers' Outcomes

The effects of surface acting are summarized in the upper section of Table 30, which shows that consistent with Hypothesis 1(a), leaders' surface acting had a negative relationship with followers' transformational leadership perceptions. This finding complements research on leaders' emotion (e.g., Bono & Ilies, 2006) and suggests that the psychological process through which leaders regulate their expressions of emotions also plays a role in followers' leadership perceptions (Humphrey et al., 2008). In addition, although not hypothesized, leaders' surface acting had a negative association with followers' positive emotional reactions. This finding suggests that leaders' surface acting affects followers' emotional reactions above and beyond leaders' positive emotions (Van Kleef et al., 2009) because the influence of leaders' positive emotions on the relationship between leaders' surface acting and followers' positive emotional reactions was controlled for (see Model 2 of 10). This finding also suggests that leaders' surface acting may influence followers' emotional reactions through influencing followers' cognition rather than through emotional contagion (Hatfield et al., 1994).

Table 30. Summary of Significant Findings of the Effects of Leaders' Emotional Labor on Followers' Outcomes

No	Significant relationships	Source
1	Leaders' surface acting $\overset{-}{\rightarrow}$ Followers' transformational leadership perceptions	Table 8
2	Leaders' surface acting $\overset{-}{\rightarrow}$ Followers' positive emotional reactions	Table 10
3	Leaders' surface acting × MLPE $\overset{-}{\rightarrow}$ Followers' organizational identification	Table 24
4	Leaders' surface acting × MLNE $\overset{+}{\rightarrow}$ Followers' organizational identification	Table 25
5	Leaders' surface acting × MLPE $\overset{-}{\rightarrow}$ Followers' OCB-O	Table 26
6	Leaders' surface acting × MLNE $\overset{+}{\rightarrow}$ Followers' OCB-O	Table 29
7	Leaders' surface acting × MLNE $\overset{\pm}{\rightarrow}$ Followers' task performance	Table 27
8	Leaders' deep acting $\overset{\pm}{\rightarrow}$ Followers' emotional engagement	Table 9
9	Leaders' deep acting $\overset{\pm}{\rightarrow}$ Followers' job satisfaction	Table 20
10	Leaders' deep acting × MLNE $\overset{\pm}{\rightarrow}$ Followers' OCB-I	Table 28
11	Leaders' deep acting × MLNE $\overset{\pm}{\rightarrow}$ Followers' OCB-O	Table 29
12	Leaders' display of genuine emotions $\overset{+}{\rightarrow}$ Followers' emotional engagement	Table 9
13	Leaders' display of genuine emotions × MLPE $\overset{\pm}{\rightarrow}$ Followers' transformational leadership perceptions	Table 22
14	Leaders' display of genuine emotions × MLNE $\overset{-}{\rightarrow}$ Followers' transformational leadership perceptions	Table 23
15	Leaders' display of genuine emotions × MLPE $\overset{+}{\rightarrow}$ Followers' positive emotional reactions	Table 10
16	Leaders' display of genuine emotions $\overset{-}{\rightarrow}$ Followers' job satisfaction	Table 20
17	Leaders' display of genuine emotions $\overset{\pm}{\rightarrow}$ Followers' OCB-O	Table 21

Note: MLPE = mean leader positive emotions. MLNE = mean leader negative emotions.

As Table 30 shows, additional analyses reveal that leaders' surface acting interacted with the positive (or negative) valence of leaders' expressed emotions in influencing followers' organizational identification. Detailed analyses of the interactions reveal that followers had low levels of organizational identification when leaders reported frequently surface acting and when followers perceived leaders as expressing high levels of positive emotions (see Figure 5). In contrast, followers were high on organizational identification when leaders reported frequently surface acting and followers perceived leaders as expressing high levels of negative emotions (see Figure 6).

One explanation for the somewhat unexpected interactions might be that different information was conveyed under the above circumstances (Van Kleef et al., 2009). Since leaders' surface acting is likely to be transparent to followers (Ekman, & Friesen, 1982; Grandey et al, 2005), followers might perceive leaders' expressed positive emotions to be fake when leaders frequently surface act. Leaders' inauthentic positive emotions may be interpreted by followers that they have a low quality relationship with leaders and are not regarded as valued members of their organization because high quality leader-member relationships are characterized by exchanges of authentic emotions (Newcombs & Ashkanasy, 2002). As such, followers are less likely to tie their self-identity to their organizational membership and thus score low on organizational identification. As suggested by Humphrey et al. (2008), leaders usually display social control type of emotions (i.e., negative emotions) when followers exhibit undesirable behaviors at work, such as repeatedly being late for work. When followers perceive that leaders just pretend to have negative emotions (Ekman, & Friesen, 1982), they will interpret that leaders aren't really dissatisfied with them and allow them to become better organizational

members. Thus, followers are likely to perceive themselves as valued organizational members and be high on organizational identification.

Table 30 indicates that the relationship between leaders' surface acting and followers' OCB-O was contingent on the positive (or negative) valence of the emotions expressed by leaders. As shown in Figure 7, the relationship between leaders' surface acting and followers' OCB-O was smaller when followers perceived high levels of positive emotions expressed by leaders than when followers perceived low levels of positive emotions expressed by leaders. Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) may help us understand the interactive effect. When leaders report that they frequently surface act and followers see leaders as expressing high levels of positive emotions, followers tend to perceive the positive emotions expressed by leaders as inauthentic due to the observable nature of surface acting (Ekman & Friesen, 1982; Grandey et al., 2005). Inauthentic positive emotions suggest that leaders just pretend to be supportive of and care about followers. According to social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), followers are likely to return leaders' inauthentic consideration with low levels of OCB-O (Organ & Ryan, 1995) since OCB-O are voluntary, volitional, and not directed toward any particular individual (Organ, 1985; Williams & Anderson, 1991).

In contrast, the relationship between leaders' surface acting and followers' OCB-O was greater when followers perceived high levels of negative emotions expressed by leaders than when followers perceived low levels of negative emotions (see Figure 10). Further, as Figure 8 illustrates, leaders' surface acting interacted with the negative valence of leaders' expressed emotions in influencing followers' task performance. The relationship between leaders' surface acting and followers' task performance was greater

when followers perceived high levels of negative emotions expressed by leaders than when followers perceived low levels of negative emotions. One possible reason that these interactive effects were significant could be because followers were driven by a prevention focus to avoid real negative reactions from leaders (Higgins, 1997, 1998). Regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1997, 1998) suggests that individuals' behavior can be affected by two regulatory foci: promotion focus and prevention focus. When individuals strive to fulfill aspirations and maximize gains, they adopt a promotion focus; when individual strive to fulfill duties and obligations and minimize shortfalls, they adopt a prevention focus. Leaders' surface acting and the negative valence of leaders' expressed emotions may jointly prompt followers to take a prevention focus. Although leaders' inauthentic negative emotions may suggest that leaders are not really dissatisfied with followers, followers may perceive leaders' inauthentic negative emotions as precursors of authentic negative emotions. As such, to avoid this possibility, followers tend to be motivated to improve their in-role performance and exhibit extra-role behavior such as OCB-O to maintain their group status (Tyler & Blader, 2000). Taken together, the forgoing interactions imply that positive emotions expressed by leaders might have a deteriorating effect on the relationship between leaders' surface acting and followers' OCB-O, whereas negative emotions expressed by leaders might have a consolidating effect on the relationship between leaders' surface acting and followers' OCB-O and task performance.

Effects of Leaders' Deep Acting on Followers' Outcomes

The effects of leaders' deep acting are summarized in the middle section of Table 30. Supporting Hypothesis 2(b), leaders' deep acting had a positive relationship with

followers' emotional engagement. This finding suggests that leaders' emotional labor might influence followers' motivation, especially the extent to which followers are emotionally attached to their work roles. Further, leaders' deep acting also had a positive association with followers' job satisfaction. This may be because leaders express appropriate emotions when deep acting and thus followers have a pleasant work experience. Since deep acting needs deliberate and extended cognitive effort (Grandey, 2000; Gross, 1998), it is reasonable to argue that when deep acting, leaders carefully choose emotions pertinent to a particular situation. Implicit leadership beliefs (Den Hartog et al., 1999; Lord & Alliger, 1985), role norms, and organizational recruitment and selection practices (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987) suggest that these carefully chosen emotions appear to be constructive from a follower's perspective. As such, followers whose leaders report frequently deep acting are high on job satisfaction. In fact, this finding provides indirect support for the theoretical assumption of this study, which posits that leaders use emotional labor to express emotions that they believe to be appropriate in a given situation or interaction context (Gardner et al., 2009; Humphrey et al., 2008).

The relationships of leaders' deep acting with followers' OCB-I and OCB-O were moderated by the negative valence of leaders' expressed emotions. Plots of the interactive effects reveal that leaders' deep acting had the most positive effect on followers' OCB-I and OCB-O when followers perceived high levels of negative emotions expressed by leaders (see Figures 9 and 11). These interactive effects might also be explained by regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1997, 1998). When leaders report frequent deep acting and are seen by followers as expressing high levels of negative emotions,

followers perceive high levels of authentic negative emotions since deep acted emotions are likely to appear to be authentic (Grandey et al., 2005; Groth et al.,2009). In this case, leaders' authentic negative emotions might convey that leaders are truly dissatisfied with followers' current performance levels and expect improvements on performance (Van Kleef et al., 2009). The negative information conveyed by leaders' authentic negative emotions is likely to prompt followers to adopt a prevention focus to fulfill obligations and duties. Although OCB-I and OCB-O are extra-role behaviors that go beyond prescribed job responsibilities (Organ, 1985), they contribute to organizational effectiveness (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993) and are expected and appreciated by leaders. Thus, followers are likely to include OCB-I and OCB-O as part of their obligations and duties for being an organizational member (Tepper, Lockhart, and Hoobler, 2001) and increase OCB-I and OCB-O that are not constrained by ability or technology.

Effects of Leaders' Display of Genuine Emotions on Followers' Outcomes

The effects of leaders' display of genuine emotions are summarized in the lower section of Table 30. Consistent with Hypothesis 2(c), leaders' display of genuine emotions had a positive relationship with followers' emotional engagement. This finding suggests that leaders who frequently display genuine emotions are likely to be seen as emotionally attached to their work and serve as role models for followers (Bandura, 1977). Partially supporting Hypothesis 3(c), leaders' display of genuine emotions interacted with the positive valence of leaders' expressed emotions in influencing followers' positive emotional reactions. Probing the interaction reveals that leaders' display of genuine emotions had the most positive relationship with followers' positive

emotional reactions when followers perceived high levels of positive emotions expressed by their leaders (see Figure 2). This finding is consistent with the argument that leaders' emotional labor might influence followers' emotional reactions through emotional contagion (Hartfield et al., 1994).

As shown in Table 30, the relationship between leaders' display of genuine emotions and followers' transformational leadership perceptions was contingent on the positive (or negative) valence of leaders' expressed emotions. Plots of the interactions show that leaders' display of genuine emotions had the most positive relationship with followers' transformational leadership perceptions when followers perceived high levels of positive emotions expressed by leaders (see Figure 3) or when followers perceived low levels of negative emotions expressed by leaders (see Figure 4). These findings provide empirical support for the dramaturgical perspective of transformational leadership that leaders can purposely use verbal and non verbal behavior to influence followers' charismatic/transformational leadership perceptions (Bass, 1985; Conger & Kanungo, 1987; Gardner & Avolio, 1998). Further, the findings suggest that both leaders' emotions and the process through which leaders' emotions are expressed can play a role in the generation of transformational leadership perceptions. If we only focus on the role of emotions expressed by leaders on followers' transformational leadership perceptions, we would conclude that negative emotions expressed by leaders had a negative effect on followers' transformational leadership perceptions based on the results in Model 1 of Table 23.

Leaders' display of genuine emotions had a negative relationship with followers' job satisfaction. This might be because only a little conscious effort was involved to

ensure that emotions expressed by leaders were expected and agreeable from the follower's perspective when leaders reported frequently displaying genuine emotions (Gardner et al., 2009). It is reasonable to argue that leaders who frequently display genuine emotions, particularly negatives ones, may appear to be authentic but careless of followers' psychological needs and feelings (Ashkanasy & Humphrey, 2011). Followers who work with such leaders may have an unpleasant work experience and thus be low on job satisfaction. In fact, even after controlling for the positive or negative valence of the emotions expressed by leaders, leaders' display of genuine emotions still had a negative relationship with followers' job satisfaction (see Model 2 in Tables 24 and 25). The negative relationship between leaders' display of genuine emotions and followers' job satisfaction was robust and not contingent on the positive or negative valence of emotions expressed by leaders.

In addition, leaders' display of genuine emotions had a positive relationship with followers' OCB-O, and this relationship was not moderated by the positive or negative valence of emotions expressed by leaders (see Model 3 in both Tables 26 and 29). This could be because leaders who report frequently displaying genuine emotions are seen by followers as being candid, sincere, and trustworthy (Gardner et al., 2009). Thus, followers tend to trust those leaders (Colquitt, Scott, & LePine, 2007; Dirk & Ferrin, 2002). As suggested by the character-based model of trust (Dirk & Ferrin, 2002), when followers have trust in their leader, they are willing to put themselves at risk by engaging in increased extra-role behavior because they believe that their effort will be equitably recognized and rewarded by trusted leaders who have the power and resources to make relevant decisions (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995).

Consistent with previous studies (e.g., Zhu et al, 2009), the hypothesized relationships of transformational leadership and emotional reactions with emotional engagement (see Table 12) were supported. Further, the relationships of transformational leadership, emotional engagement, and emotional reactions with followers' job satisfaction (see Table 13) and organizational identification (see Table 14) were supported. However, some of the hypothesized relationships of transformational leadership, emotional engagement, and emotional reactions with followers' performance (i.e., task performance, OCB-I, and OCB-O) were not supported. Specifically, transformational leadership was not related to OCB-I (see Table 15); emotional engagement was not related to task performance or OCB-I (see Table 16); positive emotional reactions were not related to task performance (see Table 17). Contrary to Hypothesis 6b, negative emotional reactions were negatively rather than positively related to task performance (see Table 18). The findings complemented prior research on transformational leadership (e.g., Colbert et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2008), engagement (Rich et al., 2010; Zhu et al., 2009), and emotional reactions (e.g., Van Kleef et al., 2009).

Effects of Leaders' Emotional Labor on Leaders' Well-Being and Attitudes

Leaders' emotional labor was found to have unexpected relationships with leaders' well-being and attitudes. Specifically, and contrary to Hypotheses 7(a) and (b), leaders' surface acting was negatively related to leaders' emotional exhaustion and had an insignificant relationship with leaders' job satisfaction. Job demand and control theory (Karasek, 1979, Karasek and Theorell, 1990) may explain the negative relationship between leaders' surface acting and leaders' emotional exhaustion. This theory posits that

job demand and control can interactively influence employees' well-being: when job conditions are low in demand and high in control, employees may feel less stressful and have better well-being than when job conditions are high in demand and low in control. Unlike service providers who are expected to comply with display rules to express required emotions to customers, leaders are usually not required to display certain emotions to followers. Further, due to power and status differences, leaders have control over which emotions to express to followers. Thus, surface acting may contribute to leaders' sense of control at work and therefore leaders may experience low levels of emotional exhaustion. In addition, and contrary to Hypothesis 8, neither leaders' display of genuine emotions nor leaders' deep acting had a significant relationship with leaders' job satisfaction. These results are quite different from cumulative findings in the service sector. In the customer service literature, meta-analytic results show that surface acting had a positive relationship with emotional exhaustion and a negative relationship with job satisfaction and that deep acting was positively related to job satisfaction (Wang et al., in press). The inconsistent findings between the leadership literature and the customer service literature confirm that leaders' emotional labor deserves separate attention from service employees' emotional labor. This study contributes to both literatures.

Theoretical Contributions

This study has several theoretical contributions. First, it contributes to the leadership literature. Specifically, this study contributes to the dramaturgical perspective of transformational leadership (Bass, 1987; Conger & Kanungo, 1987; Gardner & Avolio, 1998), which posits that leaders can purposely manage positive impressions in followers in order to be perceived as transformational/charismatic. Previous research suggests that

emotional labor could be regarded as one form of an impression management strategy (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993) This study represents the first of its kind to empirically test the dramaturgical perspective of transformational leadership by examining the role of leaders' emotional labor on followers' transformational leadership perceptions. The results indicate that if leaders pretend to have the emotions they want to express (i.e., surface acting) as an impression management strategy, they are likely to fail because the strategy will be transparent to followers and the leader will be perceived as being low on transformational leadership. It appears that when leaders actually experience the emotions they want to express (i.e., deep acting) or display their genuine emotions, they do not affect followers' transformational leadership perceptions either positively or negatively. Thus, one supplement to the dramaturgical perspective of transformational leadership is that leaders should not attempt to deceive followers by using various impression management strategies to try to invoke positive impressions. Although leaders' display of genuine emotions did not have a significant relationship with followers' transformational leadership perceptions, it did have interactive effects with the positive (or negative) valence of the emotions expressed by leaders on followers' transformational leadership perceptions. The interactive effects suggest that leaders may use the display of genuine emotions as an effective impression management strategy in order to be perceived as transformational leaders by either expressing high levels of positive emotions or low levels of negative emotions.

Additionally, this study complements prior research on leaders' emotions. As reviewed earlier, this line of research has focused on the effects of leaders' emotions on followers' emotions, attitudes, performance, and team processes but has neglected the

psychological process through which leaders regulate their feelings and/or expressions of emotion, that is, leaders' emotional labor (Humphrey et al., 2008). The findings of this study show that leaders' emotional labor also plays a role in followers' attitudes and performance above and beyond leaders' emotions. After the positive or negative valence of leaders' expressed emotions was controlled for, leaders' deep acting had a positive association with followers' job satisfaction (see Model 2 in Tables 24 and 25) and leaders' display of genuine emotions had a negative relationship with followers' job satisfaction (see Model 2 in Tables 24 and 25) but a positive relationship with followers' OCB-O (see Model 2 in Tables 26 and 29).

Further, the findings of this study indicate that not only the content (i.e., the positive or negative valence) of leaders' emotions but also the processes (i.e., surface acting, deep acting, or display of genuine emotions) through which leaders regulate their feelings and/or expression of emotions matter in leadership effectiveness. As discussed previously, leaders' surface acting and the positive (or negative) valence of leaders' expressed emotions jointly influenced followers' organizational identification. Contrary to previous findings that leaders' positive emotions led to positive followers' attitudes (e.g., Newcombs & Ashkanasy, 2002), high levels of positive emotions expressed by leaders had a negative relationship with followers' organizational identification (see Figure 5) when leaders reported frequently surface acting. Further, and contrary to previous findings that leaders' negative emotions led to negative followers' attitudes (e.g., Lewis, 2000), I found that high levels of negative emotions expressed by leaders when surface acting had a positive relationship with followers' organizational identification (see Figure 6). Moreover, when leaders surface acted, high levels of positive emotions

expressed by leaders had a smaller relationship with followers' OCB-O than low levels of positive emotions expressed by leaders (see Figure 7). In other words, leaders' surface acting seemed to have undermined the positive relationship between leaders' positive emotions and followers' OCB-O. However, leaders' surface acting mitigated the negative relationship between leaders' negative emotions and followers' task performance. As shown in Figure 8, when leaders surface acted, high levels of negative emotions expressed by leaders had a less negative relationship with followers' task performance than low levels of negative emotions expressed by leaders. Further, as shown in Figures 9 and 11, when leaders reported frequently deep acting, high levels of negative emotions expressed by leaders had a positive relationship with followers' OCB-I and OCB-O respectively. In short, the above interactive effects between leaders' emotions and emotional labor suggest that it is important to take leaders' emotional labor into account when the influences of leaders' emotional behavior on follower outcomes are examined.

This study also contributes to the literature on follower motivation by empirically examining the relationship between leaders' emotional labor and followers' emotional engagement, a motivational state that reflects the extent to which followers are emotionally attached to their work roles (Kahn, 1990). Some leadership theorists (e.g., Bono & Ilies, 2006) argue that leaders' emotional displays may directly influence followers' motivation by energizing followers to allocate motivational resources to their tasks. Some leadership theorists (Erez & Izen, 2002) argue that leaders' emotional displays may influence followers' motivation by influencing followers' emotions through emotional contagion. To my knowledge, previous studies have not empirically investigated the relationship between leaders' emotional displays and followers'

motivation. Drawing upon social learning theory (Bandura, 1979), I argued that leaders who frequently perform emotional labor will be seen by followers as being emotionally attached to their work roles and would in turn influence followers' engagement in work. However, I also argued that the expected positive relationship between leaders' emotional labor and followers' emotional engagement would exist only when leaders deep acted and displayed genuine emotions. Given that followers were likely to see through leaders' surface acting behavior, I expected that leaders' surface acting might have a negative relationship with followers' emotional engagement. These arguments were partially supported in that leaders' deep acting and display of genuine emotions were positively related to followers' emotional engagement, whereas leaders' surface acting had an insignificant relationship with followers' emotional engagement (see Model 2 in Table 9). In fact, results in Model 1, Table 9 show that the positive and negative emotions expressed by leaders were insignificantly related to followers' emotional engagement. Thus, the findings in this study suggest that leaders' emotional labor (especially, deep acting and display of genuine emotions) might influence followers' motivation (i.e., engagement) above and beyond leaders' expressed emotions and thus contributes to the literature of follower motivation.

In addition, this study contributes to the emotional labor literature. The main contribution is that leaders' emotional labor appears to have different consequences than service providers' emotional labor. For example, leaders' surface acting was negatively related to leaders' emotional exhaustion. However, previous research has consistently shown that service providers' surface acting was positively related to their emotional exhaustion (e.g., Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Wang et al., in press). As discussed above,

this might be because surface acting serves as a form of job control for leaders but a form of job demand for service providers. Additionally, leaders' surface acting could be instrumental for increasing followers' task performance and OCB-O contingent on the negative valence of leaders' expressed emotions. However, service providers' surface acting was found to be negatively related to customer satisfaction and service performance (e.g., Chi et al., 2010; Liao & Chuang, 2007). Another example is that none of the three forms of leaders' emotional labor was related to leaders' job satisfaction. However, for service providers, surface acting was negatively related to job satisfaction (e.g., Bono et al., 2007; Liu, 2006), whereas deep acting and display of genuine emotions were found to be positively related to job satisfaction (e.g., John & Spector, 2007; Zhang & Zhu, 2008). This could be because performing emotional labor is an important part of service providers' job but is not part of leaders' job.

This study extends service employees' emotional labor theory (Grandey, 2000) to the leadership literature. For the first time, I showed that leaders do engage in the three types of emotional labor: surface acting, deep acting, and display of genuine emotions, which may have substantial influences on followers' leadership perceptions, motivation, emotional reactions, attitudes, and performance by themselves or interacting with the positive or negative valence of leaders' expressed emotions. Leaders report that they display genuine emotions more often than they deep act, and deep act more often than they surface act. The results are consistent with those in Glaso and Einarsen (2008) who also find that leaders express naturally felt emotions much more frequently than suppressing or faking emotions when interacting with followers. Further, the EFA results

in Table 3 demonstrate a clear 3-factor pattern structure, suggesting that the three types of emotional labor are distinct from each other.

Another theoretical contribution of this study to emotional labor theory (Grandey, 2000) is that the updated scale of display of genuine emotions shows that conscious effort was used to regulate expressions of emotion when leaders display genuine emotions (i.e., "I let my direct reports know how I really feel when it seems constructive"). Leaders' explicit control over expressions of genuine emotions was positively related to all items in the original scale. This finding provides empirical support for the theoretical argument that leaders consciously use genuine emotions to influence followers to achieve desired goals (e.g., Connelly et al, 2002; Gardner et al., 2009). This finding also indicates that leaders' display of genuine emotions is a form of emotional labor. Admittedly, the updated scale needs to be validated using service workers as study subjects before conclusions could be made that service workers use conscious effort to regulate expressions of emotion when displaying genuine emotions. In addition, the updated scale also shows high internal consistency reliability and relatively good discriminant and predictive validity, which will contribute to the flourishing of research on the nomological network around leaders' display of genuine emotions.

Last but not least, the findings of this study contribute to the emerging field of leaders' emotional labor in several ways. First, leaders' emotional labor appears to have a smaller direct influence on followers' cognition (e.g., transformational leadership perceptions) than theorists of leaders' emotional labor predict (e.g., Gardner et al., 2009; Humphrey et al., 2008). Both Gardner and colleagues and Humphrey and colleagues imply that leaders' deep acting and display of genuine emotions may have unique

positive effects on followers' leadership perceptions. However, the results of this study suggest that the relationships of leaders' deep acting and display of genuine emotions with followers' leadership perceptions are complicated. The interactive effects of leaders' display of genuine emotions and the positive (or negative) valence of leaders' expressed emotions on followers' transformational leadership perceptions suggest that theorists of leaders' emotional labor need to take the positive and negative valence of leaders' emotions into account.

Second, although theorists of leaders' emotional labor argue that leaders can use emotional labor to control emotional contagion to influence followers' emotions (Humphrey et al., 2008), the findings of this study indicate that leaders' emotional labor plays a weaker role than leaders' emotions in influencing followers' emotions. Contrary to Humphrey et al.'s (2008) prediction, leaders' deep acting and display of genuine emotions did not have significant effects on followers' emotional reactions to their leader. However, the positive and negative valence of leaders' expressed emotions did have significant impact on followers' emotional reactions. Nevertheless, leaders' display of genuine emotions helped to magnify the influence of leaders' positive emotions on followers' positive emotional reactions. The finding that leaders' surface acting had a significant negative influence on followers' positive emotional reactions suggests that emotional contagion is not the only mechanism through which leaders can influence followers' emotions. Again, the forgoing suggests that both leaders' emotional labor and emotions expressed by leaders need to be considered when developing theories regarding the role of leaders' emotional labor on followers' emotions.

Third, this study contributes to the emerging field of leaders' emotional labor by examining the direct influences of leaders' emotional labor on followers' attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction and organizational identification) and performance (i.e., task performance, OCB-I, and OCB-O). The finding that leaders' deep acting was positively related to followers' job satisfaction provides initial support for the assumption made by theorists of leaders' emotional labor that leaders engage in emotional labor to express situationally appropriate emotions (e.g., Gardner et al., 2009). However, the finding that leaders' display of genuine emotions was negatively related to followers' job satisfaction is quite surprising and would not be deduced from current theoretical research on leaders' emotional labor or from theoretical and empirical research on service employees' emotional labor (e.g., Diefendorff et al., 2005; Zhang & Zhu, 2008), which suggests that service workers' display of genuine emotions will lead to positive reactions from customers (e.g., Cote, 2005). As previously discussed, I suspect that this unexpected negative relationship between leaders' display of genuine emotions and followers' job satisfaction could be due to the possibility that leaders pay less attention to the social desirability of emotions they express than service providers who express genuine emotions that comply with display rules (Diefendorff et al., 2005).

The findings that leaders' display of genuine emotions had a positive relationship with followers' OCB-O and leaders' surface acting and deep acting interacted with the positive and negative valence of leaders' expressed emotions in influencing followers' task performance, OCB-I, and OCB-O suggests that the three forms of leaders' emotional labor affect followers' performance in different ways. However, existing theoretical research on leaders' emotional labor has not yet touched on the relationship of leaders'

emotional labor with followers' attitudes and performance. The encouraging empirical findings justify the worthiness of continuous research endeavor devoted to this area.

Finally, the findings of this study suggest that the influence of leaders' emotional labor on leaders' well-being and attitudes is less straightforward than that found for service workers. As Ashkanasy and Humphrey (2011) put it, "Although research suggests that those who use deep acting and genuine emotional expression may perform better and have better psychological reactions, the effects of emotional labor on leaders is likely to be complex" (p.375). Thus, theories or perspectives other than emotional labor theory (Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983) or emotion regulation theory (Gross, 1998) are needed in order to have a deep understanding of the role of leaders' emotional labor on leaders' well-being and attitudes. For example, for leaders who are highly identified with their leadership roles and regard emotional labor as part of their role performance, emotional labor may have a strong impact on their well-being and attitudes. In sum, this study suggests that emotional labor may have different effects in leader-follower interactions and service encounters and thus needs separate yet related theorization.

Managerial Implications

This study has important managerial implications. First, it demonstrates that leaders can use emotional labor strategies to influence followers. However, leaders need to be careful about which form of emotional labor to use. Surface acting may help improve followers' task performance and OCB-O when the followers perceive that the leader has negative emotions. But it can also lead followers to have low levels of transformational leadership perceptions or positive emotional reactions. Deep acting may elevate followers' motivation and job satisfaction. It can also elicit OCB-I and OCB-O

from followers in association with negative emotions. Expressing genuine emotions can elicit extra-role behavior such as OCB-O from followers but may also make employees less satisfied. It can lead to high levels of transformational leadership perceptions and positive emotional reactions when high levels of positive emotions are expressed. However, it can result in low levels of transformational leadership perceptions when high levels of negative emotions are expressed. Leaders need to decide on desired outcomes and then choose a specific form of emotional labor. For example, if a leader wants to stimulate a low performer to improve task performance, the leader may use a surface acting strategy and frequently express negative emotions.

Second, supervisors are advised to consider followers' feelings when expressing genuine emotions. A good approach is to suppress expressions of genuine negative emotions. Relatedly, it is better for leaders to surface act or deep act when they need to express negative emotions. This way, negative emotions expressed by leaders may prompt followers' to adopt a prevention focus to increase current performance levels (Higgins, 1997, 1998). Last but not least, this study also provides implications for personnel selection and promotion. Given the negative relationship between leaders' surface acting and followers' transformational leadership perceptions, organizations may want to select or promote managers who do not frequently surface act. As shown in Table 4, leaders' NA was strongly related to leaders' surface acting. Therefore, organizations may select or promote managers who score low on NA.

Limitations and Future Research

Despite its theoretical contributions and practical implications, this study has limitations that suggest opportunities for future research. First, scales with low coefficient

alpha were used. Specifically, the coefficient alpha for leaders' deep acting and followers' emotional engagement was .58 and .56 respectively. Both values are below the suggested cut-off alpha value of .70 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Measurement error due to low reliability may have attenuated relationships related to the two variables and thus contributed to relevant non-significant study results. Thus, an imminent opportunity for future research is to develop a reliable measure of leaders' deep acting and followers' emotional engagement respectively. One possible shortcut for developing a reliable measure of leaders' deep acting might be to reword the current items by substituting "must" and "need to" for "want to" given that unlike service providers, leaders are not obliged to express certain emotions to followers. However, a rigorous approach to developing construct measures is recommended (e.g., Hinkin, 1998; Rich et al., 2010). In addition, the ICC(2) values for MLPE and MLNE are also low, suggesting that MLPE and MLNE are measures of group mean with low reliability. The low ICC(2) values may explain why most of the hypothesized interactions (Hypotheses 3a, 3b, and 3c) between leaders' emotional labor and MLPE and MLNE were insignificant. Nevertheless, low reliabilities work against finding significant results (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Thus, results in this study represent conservative estimates of the relationships found.

Second, the multicollinearity between leaders' surface acting and display of genuine emotions may lead to large standard errors and thus insignificant results related to the two forms of leaders' emotional labor (Lindley, 1987). The highly negative correlation between the two forms of leaders' emotional labor may be due to common source (both were reported by leaders) and common method (both were measured using online surveys) biases (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Future research may employ different

sources and different methods to measure leaders' surface acting and display of genuine emotions to reduce biases and thus their muticollinearity. For example, leaders may be surveyed to self-report the extent to which they display genuine emotions and followers may be asked to report the extent to which leaders surface act using a diary or experience sampling research design. Nevertheless, the pattern of correlations among the three types of leaders' emotional labor is similar to that among the three types of service employees' emotional labor reported in prior research (e.g.,Diefendorff et al., 2005; Zhang & Zhu, 2008). the highly negative correlation between leaders' display of genuine emotions and surface acting may actually reflect the fact that leaders who like to express genuine emotions are less likely to surface act and vice versa.

Third, this study focused on the role of leaders' emotional labor in general on affecting followers' outcomes. Leaders' emotional labor was measured by asking leaders to self-report the general frequency with which they engage in emotional labor (i.e., surface acting, deep acting, and display of genuine emotions) when interacting with direct reports. However, it is possible that the frequencies with which leaders perform the three types of emotional labor toward each follower may vary. As suggested by Newcombs & Ashkanasy (2002), leaders may frequently display genuine emotions toward followers with whom they have high relationship quality and frequently surface act toward followers with whom they have low relationship quality. Thus, an interesting avenue for future research is to investigate the extent to which leaders perform emotional labor differently toward each direct report and factors that drive leaders to do so. Given that it is difficult to ask leaders to report the frequency with which they perform each type of

emotional labor toward each direct report, followers could be invited to report their leaders' emotional labor.

Fourth, this study did not take into account followers' characteristics that may influence the extent to which followers detect leaders' emotional labor. Empirical evidence suggests that individuals differ in their ability to recognize others' emotions (e.g., Joseph & Newman, 2010; Rubin et al, 2005 Wong & Law, 2002). This suggests that the influence of leaders' emotional labor on followers' outcomes may be contingent on followers' ability to recognize others' emotions. As such, a fruitful avenue for future research is to investigate the moderating effect of followers' ability to recognize others' emotions (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Wong & Law, 2002) on the relationships between leaders' emotional labor and followers' outcomes (e.g., leadership perceptions, emotional engagement, attitudes, and performance).

Fifth, although study hypotheses were developed based on theory and thus causal relationship were inferred, the survey design of this study did not allow tests of causality. For example, although leaders' surface acting was hypothesized to lead to followers' low levels of transformational leadership perceptions, it is possible that transformational leaders surface act less frequently than non transformational leaders. Thus, experimental studies are needed to examine causal relationships between leaders' emotional labor and followers' outcomes (e.g., motivation, emotional reactions, attitudes, and performance). Previous research on leaders' emotions has provided good examples of using experiments to test causal relationships (e.g., Bono & Ilies, 2006; Damen et al., 2008; Sy et al., 2005).

Finally, when relationships related to followers' emotional engagement and attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction and organizational identification) were examined, the same

leader-level variables (e.g., emotional labor, age, job satisfaction at Time 1 and so on) were assigned to each follower under the same leader. Then OLS regression was conducted given that there was not significant between-group variance after differences in organizational membership were controlled for. As Hoffman et al. (2000) pointed out, this disaggregation approach "results in the use of statistical tests that are based on the number of individuals instead of on the number of groups". As such, the standard errors for group-level variables might be underestimated and the significant results may not have been significant if HLM were used. However, given that the disaggregation approach reduces variances of group-level variables and thus reduces correlations between group-level variables and individual-level variables, the potential biases of underestimated standard errors for group-level variables on significant tests might have been cancelled out. Detailed examination of this issue is out of the scope of this study. Researchers interested in this issue are encouraged to investigate the extent to which the disaggregation approach influences results of significance tests under different scenarios.

Conclusion

The relationships of leaders' emotional labor with follower and leader outcomes have not previously been empirically investigated in the field of leadership research (Humphrey et al., 2008). This study represents the first step in examining the role of leaders' emotional labor on followers' outcomes (i.e., transformational leadership perceptions, emotional engagement, emotional reactions, job satisfaction, organizational identification, task performance, OCB-I, and OCB-O) and leaders' well-being and attitudes. The findings suggest that leaders' emotional labor plays an important role in followers' transformational leadership perceptions, positive emotional reactions,

emotional engagement, job satisfaction, and OCB-O. In addition, leaders' emotional labor and the positive (or negative) valence of emotions expressed by leaders can jointly affect followers' transformational leadership perceptions, positive emotional reactions, organizational identification, task performance, OCB-I, and OCB-O. Leaders' negative emotions might have constructive effects on followers' organizational identification, task performance, OCB-I, and OCB-O when expressed through surface and/or deep acting. Contrary to my expectations and findings in the service sector, leaders' surface acting had a negative relationship with leaders' emotional exhaustion and none of the three forms of leaders' emotional labor had a significant relationship with leaders' job satisfaction. In sum, this study reveals that leaders' emotional labor had significant associations with important follower and leader outcomes. As alluded above, future research will provide a deeper understanding of the construct of leaders' emotional labor and the effects of leaders' emotional labor on follower and leaders outcomes.

APPENDIX A LEADER SURVEYS

To be completed by supervisors (Time 1)

Leaders' emotional labor-Surface acting (Adapted from Diefendorff et al., 2005)

Section 1. Please indicate how often you do each of the following when you interact with your subordinates or direct reports by marking the circle with an X that corresponds to the frequency that is most appropriate.

No	Behavior	Rarely	Occasionally	Sometimes	Fairly often	Very often
1	I put on a "mask" in order to display appropriate emotions toward my subordinates.	O	O	O	O	O
2	I put on an act in order to deal with subordinates in an appropriate way.	O	O	O	O	O
3	I fake an appropriate mood when interacting with subordinates.	O	O	O	O	O
4	I put on a "show" or "performance" when interacting with subordinates.	O	O	O	O	O
5	I just pretend to have the emotions I need to display toward my subordinates.	O	O	O	O	O
6	I show feelings to subordinates that are different from what I feel inside.	O	O	O	O	O
7	I fake the emotions I show when dealing with subordinates.	O	O	O	O	O

Leaders' emotional labor-Deep acting (Adapted from Diefendorff et al., 2005)

Please indicate how often you do each of the following when you interact with your subordinates or direct reports by marking the circle with an X that corresponds to the frequency that is most appropriate.

No	Behavior	Rarely	Occasionally	Sometimes	Fairly often	Very often
8	I try to actually experience the emotions that I must show to my subordinates.	O	O	O	O	O
9	I make an effort to actually feel the emotions that I need to display toward my subordinates.	O	O	O	O	O
10	I work at developing the feelings inside of me that I need to show to my subordinates.	O	O	O	O	O
11	I work hard to feel the emotions that I need to show to my subordinates	O	O	O	O	O

Leaders' emotional labor-Display of genuine emotions (Adapted from Diefendorff et al., 2005)

Please indicate how often you do each of the following when you interact with your subordinates or direct reports by marking the circle with an X that corresponds to the frequency that is most appropriate.

No	Behavior	Rarely	Occasionally	Some-times	Fairly often	Very often
12	The emotions I express to my subordinates are genuine.	O	O	O	O	O
13	The emotions I show my subordinates come naturally.	O	O	O	O	O
14	The emotions I show my subordinates match what I spontaneously feel.	O	O	O	O	O
15	I purposely use my natural emotions to influence my subordinates	O	O	O	O	O
16	I am careful about the genuine emotions I show my subordinates.	O	O	O	O	O
17	I let my subordinates know how I really feel when it seems constructive	O	O	O	O	O
18	I am selective about the genuine emotions I show my subordinates.	O	O	O	O	O
19	I show my subordinates my genuine emotions.	O	O	O	O	O

Control variables

Interactional characteristics (Diefendorff et al., 2005)

Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the statements below.

No	Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
20	I interact with many different subordinates on a daily basis.	O	O	O	O	O
21	Most of my interactions with my subordinates are short.	O	O	O	O	O
23	I spend a lot of time with each subordinate I interact with.	O	O	O	O	O
24	I do not have a large number of interactions with subordinates during my typical day.	O	O	O	O	O

Organizational emotional display culture (Diefendorff et al., 2010)

Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements.

No	Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
25	There are unwritten expectations for displaying particular emotions in my organization.	O	O	O	O	O
26	The unwritten rules of my company determine which emotions should be displayed.	O	O	O	O	O
27	The culture of my company dictates the types of emotional displays that are expected.	O	O	O	O	O
28	My company has unwritten norms for displaying emotions.	O	O	O	O	O

Leaders' PANA (Watson et al., 1988)

The scale below consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Please read each item and then indicate how often you generally feel this way at work.

No	Feelings and emotions	Rarely	Occasionally	Some-times	Fairly often	Very often
29	Interested	O	O	O	O	O
30	Distressed	O	O	O	O	O
31	Excited	O	O	O	O	O
32	Upset	O	O	O	O	O
33	Strong	O	O	O	O	O
34	Guilty	O	O	O	O	O
35	Scared	O	O	O	O	O
36	Hostile	O	O	O	O	O
37	Enthusiastic	O	O	O	O	O
38	Proud	O	O	O	O	O
39	Irritable	O	O	O	O	O
40	Alert	O	O	O	O	O
41	Ashamed	O	O	O	O	O
42	Inspired	O	O	O	O	O
43	Nervous	O	O	O	O	O
44	Determined	O	O	O	O	O
45	Attentive	O	O	O	O	O
46	Jittery	O	O	O	O	O
47	Active	O	O	O	O	O
48	Afraid	O	O	O	O	O

Demographics

Please answer the following questions by marking the circle with an X in front of the option that is most appropriate under each question:

How old are you?

O Under 21 Years Old O 21 – 30 Years Old O 31 – 40 Years Old
O 41 – 50 Years Old O 51 – 60 Years Old O Over 60 Years Old

Your gender?

O Male O Female

How long have you worked for your current employer?

O Less than 6 Months O 6 Months to 1 Year O 1 - 2 Years
O 3 - 5 Years O 6 – 10 Years O Over 10 Years

How long have you been in a leadership/supervisory role (not limited to your current employer?

O Less than 6 Months O 6 Months to 1 Year O 1 - 2 Years
O 3 - 5 Years O 6 – 10 Years O Over 10 Years

What is your highest level of education?

O High School Diploma / GED O Some college but less than Associates Degree
O Associates Degree O Bachelors Degree
O Masters Degree O Beyond Masters Degree

To be completed by supervisors (Time 2)

Leaders' job satisfaction (Edwards & Rothbard, 1999)

Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements.

No	Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1	In general, I am satisfied with this job.	O	O	O	O	O
2	All in all, the job I have is great.	O	O	O	O	O
3	My job is very enjoyable.	O	O	O	O	O

Leaders' emotional exhaustion (Wharton, 1993)

Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements.

No	Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
4	I feel emotionally drained from my work.	O	O	O	O	O
5	I feel used up at the end of the work day.	O	O	O	O	O
6	I dread getting up in the morning and having to face another day on the job.	O	O	O	O	O
7	I feel burned out from my work	O	O	O	O	O
8	I feel frustrated by my job.	O	O	O	O	O
9	I feel I'm working too hard on my job.	O	O	O	O	O

Follower task performance (Turnley et al., 2003)

You are invited to evaluate each of your subordinates using the items below. Please fill out the name of your subordinate and indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements as they relate to the subordinate that you are evaluating.

No	Subordinate behavior	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
10	Fulfills all the responsibilities specified in his/her job description.	O	O	O	O	O
11	Consistently meets the formal performance requirements of the job.	O	O	O	O	O
12	Conscientiously performs tasks that are expected of him/her.	O	O	O	O	O
13	Adequately completes all of his/her assigned duties.	O	O	O	O	O
14	Performs essential duties of the job.	O	O	O	O	O
15	Pays attention to aspects of the job that he/she is obligated to perform.	O	O	O	O	O

Follower OCB-I (Williams & Anderson, 1991)

You are invited to evaluate each of your subordinates using the items below. Please fill out the name of your subordinate and indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements as they relate to the subordinate you are evaluating.

No	Subordinate behavior	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
16	Willingly gives time to aid others who have work-related problems.	O	O	O	O	O
17	Generally helps others who have heavy workloads.	O	O	O	O	O
18	Generally takes time to listen to coworkers' problems and worries.	O	O	O	O	O
19	Passes along work-related information to coworkers.	O	O	O	O	O

Follower OCB-O (Welbourne, Johnson & Erez, 1998)

The following items describe a subordinate's behavior. You are requested to evaluate each of your subordinates using the items below. Please fill out the name of your subordinate and indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements as they relate to the subordinate you are evaluating.

No	Subordinate behavior	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
20	Does things to promote the company.	O	O	O	O	O
21	Works for the overall good of the company.	O	O	O	O	O
22	Helps so that the company is a good place to be.	O	O	O	O	O
23	Does thing that help others when it’s not part of the job.	O	O	O	O	O

APPENDIX B FOLLOWER SURVEY

To be completed by Subordinates

Follower reports of leaders' valence of emotions (Adapted from Bono et al., 2007)

Section 1. Please indicate how often your direct supervisor expresses the following emotions when interacting with you. Mark the circle with an X that corresponds to the frequency that is most appropriate.

No	Behavior	Rarely	Occasionally	Sometimes	Fairly often	Very often
1	Happiness	O	O	O	O	O
2	Enthusiasm	O	O	O	O	O
3	Optimism	O	O	O	O	O
4	Excitement	O	O	O	O	O
5	Interest	O	O	O	O	O
6	Frustration	O	O	O	O	O
7	Disappointment	O	O	O	O	O
8	Anger	O	O	O	O	O
9	Anxiety	O	O	O	O	O
10	Irritation	O	O	O	O	O

Follower emotional engagement (May et al., 2004)

Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the statements below

No	Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
29	I really put my heart into my job.	O	O	O	O	O
30	I get excited when I perform well on my job.	O	O	O	O	O
31	I often feel emotionally detached from my job (reverse coded).	O	O	O	O	O
32	My own feelings are affected by how well I perform my job.	O	O	O	O	O

Follower transformational leadership perceptions (MLQ Form-5X; Bass & Avolio, 1995)

Due to copyright restrictions, specific items were omitted.

Follower positive emotional reactions (adapted from Bono et al., 2007 and Van Kleef et al., 2009)

Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the statements below.

No	Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
53	My supervisor makes me enthusiastic.	O	O	O	O	O
54	My supervisor makes me feel good.	O	O	O	O	O
55	My supervisor makes me feel energetic.	O	O	O	O	O
56	My supervisor makes me feel optimistic.	O	O	O	O	O

Follower negative emotional reactions (adapted from Bono et al., 2007 and Van Kleef et al., 2009)

Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the statements below.

No	Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
57	My supervisor makes me feel disappointed.	O	O	O	O	O
58	My supervisor makes me feel angry.	O	O	O	O	O
59	My supervisor makes me feel bad.	O	O	O	O	O
60	My supervisor makes me feel frustrated.	O	O	O	O	O

Follower job satisfaction (Edwards & Rothbard, 1999)

Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the statements below.

No	Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
61	In general, I am satisfied with this job.	O	O	O	O	O
62	All in all, the job I have is great.	O	O	O	O	O
63	My job is very enjoyable.	O	O	O	O	O

Follower organizational identification (Mael & Ashforth, 1992)

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statements below.

No	Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
64	When someone criticizes my organization, it feels like a personal insult.	O	O	O	O	O
65	When I talk about my organization to others, I usually say "we" rather than "they".	O	O	O	O	O
66	My organization’s successes are my successes.	O	O	O	O	O
67	When someone praises my organization, it feels like a personal compliment.	O	O	O	O	O
68	If a story in a local newspaper criticized my organization, I would feel embarrassed.	O	O	O	O	O
69	I am very interested in what others think about my organization.	O	O	O	O	O

Control variables

Followers' PANA (Watson et al., 1988)

The scale below consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Please read each item and then indicate how often you generally feel this way.

No	Feelings and emotions	Very slightly or not at all	A little	Moderately	Quite a bit	Extremely
70	Interested	O	O	O	O	O
71	Distressed	O	O	O	O	O
72	Excited	O	O	O	O	O
73	Upset	O	O	O	O	O
74	Scared	O	O	O	O	O
75	Enthusiastic	O	O	O	O	O
76	Inspired	O	O	O	O	O
77	Determined	O	O	O	O	O
78	Jittery	O	O	O	O	O
79	Afraid	O	O	O	O	O

Demographics

Please answer the following questions by marking the circle with an X in front of the option that is most appropriate under each question:

How old are you?

O Under 21 Years Old O 21 – 30 Years Old O 31 – 40 Years Old
O 41 – 50 Years Old O 51 – 60 Years Old O Over 60 Years Old

Your gender?

O Male O Female

How long have you worked for your current employer?

O Less than 6 Months O 6 Months to 1 Year O 1 - 2 Years
O 3 - 5 Years O 6 – 10 Years O Over 10 Years

How long have you been working under your current supervisor?

O Less than 6 Months O 6 Months to 1 Year O 1 - 2 Years
O 3 - 5 Years O 6 – 10 Years O Over 10 Years

What is your highest level of education?

O High School Diploma / GED O Some college but less than Associates Degree
O Associates Degree O Bachelors Degree O Beyond Bachelors

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