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MANAGERS' QUEST TO CONTROL THE HEART:  
HR PRACTICES FOR EMPLOYEES' EMOTIONAL DISPLAYS

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## Abstract

As employment within the service sector continues to grow, the study of emotional labor, or the regulation of emotions in order to meet organizational expectations (Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983), has become more important. Case studies and qualitative investigations exist on the formal human resource practices used by organizations in attempts to control the emotions employees express to customers, some of which include selection, socialization, monitoring, rewards, and training (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). There has been little research, however, that has systematically documented the extent to which managers across or within service industries use such practices for emotional labor specifically (Diefendorff, Gabriel, & Leung, 2010). Through qualitative and quantitative data, the present study furthers our understanding of emotional labor management in three ways. First, the importance store managers place on emotional labor compared to other customer service behaviors and skills is investigated. In comparison to other dimensions of customer service (i.e. efficiency, competency), do managers believe that emotional displays are of more, less, or of equal importance? Second; what practices do managers report using to motivate employees' emotions, and do these emotional labor practices vary by the service context? Lastly, if managers prioritize emotional labor are they more likely to use formal practices? Qualitative results from Study 1 indicate that selection for emotion job-fit was the most commonly reported practice and managers use immediate controlling practices (monitoring and social feedback) at a similar rate to investment practices (training and rewards) across five service industries. Study 2, which focused on managers within one type of industry where often times there are lower-skilled, young employees, indicates different results. Although managers were more likely to select applicants for emotional skills rather than implement investment practices like training and rewards, they most commonly reported using the immediate controlling practices of role modeling and social feedback. Managers rated courteous treatment of customers as the highest service priority. EL priority, or managing emotions with customers, was similarly important compared to accuracy and efficiency and more important than having product knowledge and meeting customers' special needs. Training was least likely to be used overall, but manager's priority for EL predicted when they were likely to invest in EL by training (or not). EL based selection, rewards, punishment, and role-modeling were not more or less likely if EL was a priority.

*Keywords:* emotional labor, management, human resource practices

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## Introduction

Emotional labor occurs when emotions are managed for a wage and in response to display rules of an organization or job (Hochschild, 1983). Display rules, or norms for how one should feel and act, direct and motivate employees' emotional behavior. Emotional labor occurs in jobs where interaction with the public is frequent and management expects employees to evoke specific feelings in customers (Hochschild, 1983). Hochschild (1983) defined jobs that involve emotional labor as those that (1) require face-to-face or voice-to-voice contact with the public, (2) require the worker to produce an emotional state in another person, and (3) "allow the employer ... to exercise a degree of control over the emotional activities of employees" predominately in low status, non-professional jobs. For example, a customer service employee may smile and use a friendly demeanor to gain repeat business (Hochschild, 1983; Sutton, 1991; Van Maanen & Kunda, 1989) while a bank teller must maintain composure and display positive emotions during interpersonal transactions (Pugh, 2001).

Employment within the service sector continues to grow and has surpassed the manufacturing sector as the lead of the economy. Thus, interactions between employees and customers have become more frequent (World Bank Growth, 2000), increasing the importance of emotional labor research. Display rules provide employees with a road map to navigate these customer interactions in a way that will benefit the organization. However, display rules are often not explicitly stated by organizations, but exist as unwritten norms (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Cropanzano, Weiss, & Elias, 2004; Grandey & Brauburger, 2002). Despite this, the majority of employees and supervisors consider behaviors related to expressing positive emotions and suppressing negative emotions to be in-role activities (Diefendorff, Richard, & Croyle, 2006). In other words, employees believe that emotional displays are part of their job

and expected of them by the organization. organizations are thus described as specifying and controlling the emotional displays of employees (Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983; Morris & Feldman, 1996; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987).

Organizations must communicate display rules to employees regarding appropriate emotions to express to customers. Many case studies and qualitative investigations exist on the formal human resource practices used by organizations in attempts to control the emotions employees express to customers, some of which include selection, socialization, monitoring, rewards, and training (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). Little research, however, has systematically documented to what extent managers use such practices for emotional labor specifically (Diefendorff, Gabriel, & Leung, 2010). Furthermore, the importance managers place on emotional labor relative to other service-related behaviors and skills is unknown. Understanding such values may predict when and what types of practices are used.

The present study aims to further our understanding of emotional labor management in three ways. First, the importance store managers place on emotional labor compared to other customer service behaviors and skills will be investigated. In comparison to other dimensions of customer service (i.e. efficiency, competency), do managers believe that emotional displays are of more, less, or equal importance? Second; what practices do managers report using to motivate employee's emotions, and do these emotional labor practices vary by the service context? Lastly, if managers prioritize emotional labor are they more likely to use formal practices? To answer these questions, I examine qualitative and quantitative responses from managers in a variety of service companies and regions in the United States.

### **Customer Service**

Growth in the service industry has increased competition among service providers and has

forced organizations to focus largely on the quality of service provided to customers and clients. (Schneider & Bowen, 1995; Zeithaml, Parasuraman, & Berry, 1990). If organizations wish to improve their quality of services, they should identify the characteristics and dimensions of customer service, in contrast to other types of work. Most services are *intangible*. These services cannot be counted, measured, tested, or verified in advance of the sale to assure quality. Consequently, the organization may find it difficult to understand how consumers perceive and evaluate their services (Zeithaml et al., 1990; Zeithaml, 1981). There may be differences between the organization's view of service quality and the consumer's view of service quality. In addition, services are heterogeneous in that service performance is interpersonal and varies from provider-to-provider, customer-to-customer, and day-to-day. Thus, consistency of behavior is difficult to assure. Lastly, production and consumption of many services are inseparable and often occur simultaneously. Quality occurs during the service delivery, and the consumer's input is critical to the quality of service performance (Zeithaml et al., 1990; Zeithaml, 1981).

Service quality is inherently more difficult to evaluate than goods quality. Tangible cues, such as style, color, and design, exist to help a consumer judge quality when purchasing a good. However, when a consumer purchases a service, tangible evidence is limited to three dimensions of service performance: physical facilities, equipment, and personnel (Sasser, Olsen, & Wyckoff, 1978). Thus, service quality involves the outcome of the service along with the process (the manner in which the service is delivered). In addition, Lehtinen and Lehtinen (1982) identified three quality dimensions of service, which include physical quality, corporate quality, and interactive quality. Interactive quality, or the interaction between employees and consumers is central to the current study and will be discussed shortly. Although service quality

is difficult to evaluate, it is important to identify what consumers expect and perceive as quality service.

Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry (1985) identified ten determinants of service quality that consumers use. These determinants include reliability (consistency of performance and dependability), responsiveness (willingness or readiness of employees to provide service), competence (required skill and knowledge to perform the service), access (approachability and ease of contact), courtesy (politeness, respect, consideration, and friendliness), communication (keeping customers informed in language they understand), credibility (trustworthiness, believability, and honesty), security (freedom from danger, risk, or doubt) understanding/knowing (understanding customer's need), and tangibility (physical evidence of the service). Zeithaml et al. (1990) further reduced these determinants to the following five dimensions of service quality (SERVQUAL): reliability (ability to perform the promised service dependably and accurately), responsiveness (willingness to help customers and provide prompt service), assurance (employees' knowledge, competence, and courtesy and their ability to inspire trust and confidence), empathy (easy access, communication, understanding the customer, and individualized attention), and tangibles (physical facilities, equipment, appearance of personnel.)

As indicated by these dimensions, interactive quality (interaction between employees and customers) is critical to the consumer's service experience. Consumers' perceptions of quality are not only influenced by reliability and competence, but also responsiveness, access, credibility, courtesy, communication, and understanding on behalf of the employee. The latter dimensions require employees to possess interpersonal skills and control over their emotions while they interact with consumers. They must not only provide adequate service delivery, such as efficient service and technical skills, but affect-delivery, which includes interpersonal skills



that result in “service with a smile” and genuineness. Employees must induce certain feelings in the customer (i.e., trust, comfort, interest). To accomplish this, employees must express organizationally-desired emotions during service transactions, known as emotional labor (Hochschild, 1983).

### **Emotional Labor**

Since Hochschild coined the term emotional labor in 1983, research surrounding this idea has grown exponentially. The concept has broadened and evolved as experts in various disciplines offer different perspectives on what constitutes emotional labor. Three major conceptualizations of emotional labor stemming from sociology, organizational behavior, and psychology have emerged. Although there are significant differences in the central concepts, measurement approach, and proposed outcomes, the general underlying assumption of each conceptualization is consistent in that emotional labor involves managing employee’s emotions so that they align with organizational or occupational display rules (Grandey, Diefendorff, & Rupp, in press). The present study will focus on the conceptualization of emotional labor as emotional displays, the organizational behavior perspective (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987).

Rafaeli and Sutton (1987, 1989) argued for the importance of considering emotional displays within the organizational sciences and emphasized that emotional displays are part of the job performance. They recognized that display rules, or emotional expectations, are influenced by social, organizational, and occupational norms and expectations and that emotional expressions can be positive (i.e., waitress) or negative (i.e., bill collector). Further, Diefendorff et al. (2006) found that display-related behaviors were thought to be required in-role activities by the majority of employees and supervisors. Job-based differences in interpersonal requirements

predicted the extent to which employees and supervisors categorized display-related behaviors as required, with more interpersonal requirements being associated with greater in-role categorization. Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) also defined emotional labor as the act of displaying the emotions specified by the organization. They acknowledged that emotional displays that meet organizational expectations are emotional labor, whether they require effort on behalf of the employee or not. In addition, Rafaeli and Sutton (1987) noted that three primary variables are involved in managing emotional displays: emotional requirement (i.e., display rules), feelings, and expressions. Discrepancies between requirements, feelings, and expressions result in “emotional deviance” and the absence of discrepancies results in “emotional harmony” for the employee (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). Emotional display rules represent the point at which organizational objectives, policies, and practices interface with individual emotional management and individual emotional labor occurs in response to display rules that are implicitly or explicitly communicated by organizational norms, policies, and practices (Pugh, Diefendorff, & Moran, in press).

Display rules are influenced by social, organizational, and occupational norms and expectations. How do organizations communicate and enforce organization-specific emotional display rules? Research thus far, predominately conducted via case studies, has focused on the informal and formal organizational influences used to control the emotional displays of employees. In the subsequent section, I will review the practices of selection, training, socialization, performance appraisal, and rewards that are used to control emotional displays.

### **Emotional Labor Management Practices**

The organizational context encompasses formal and informal practices used by an organization to influence emotions displayed by employees (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). The

acquisition and development of an organization's human capital is influenced by Human Resource Management (HRM) practices. For instance, recruiting procedures that provide a large pool of qualified applicants, combined with a rigorous selection process, will have a large impact on the quality and type of skills new employees possess. Formal and informal human resource practices, such as basic skills training, mentoring, socialization, monitoring and rewards, and social norms and culture, can further enhance employees' performance (Huselid, 1995). The subsequent sections will explore the ways in which formal and informal practices are used to manage emotional labor specifically.

### **Formal Practices: Selection and Recruitment**

Selection appears to be one of the primary tools organizations use in attempts to fill positions with employees who will have "emotional harmony," meaning that their emotions are consistent with the norms of the organization (Rafaeli and Sutton, 1987). Hochschild (1983) found that Delta Airlines used in-depth interviews to ensure that flight attendants were upbeat and outgoing, and conducted a trial period to determine whether newly hired attendants had the emotional stamina to demonstrate positive affect during long, crowded flights. McDonalds, another organization studied, produced a manual that urges managers to select employees who appear to be "All-American boys and display positive traits like sincerity, confidence, and a sense of humor" (Boas & Chain, 1976, p. 84 as cited in Rafaeli and Sutton, 1987) while Van Maanen's (1991) qualitative study on Disneyland describes that the staff is vigorously screened.

In addition to describing practices used to control emotional labor, researchers have recommended the use of certain selection practices to increase employees' performance. Employee attitudes and performance will be enhanced when employees perceive that their

abilities and values align with their work context and when they are able to satisfy their psychological needs for autonomy, relatedness, and competence (Gagne & Deci, 2005). With this knowledge, selection systems should be designed to maximize the person-job fit between new hires and organizations. The fit perspective assumes that the match between emotional demands and abilities is the key determinant of success and that differing levels of emotional ‘abilities’ are best for different jobs. When there is a strong person-job fit, less acting is needed on behalf of the employee (Arvey, Renz, Watson et al., 1998). Researchers have suggested that organizations should provide specific information in their advertisements about the organization and open positions, which will allow potential candidates to more accurately assess their fit with the work context (Feldman, Bearden, & Hardesty, 2006). Using realistic job previews (RJPs), or the presentation by an organization of both favorable and unfavorable job-related information to candidates (Rynes, 1991), may also help applicants make more informed decisions about their fit with the organization (Vandenberg & Scarpello, 1990). Specifically, if RJPs include information about the emotional demands of the job and the organizational display rules and expectations, applicants will have the opportunity to determine for themselves whether they feel they can fulfill such requirements and subsequently continue or discontinue the application process.

### **Training and Socialization**

Emotional labor training includes training for interpersonal skills (how to regulate emotions) and training for knowledge concerning values and norms (organizational display rules and expectations). Emotional regulation training emphasizes deep acting (i.e., adjusting one’s feelings about an interaction so that emotional expressions are consistent with expectations) while training for knowledge emphasizes surface acting (i.e., changing one’s expression only) (Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983).

Hochschild (1983) described the emotional labor training, specifically deep acting training, that Delta Airline flight attendants underwent in emotional regulation. This training instructed employees to modify feelings by thinking of passengers as personal guests in their own homes and taught employees to reappraise situations in order to feel more positive. In addition, employees underwent reappraisal training to learn how to avoid their own feelings of anger by focusing on what the other person is thinking.

Other service organizations use training for knowledge of display rules and emphasize surface acting. At the University of Disney Land, where employees receive training and orientation, the training manual emphasized wide smiles as vital to park operations (Van Maanen & Kunda, 1991). Van Maanen and Kunda (1989) and Kuenz (1995) reported that Walt Disney World uses classes, handbooks, and billboards to teach employees appropriate display rules and emotions they must convey to "guests" at Walt Disney World. "You were cast for a role, not hired for a job" and "Our audience is composed of guests not customers...and we as cast members are hosts and hostesses... (Walt Disney World Productions, 1982, p.2). The organizational culture is taught and maintained through the use of such metaphors that place an emphasis on friendly behavior. Further, McDonald's trained its employees for knowledge of organizational norms and expectations by requiring employees to follow tight scripts in order to ensure that the correct display rules were being performed (Leidner, 1996). Perceptions of emotional labor training opportunities predicted more effective emotion regulation, lower emotional exhaustion, and better supervisor ratings of displays on the job (Diefendorff et al., 2010), indicating that training can be quite beneficial for organizations. Though training for emotions may be seen as controlling (Hochschild, 1983), Grabarek (2009) found no difference in reactions to training for emotions versus training for cognitions.

## **Management: Monitoring and Rewards**

While training aims to provide employees with emotional regulation skills and/or knowledge of display rules, performance appraisal techniques are used to monitor whether employees are, indeed, demonstrating the appropriate emotions. Stanton (2000) discussed that performance monitoring involves the observation, examination, recording, and feedback of employee work behaviors and may exist in “traditional” or “electronic” forms. Traditional forms include direct observation, listening to calls, work sampling, and self-report while “electronic” performance monitoring involves the automatic collection of quantitative data (i.e., key strokes, call time). For instance, reporter McNichol (1998) found that the supermarket chain Safeway utilized secret shoppers to monitor employees' emotional displays. Those who accumulated low performance scores were sent to an 8-hour "Smile School". In addition, Van Maanen and Kunda (1991) found that supervisors throughout the park constantly monitored Disney World employees because a rude employee could potentially cost Disney future "guests". Tolich (1993) found that in addition to direct supervision and monitoring of clerk-customer interactions by management, customers were encouraged to evaluate clerks' performances.

Holeman, Chissick, and Totterdell (2002) examined performance monitoring in call centers by looking at its performance-related content (i.e., immediacy of feedback, clarity of performance criteria), its beneficial-purpose (i.e., development rather than punitive aims), and its perceived intensity. They found that performance-related content and beneficial-purpose of monitoring were related to greater well-being while the perceived intensity of monitoring had a strong negative association with well-being. Lastly, bill collectors, too, were monitored routinely and provided with written feedback. This feedback was used as a basis for praise and criticism and as a guide for decisions regarding raises, promotions, and firing (Sutton, 1991).

While training and socialization teaches which emotions are expected, monitoring, rewards and punishments maintain or alter such behaviors. Organizations use managers or customers to monitor employees and then rewards may be given based on these observations. Some employees may perceive display rules and realize that they are not displaying the appropriate emotion, but still fail to put forth effort needed to do so (Diefendorff & Gosserand, 2003). Such individuals may lack the motivation or commitment to display organizationally desired emotions. Diefendorff and Croyle (2008) found that linking positive displays to compensation and praise made the display more valuable and increased employee confidence by allowing them to better focus their effort and attention on the expected display. As such, their confidence for displaying the appropriate emotion increased and lead to greater display rule commitment.

Other reward systems are implemented within stores to increase employees' engagement in emotional displays. In employee courtesy contests, clerks who demonstrate appropriate emotional displays, such as smiling, greeting customers, and expressing thanks, may receive prizes (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). Sutton (1991) found that bill collectors were rewarded and punished for how well they followed the emotional display rules of the organization. Raises, promotions, cash prizes, gifts, and praise were used to encourage good emotional labor performance while criticisms, warnings, demotions and firings were used to sanction poor performing collectors.

### **Informal Practices: Social Norms and Culture**

Emotional displays are taught informally in organizations through stories and actions taken by role models. Storytelling enables newcomers to engage in vicarious learning about emotional displays. As they listen to the story, they imagine how they would have acted and develop a sense of what emotions are appropriate (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). Due to social learning

(Bandura, 1977), newcomers may learn about emotional displays by observing and imitating co-workers that serve as role models in the organization. The culture of an organization also influences whether employees follow the emotional display rules. Culture is best viewed as “collective systems governed by socially relevant rules and meanings that members draw on to carry out and make sense of their work activities and relations with others” (Kunda & Van Maanen, 1999, p 67). Cultures that positively impact employees’ psychological need satisfactions will increase the likelihood of employees following the emotional display rules of an organization. Deci, Connell, and Ryan (1989) describe that management styles that support autonomy needs, reward structures or performance systems that provide feedback about one’s competency, or organizationally sponsored events (i.e., retreats) that satisfy relatedness needs are expected to increase employee need satisfactions. In turn, organizational cultures that promote psychological need satisfaction increase employee internalization of the organizations’ values and norms (Lynch, Plant, & Ryan, 2005). Thus, such practices will increase the likelihood that employees internalize and behave consistently with emotional display rules.

### **Comparing Practices**

Many case studies exist demonstrating *organization*-specific examples of practices used to shape emotional displays such as selection, socialization, training, and performance management within Disney and call centers (e.g., Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987; Van Maanen & Kunda, 1989). However, little quantitative research has systematically documented the extent to which *management* within and across service industries and organizations tend to use formal (or informal) practices to control for emotional displays. It has also not yet been determined how much managers actually prioritize emotional behaviors beyond other service-related skills (i.e., efficiency), and how this value influence the practices used. The present study



aims to further our understanding of practices used to manage emotional labor by taking a comprehensive manager-focused approach, rather than focusing on one type of practice (Holman et al., 2002; Grabarek et al., 2009), one organization (Van Maanen & Kunda, 1989), or on employee-perceptions of the practices (Diefendorff & Croyle, 2008).

Selection, a common HR practice, is used to obtain strong person-job fit and it may be used as a tool by managers to control for EL in employees. Arvey, Renz and Watson (1998) made several assumptions regarding emotions in the workplace that are helpful in describing why managers may select employees with emotional behavior in mind. First, emotions are common in the work place and produce both positive and negative work outcomes. Second, people have stable individual differences in their predispositions to experience certain types of emotions and the intensity and duration of their displayed emotions. Lastly, "...while emotions are generally considered to be responses to specific stimuli and environments, individuals have stable, consistent patterns of emotional response that generalize across stimuli and environments" (Arvey, Renz & Watson, 1998, p. 105). Thus, such stable patterns of emotional responses may allow for the prediction of both the individual's emotional responses to job demands and the resulting behaviors that may impact job performance. As such, work performance can be improved by properly matching people and jobs in terms of emotionality during selection producing a strong person-job fit.

When discussing selection, it is important to address the attraction-selection-attrition (ASA) theory. The ASA framework is based on the premise that similar people are attracted to and selected by organizations whose goals are similar to their own and attracted to organizations that will allow them to attain their individual goals (B. Schneider, 1987). Thus, managers may look for personality traits in applicants that will fit the emotional demands of the job. Several

authors have argued that Person-Organizational fit criteria are included in the selection process (Chatman, 1989; Ferris & Judge, 1991). These researchers suggest that managers are reluctant to abandon the interview, despite its questionable reliability and validity, because it is the most effective way of selecting applicants who appear to fit well with the organization (Harris, 1989). Reinforcing this, Karren and Graves (1994) found that the structured interview is one of the most effective ways to assess an applicant's fit with an organization. In addition, the call center Telebank, for example, spends the majority of the selection process assessing social characteristics and competencies, and management looks for certain personality traits, such as a "positive attitude" (Callaghan & Thompson, 2002). Thus, Telebank hires for attitude and ensures that the individual possesses certain competencies and traits that will allow them to successfully manage their emotions.

Why else may managers be likely to select for EL? Due to the popularity of emotional intelligence (EI), some managers may believe that one's ability to engage in EL is internal. In his best-selling book in 1995, Goleman proposed that people differ in their levels of "emotional intelligence" which he defined as their ability to produce effective adaptive responses when experiencing emotion. Due to the increasing popularity of EI, it is not surprising that organizations, such as L'Oreal, select employees on the basis of certain emotional competences (McClelland, 1999). Thus,

*Hypothesis 1:* Selection for emotion job-fit will be the most commonly used practice overall.

Often times there is an underlying logic to the Human Resource Management (HRM) practices an organization chooses to use; certain policies and practices fit together (Osterman, 1987a). Osterman (1994) found that firms valuing employee commitment are less likely to use

temporary employees and are more likely to invest in high performance work practices (HPWPs), defined as HR practices that are considered performance enhancing, and include incentive compensation, training, employee participation, and flexible work arrangements (Huselid, 1995; Pfeffer, 1998). Such HPWPs, specifically training and rewards, are cost-effective in organizations that wish to foster employee commitment as they increase productivity and long-term financial performance (Huselid, 1995). Based on this logic, one may expect that in service organizations, where turnover rates often exceed 100 percent annually (Kacmar, et al., 2006), management will focus less on training and rewards and instead rely on social influences that are effective in the short-term and day-to-day. As a result, managers in the service industry may be more likely to use immediate on-the-job monitoring and role modeling, rather than investing in employees in the form of development (training) and resources (rewards).

*Hypothesis 2:* Managers will use immediate controlling practices (monitoring, role modeling, social feedback) rather than investment practices (training, rewards) to control for emotional displays.

### **Comparing Dimensions of Customer Service**

Customer service employees must not only provide adequate service delivery, such as efficient service and adequate technical skills, but also affect-delivery, which includes interpersonal skills that result in “service with a smile” and genuineness. How do managers prioritize emotional displays compared to other valued service behaviors (i.e., efficiency, product knowledge) and how does this value influence the practices used?

“Service with a smile” (i.e., showing friendliness, hiding annoyance) is a norm within the United States (Albrecht & Zemke, 1985), and customers expect to be treated well by employees throughout their service experience. Organizations must meet a standard and are held

accountable for customer satisfaction (Albrecht & Zemke, 1985). In their Gap Model, Zeithaml et al. (1990), define quality of services as the gap between a customer's expectations for the service and his perceptions about what was actually delivered. The higher the perceptions are relative to the expectations, the higher the service quality will be. As previously discussed, Zeithaml et al. (1990) identify five dimensions of service quality (SERVQUAL): reliability, responsiveness, assurance, empathy, and tangibles. Despite the increasing importance of "service with a smile", they found the dimension with the highest importance to be reliability (ability to perform the promised service dependably and accurately). In each of their thirteen customer surveys, respondents rated reliability as the single most important feature in judging service quality. They also asked more than 1900 customers of five large, well-known U.S. companies to allocate a total of 100 points across the five service dimensions and found that the highest percent of the points were placed on reliability (Berry, Parasuraman, & Zeithaml, 1994). According to Berry et al. (1994), reliability is the core of quality service and little else matters to customers when a service is unreliable. "When a firm makes frequent mistakes in delivery, when it doesn't keep its promises, customers lose confidence in the firm's ability to do what it promises dependably and accurately. Friendliness from the staff and sincere apologies do not compensate for unreliable service" (Berry et al., 1994, p.34). Additional work by Carman (1990) demonstrates that although some of the weaker dimensions are subject to change based on the type of service studied, reliability appeared important in all cases. Although these findings are based on the customer's perspective, it is possible that this value has been directly or indirectly communicated to managers. Thus, I predict that

*Hypothesis 3:* "Service with a smile" (e.g., showing friendliness, hiding annoyance) will be rated by management as less important than task-oriented behavior (accuracy and

efficiency).

The value a manager places on emotional labor may match the frequency in which they use practices to manage emotional labor. Work-family practice literature suggests that the response an employee receives from a request for an alternative work arrangement depends on the manager's personal beliefs and past experiences with balancing work and family (Powell & Mainiero, 1999). This finding may very well translate into EL literature. Therefore, the amount of time and money a manager invests in EL practices may depend on their personal values and prioritization of EL. Grabarek (2009) found that people in jobs where customer contact is central to their work report receiving more training about emotions and how to regulate them. Previous research also suggests that supervisors who place greater importance on interpersonal job demands will signal to workers that they are important to the job. In return, workers may model their behavior after their supervisors and pay more attention to the interpersonal aspects of their job (Diefendorff & Richard, 2003; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). Similarly, Wilk and Moynihan (2005) found a significant relationship between the importance supervisors in call centers place on interpersonal job demands and the monitoring hours per subordinate. Managers may be more willing to invest in cost and time intensive practices when they prioritize emotional labor compared to managers who do not.

*Hypothesis 4:* The greater priority managers place on emotional labor, the more likely they will use EL practices.

### **Current Aims**

I will examine the emphasis managers put on emotional labor as compared to other dimensions of service quality. Is emotional labor a priority? Does its importance result in different use of practices? First, the general management practices used to control for emotional

labor will be examined. While previous research has focused on emotional display management practices within one company, such as food service or airline industry, the current study aims to broaden the scope and qualitatively describe emotional display management practices across five industries; food service, retail: consumable goods, retail: durable goods, personal services and experiential services. I then provide quantitative evidence within one industry (food service) to examine whether EL practices used vary by store and manager.

## **STUDY 1**

### **Method**

The aims of this first study are largely exploratory in nature. Open-ended interviews were used to generate data. Eight graduate students enrolled in a graduate seminar class at a large North Eastern University in Fall 2010 were asked to conduct interviews with two store managers each as part of a broader project. Interview questions that focused on the importance of emotional labor (“service with a smile”) and practices used to manage emotional labor were selected for use in the study (Appendix A). Managers from a total of five service industries were interviewed (see Table 1): Retail: Durable Goods (5 stores), Retail: Consumable Goods (2 stores), Food Services (4 stores), Personal Service (2 stores), and Experiential Services (3 stores). All interviewees were volunteers recruited through telephone or e-mail. Responses will be used to test hypotheses 1 and 2.

### **Participants**

A total of 16 interviews were included in the study. In total, 75% of interviewees were store managers from a small college town in North East Pennsylvania, 12.5% of interviewees were store managers from Alabama, and 12.5% were store managers from a small town in Colorado. Fifty-six percent of the interviewees were female. For the purpose of this study, a

small business is categorized as having fewer than 30 employees. Sixty-three percent of interviewees were managers of small businesses. Among the interviewees that provided length of experience, 70% had more than six years experience, while the remaining 30% had fewer than 2 years experience.

Among the five interviewees (3 male, 2 female) representing “Retail Durable Goods”, two are managers of national chain stores; among the two interviewees (1 male, 1 female) representing “Retail: Consumable Goods”, both are managers of national chain stores; among the four interviewees (2 male, 2 female) representing “Food Service” stores, three are managers of national chain stores; among the two interviewees (2 female) representing “Personal Services” stores both are managers of national chain stores; lastly among the three interviewees (3 males) representing “Experiential Services” stores, one is a manager of a national chain.

### **Procedure**

Managers were contacted by the graduate students and asked to participate in an interview that typically lasted 30 minutes to an hour. Three of the interview questions relevant to the current study on emotional labor and management practices were used. Manager answers were coded and common responses and themes were identified. Their responses were analyzed by industry, manager gender, and experience in attempts to identify common views and/or practices used regarding emotional labor.

### **Measures**

Managers were first asked questions regarding the importance of “service with a smile” or interpersonal friendliness towards customers. Next, they were asked how important they feel “service with a smile” is relative to other service-oriented behaviors (attention to detail, efficiency, knowledge of product) and whether they think there are tradeoffs between these two

skills. Finally, managers were asked if they hire, train, or do both to foster “service with a smile”. As a follow-up prompt, they were asked about what other practices they may use to motivate such behavior with customers (i.e., rewards or punishments, monitoring and evaluations, role modeling).

## **Results**

As indicated in Table 1, the majority of managers interviewed (87.5%) mentioned they hire employees who they feel will be able to provide “service with a smile.” Some managers said that they hire for “interpersonal skills,” and others mentioned that “interpersonal skills cannot be taught, but some non-interpersonal skills can be.” Managers also mention hiring “outgoing and/or friendly” applicants, and that they hire for “attitude” and “passion.” Consistent with hypothesis 1, selection for emotion job-fit was the most commonly reported practice.

Hypothesis 2 predicted that managers use immediate controlling practices (monitoring, role modeling, social feedback) more often than investment practices (training, rewards) to control for emotional displays. Results indicate that the immediate controlling practices of monitoring (25%), role modeling (40%), and social feedback in the form of praise (18.75%) occur at varying amounts. The investment practices of training (25%) and rewards (37.5%) also occur at different frequencies. Thus, hypothesis 2 is partially supported in that the day-to-day, immediate control practice of role modeling (40%) occurs more frequently than the investment practice of training (25%), but at a similar rate as the investment practice of financial rewards (37.5%). Contrary to hypothesis 2, the investment practice of rewards is used more often than the controlling practice of monitoring (25%) and social feedback (18.75%). In conclusion, it appears that managers use certain immediate control practices and investment practices at a similar rate. While results from Study 1 address hypotheses 1 and 2, Study 2 will address hypotheses 1 to 4.



## Discussion

Study 1, a descriptive qualitative study, provides a solid groundwork regarding the practices managers use to control for emotional displays. Through qualitative data, it demonstrates that managers do, indeed, utilize certain practices to control employees' emotional displays. Study 1 allows for the comparisons of manager practices used to control for emotional displays across five industries, while previous research has focused on one organization or on employees' perceptions within an organization.

Interestingly, some managers said that they hire for "interpersonal skills" and others mention that "interpersonal skills cannot be taught while other non-interpersonal skills can be." Evidently, many managers feel that employees either have or do not have interpersonal skills, and those without interpersonal skills cannot learn them. Not surprisingly, managers want their employees to convey positive emotions. This desire is consistent with research that has shown that positive affective displays in service interactions, such as smiling and conveying friendliness, are positively associated with important customer outcomes (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1985). However, managers may be mistaken in their beliefs that such interpersonal skills cannot be taught. Research suggests deep acting, which occurs when employees modify their inner feelings to match expressions (Grove & Fiske, 1989), results in positive reactions from customers and reduced emotional dissonance in employees (Grandey, 2003). In other words, when employees engage in deep acting, customers perceive higher quality service and employees are happier. Thus, employees would benefit from training that would entail learning techniques of emotion regulation (Totterdell & Parkinson, 1999). Such knowledge may aid managers in the selection process and in determining which EL practices to implement. Overall, the qualitative data gathered in Study 1 provides a starting point for future

research aimed at identifying the practices managers use to control for emotional displays.

## **STUDY 2**

### **Method**

Thirty-eight interviews were conducted with managers within the food service industry because findings suggest that EL is related to customer satisfaction in this industry. Specifically, Barger and Grandey (2006) found that smiling behavior at the service encounter indicates higher service quality due to mimicry and judgments of good performance. Questions allowed for the collection of quantitative data through the use of a rating scale and qualitative data through the use of open-ended questions and specific examples. Questions focused on the importance of emotional labor. Managers were then asked to rate the extent to which they agree with the use of practices for “service with a smile” such as monitoring, training, rewards (financial and social), norms, and informal practices (i.e., role modeling, unwritten rules). This approach allows for descriptive research by gathering information from store managers and/or owners.

### **Participants**

Undergraduate and graduate students conducted in-person interviews with store managers and/or owners. Interviews typically lasted 30 minutes and responses were transcribed as the interview was conducted. Twenty of the interviews occurred in a large Mid-Western City and eighteen occurred in a smaller North Eastern Pennsylvania college town. Among the 38 manager interviews, 66% are from national chains while the remaining 34% manage local stores. The number of customers seen per day ranged from 100 to 2000. Half of the managers indicated that angry customer interactions occur less than 1 percent of the time, while 16% of managers said they do not occur at all and 16% said they occur five percent of the time. Manager experience ranged from 4 to 30 years.

## **Procedures**

The data collected from both cities was combined into one data set. The interview questions asked in each city differed slightly but used the same interview protocol and were based on the Diefendorff (2010) survey. The data sets were combined in such a way to ensure that the questions were consistent between interviews and were asking the same question.

## **Measures**

Managers were asked to identify the employee position that has the most interaction with customers and rate on a scale of 1 to 5 how often they must interact (1= “Not at all” to 5= “All of the time”).

*Priority of customer service behaviors.* Managers were asked to rate how important it is that employees in the position who have the most interaction with customers engage in twelve customer service behaviors (i.e., error-free service, efficient service, product knowledge, neat appearance, etc.) on a scale of 1 to 5 (1 = not at all important, 2 = slightly, 3 = somewhat, 4 = moderately, 5 = very, 6 = extremely). Interviewees were then asked to rate how important “service with a smile” is relative to other service behaviors and to explain their answer (“service with a smile” is the most important behavior with customers, equally important to other behaviors, somewhat less important, or not really important to other behaviors with customers). Next, managers were asked whether they feel there are tradeoffs between interpersonal skills and task-based skills and to explain, whether it is more important for employees to provide “service with a smile” regardless of feelings or to be genuine with customers even if they are feeling down, and to describe the company’s values regarding customer versus employee priority (“customer is always right”, “the customer comes first”, or “our employees are our first priority”).

*Policies, procedures, norms.* The next 23 questions asked about store norms, policies, and procedures related to motivating appropriate employee emotional displays with customers. “Appropriate emotional displays” were defined as “showing positive emotions (enthusiasm, friendliness) and not showing negative emotions (frustration, boredom).” Interviewees were asked to use a scale of 1 to 5 (1= strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree) to answer questions. Interviewees were asked about the human resource practices that are commonly used in service organizations to improve emotional performance (Leidner, 1999), which include selection, formal training, supervisor role modeling, social feedback, performance-based rewards, punishments, and informal culture (Leidner, 1999; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). Interviewees were also asked to provide examples after some questions (i.e., an example of how they recruit or select with interpersonal skills in mind, how employees are informally or formally trained on appropriate emotional displays with customers, etc).

*Store Context.* Lastly, interviewees were asked to report the total number of employees at the store, the number of employees in “front-line” (cashier) positions, the number of employees in management positions, the average number of customers per day, the proportion of negative customer-employee interactions, and whether the store was a national chain or a locally owned store.

## **Analyses and Results**

*Factor Analysis.* An exploratory factor analysis with varimax rotation was conducted with the responses to the 21 EL practices items (see Table 2). Using eigenvalues greater than 1.0 and the scree plot to determine the most parsimonious model, the initial results supported seven independent dimensions. The internal consistency of the items with coefficient alphas was assessed to determine whether the items should be averaged to form a composite. Based on

these results, the following six composites were created (See Table 2): Selection/Recruiting (i.e., “the selection procedures at my store emphasize whether candidates have the personal traits or skills to display appropriate emotions when interacting with customers” ( $\alpha = .69$ ), Training (i.e., “my store provides formal training to employees on which emotions to display when interacting with customers”,  $\alpha = .89$ ), Social Feedback (i.e., “employees receive verbal praise for displaying appropriate emotions”,  $\alpha = .75$ ), Performance-based Rewards (i.e., “employees receive monetary and nonmonetary rewards for great effort and good performance in showing appropriate emotions”,  $\alpha = .87$ ), Punishment (i.e., “employees are formally punished for not displaying appropriate emotions”,  $\alpha = .71$ ), and Manager Role-Modeling (i.e., “employees learn how to manage emotions with customers by watching me lead by example”,  $\alpha = .77$ ). A final factor, Informal Culture, was excluded from further analyses due to low reliability ( $\alpha = .59$ ).

EL Priority was formed by averaging responses to the question about the importance of employees showing positive emotions (enthusiasm, friendliness), and hiding negative emotions (frustration, disappointment) from customers ( $\alpha = .81$ ).

*Mean comparisons of EL practices.* Managers’ agreement for using the various EL practices was compared using paired t-tests (see Table 3). Hypothesis 1 is partially supported in that selecting applicants for emotional skills was a significantly more likely response ( $M = 4.45$ ,  $SD = .63$ ) than training ( $M = 2.99$ ,  $SD = .56$ ), rewards ( $M = 3.42$ ,  $SD = 1.30$ ), and punishments ( $M = 3.46$ ,  $SD = 1.03$ ). However, immediate controlling practices (role modeling,  $M = 4.83$ ,  $SD = .37$ ; social feedback,  $M = 4.51$ ,  $SD = .61$ ) were significantly more likely than all other practices. Managers said that they conducted interviews to assess emotional skills, obviously assuming that she or he has a good “read” on the applicant’s emotional skills, and that the interview (a one-on-one conversation that may provoke anxiety) is similar to the work context

because it may involve multiple parties at once, or the interviewee may experience boredom. As shown in Table 3, selection for EL was more likely in chains, where there is more likely a formal hiring protocol, than in the local businesses ( $r = -.34, p < .05$ ).

Consistent with hypothesis 2, the use of immediate controlling practices (role modeling,  $M = 4.83, SD = .37$ ; social feedback,  $M = 4.51, SD = .61$ ) were significantly more likely than the use of investment practices (formal training,  $M = 2.99, SD = 1.28$ ; rewards = 3.42,  $SD = 1.3$ ) to control for emotional displays. Among all of the practices, the long-term investment practice of formal training was the least likely to be used ( $M = 2.99, SD = 1.28$ ). Training for EL was likely to be “on the job” during an informal conversation with a supervisor rather than a formal class and encourages “watching” current employees. Examples of the EL training tended to focus on communicating display rules rather than on *how* to manage emotions (i.e., “Emphasize that this should be the best 20 minutes of the customer's day”, “Tell employees to greet everyone, be genuine, and to sincerely say ‘Thanks for picking us’”). One mentioned that the training stated to “put yourself in customers’ shoes” (i.e., perspective-taking). Another said that they “want to do formal training but it’s not in the budget”; only two reported that they have a training DVD with role-playing on how to interact with customers. In regards to the investment practice of rewards ( $M = 3.42, SD = 1.30$ ), there was a lot of variability in its use even within the same industry. Rewards included gift cards, praise, tips/promotions, pizza parties, preferential shifts, “beer in the fridge”, free products or food, and recognition. One mentioned that “free lunch when performing under bad conditions” was very successful at motivating employees.

*Mean comparisons of EL priority and service behaviors.* Next, managers’ ratings of EL priority were compared with other service behaviors using paired t-tests. The prediction that “service with a smile” (e.g., showing friendliness, hiding annoyance) will be rated by

management as less important than the task-oriented behaviors of accuracy and efficiency in hypothesis 3 was not supported. Rather, EL priority, or managing emotions with customers ( $M = 5.70$ ,  $SD = .56$ ) was *similarly* important compared to accuracy ( $M = 5.58$ ,  $SD = .55$ ,  $t = 1.20$ ,  $p > .10$ ) and efficiency ( $M = 5.76$ ,  $SD = .43$ ,  $t = -.87$ ,  $p > .10$ ). EL priority, however, was less important than basic courteous treatment of customers ( $M = 5.92$ ,  $SD = .27$ ,  $t = -2.90$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Lastly, managing emotions with customers (EL priority) was *more* important than having product knowledge ( $M = 5.18$ ,  $SD = .83$ ,  $t = 3.62$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and meeting customers' special needs ( $M = 5.35$ ,  $SD = .75$ ,  $t = 3.07$ ,  $p < .01$ ). When asked directly how the importance of "service with a smile" compared to other behaviors, most managers stated that it was just as important (i.e., "Need both a smile and efficiency or else customers won't be happy"), while three stated that it was more important because "As long as employees are friendly, the customer will be forgiving [of other errors]." One stated "It is #1 in this industry that you smile at all times," suggesting that other industries might have different priorities.

Hypothesis 4 is partially supported in that managers who prioritize EL are more likely to use some EL practices, but not all. Based on the correlations (see Table 3), managers who were more likely to agree that EL was a high priority were more likely to use formal training for EL ( $r = .29$ ,  $p < .10$ ) and feedback ( $r = .28$ ,  $p < .10$ ), but EL-based selection, rewards, punishment, and role-modeling were not more or less likely if managers prioritized EL.

### **Discussion**

The purpose of the current study was to describe managers' use of emotional labor practices. First, the general management practices used to control for emotional labor were examined. Although managers were more likely to select applicants for emotional skills rather than implement investment practices like training and rewards, they most commonly reported

using the immediate controlling practices of role modeling and social feedback. Despite the notion that selection tools, such as the interview, are effective in selecting applicants who fit well with the organization (Harris, 1989), the present findings demonstrate that selection for emotional displays is not the most commonly used practice. Rather, immediate controlling practices, like role modeling and social feedback, occurred more. In support of Huselid's (1995) argument that High Performance Work Practices (formal training and rewards) are cost-effective and occur often in organizations that wish to foster employee commitment, the present findings demonstrate that these practices occur less within service organizations that experience high turnover and are less concerned with employee commitment. Managers within the food service industry may find that it is not cost or time-effective to invest in employees' development because of the high likelihood employees will leave the organization.

Managers rated courteous treatment of customers, which falls under the service quality (SERVQUAL) dimension of assurance (Zeithaml et al., 1990) as the highest service priority. Interestingly, previous research demonstrated that customers find the SERVQUAL dimension, reliability, the most important (Berry et al., 1994). Thus, the current finding suggests that managers and customers differ on their perception of the most important dimension of quality service. It is possible, however, that participant response bias occurred as a result of managers wanting to remain consistent. For instance, once managers reported that EL was important, they may have been more likely to report using all EL practices. Finally, managers who were more likely to agree that EL was a priority were more likely to use formal training for EL and feedback, but were no more likely to use of EL based selection, rewards, punishment, and role modeling. Training for EL suggests a time and financial investment toward EL, in contrast to role modeling on-the-job, and thus it makes sense that it is more dependent on the values or



priorities of the manager. Selection for EL was used by almost everyone, so there was little variability and thus priority for EL did not make any difference. It is interesting that external controls of rewards and punishments were used regardless of EL priority; this may speak more to a general management strategy rather than motivating EL-specific behaviors.

### **General Discussion**

While previous research has focused on emotional display management practices within one organization or from employees' perspectives, Study 1 broadened the scope and qualitatively describe emotional display management practices across five industries; food service, retail: consumable goods, retail: durable goods, personal services and experiential services. Study 2 provided quantitative evidence within one industry (food service) to examine whether the type used varies by store and manager. In addition, Study 2 evaluated how managers prioritize emotional displays compared to other valued service behaviors and how this value influenced the practices used.

First, the general management practices used to control for emotional labor were examined. While previous research has focused on emotional display management practices within one organization or from employees' perspectives, Study 1 broadened the scope and qualitatively describe emotional display management practices across five industries; food service, retail: consumable goods, retail: durable goods, personal services and experiential services. Study 2 provided quantitative evidence within one industry (food service) to examine whether the type used varies by store and manager. In addition, Study 2 evaluated how managers prioritize emotional displays compared to other valued service behaviors and how this value influenced the practices used.

Interestingly, the frequency in which managers select for positive emotional displays

differs between Study 1 and Study 2. As previously noted, the managers interviewed in Study 1 were from a variety of service industries while those interviewed in Study 2 were from the food service industry. Managers in the food service industry use controlling practices (role modeling and feedback) more frequently than selection, which is likely a function of the young age and limited skill level of many employees in that industry.

In Study 1, some managers said that they hire for “interpersonal skills” and others mention that “interpersonal skills cannot be taught while other non-interpersonal skills can be.”

Managers may be mistaken in their beliefs that such interpersonal skills cannot be taught.

Research suggests deep acting, which occurs when employees modify their inner feelings to match expressions (Grove & Fiske, 1989), results in positive reactions from customers and reduced emotional dissonance in employees (Grandey, 2003). In other words, when employees engage in deep acting customers perceive higher quality service and employees are happier.

Thus, employees would benefit from training in deep acting that would entail learning techniques of emotion regulation (Totterdell & Parkinson, 1999). Such knowledge may aid managers in the selection process and in determining which EL practices to implement. Finally, there may be discrepancies between managers’ and customers’ ratings of the most important dimension of service quality. Such knowledge will inform managers and enable them to provide customers with the most satisfying experience.

### **Limitations and Future Directions**

The current study is not without its limitations. Although a small sample size is conducive for exploratory research, it does not allow for the generalization of findings. Data collection was also limited to the North East region of the United States while other towns and areas throughout the country may have different experiences and norms. Future research may broaden the scope

of the study to include participants throughout the country. As mentioned, participant response bias may have occurred if managers reported using all EL practices in order to remain consistent. Despite the discussed limitations, the study provides us with a strong starting point to further investigate managers' use of EL practices. Future studies should extend upon this research by examining how well specific HR practices work at controlling emotional displays, perhaps by studying customer reactions to different stores. In addition, how does each of these practices influence the type of EL that employees use (i.e., surface and deep acting), and how does that, in turn, influence EL outcomes at the individual and unit level? It may be that certain practices to motivate EL are viewed as controlling versus supportive, and this influences how employees respond to the practice.

While research exists on the formal human resource practices used by organizations in attempt to control the emotions employees express to customers, as well as the employee-perspective of EL practices, little is known about managers' perceptions of EL. The current study has extended our knowledge by taking a manager-focused approach to describe the use of EL practices and serves as a starting point for future research.

## Appendix A

### STUDY 1

#### Fall 2010: Management Interviews

1. How important do you think “service with a smile”, or interpersonal friendliness is toward customers?
  - a. Follow-up: How important is it relative to other service-oriented behaviors? (attention to detail, efficient, knowledge of product, upselling)?
  - b. Follow-up: Do you think there are there tradeoffs between these two skills?
  
2. Do you use hiring, or training, or both to foster “service with a smile”?
  - a. Follow-up: What other practices might you use to motivate such behavior with customers? (e.g., Rewards or punishments - from whom, what kind?; Monitoring & evaluations; Role modeling by you or expert coworkers?)

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Table 1

*Results from Open-Ended Interviews: Emotional Labor Practices Reported by Managers in Five Industries (Study 1)*

<b>EL Practice</b>	<b>Example</b>	<b>Managers Overall (16)</b>	<b>Managers-Retail (5)</b>	<b>Managers-Grocery (2)</b>	<b>Managers-Personal services (5)</b>	<b>Managers-Quick-food (4)</b>
<b>Hiring for EL</b>	- Hire for “attitude” and “passion”. - Hire “outgoing” and “friendly”	<b>87.5%</b>	<b>80%</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>75%</b>
<b>Training for EL</b>	-orientation for expectations -computerized manuals	<b>25%</b>	0	50%	<b>60%</b>	0
<b>EL-based Financial Rewards</b>	- Accrue points towards prizes - Gift cards for customer-behaviors	<b>37.5%</b>	20%	50%	<b>60%</b>	25%
<b>EL based Social Rewards</b>	- praise	<b>18.75%</b>	0	50%	40%	0
<b>Monitoring/Feedback for EL</b>	-Mystery shoppers -Comment Cards	<b>25%</b>	20%	50%	20%	25%
<b>Role Modeling for EL</b>	Have "good" employees as shift supervisors	<b>40%</b>	0	0	20%	0

**Note: “Retail” includes clothing and other durable goods; “Personal services” refers to beauty/spa, hotel, and theatres; “Quick-food” includes coffee, sandwiches, and breakfast foods**

Table 2

*Rotated Principal Axis Factor Matrix for Management Practices*

EL Practice	Factors					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
My store invests time and money in formal training focused on the emotions employees should show to customers.	0.91					
My store provides formal training programs that include information about the emotions that should be shown to customers.	0.91					
My store provides formal training to employees on which emotions to display when interacting with customers.	0.75					
My store provides an orientation program for newcomers during which they learn about the emotions they should express to customers.	0.69					
The effectiveness of employees' emotional displays with customers is formally evaluated at my store. *	.58		.36	.34		
Employees in my store teach each other strategies for displaying appropriate emotions with customers. *	.48	.32			.37	
Employees receive verbal praise for displaying appropriate emotions.		0.82				
Employees in my store learn which emotions to display by observing their peers.		0.6				
I give employees feedback when they do not show appropriate emotions to customers.		0.59				
I make sure to monitor the appropriateness of employee emotional displays with customers. *		.43				
Employees receive monetary or nonmonetary rewards for great effort and good performance in showing appropriate emotions.			0.86			
I/management give special rewards to employees who are excellent at displaying appropriate emotions to customers			0.83			
Employees are formally punished for not displaying the appropriate emotions.				0.6		
When employees do not engage in appropriate emotional displays with customers, negative consequences may follow				0.6		
Employees' performance evaluations are affected by whether they show appropriate emotions to customers.				0.6		
Employees learn how to manage emotions with customers by watching me lead by example.					0.87	
As a manager, I show the emotions to customers that I expect my employees to use.					0.58	
The selection procedures (e.g., review of qualifications, interviews) at my store emphasize whether candidates have the personal traits or skills to display appropriate emotions when interacting with customers.						0.76
When recruiting employees, we look for candidates who can show appropriate emotions to customers.						0.65
Employee pay is affected by whether they display appropriate emotions at work. *			.38		.32	.39
The informal norms of my store help to communicate which emotional displays are appropriate.						
My store has unwritten rules for displaying emotions to customers.						

\*Items dropped due to cross loadings. Only loadings greater than .32 are shown.

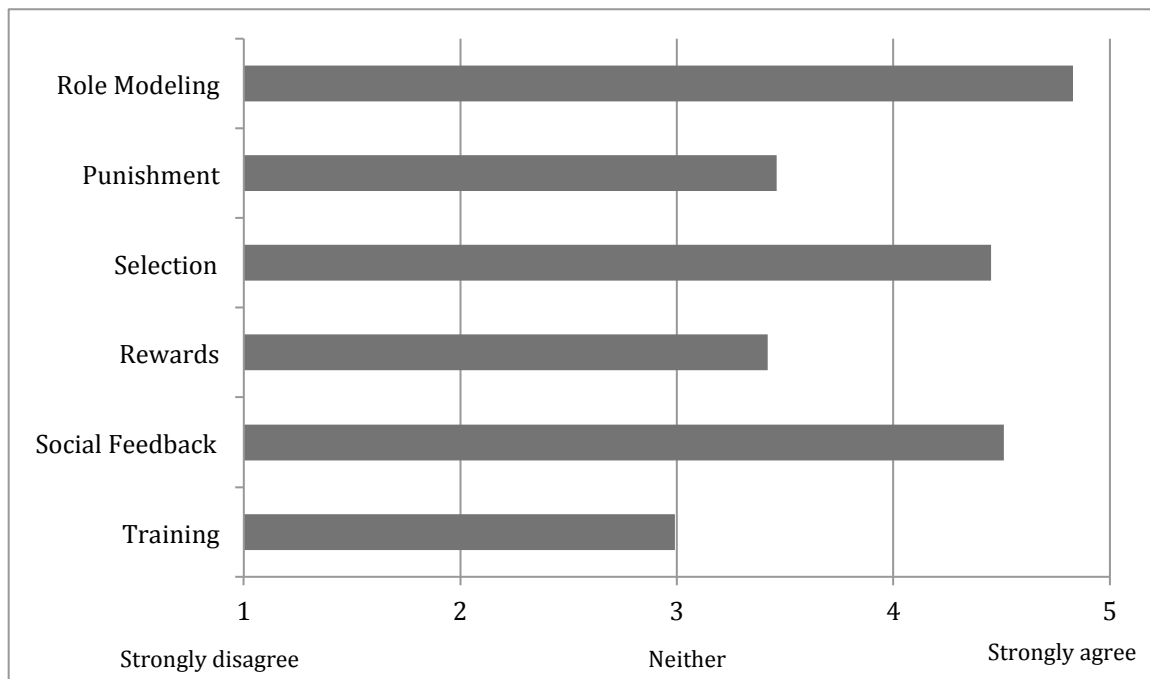
Table 3

*Results from Quantitative Interviews: Emotional Labor Practices used by Managers in Quick-Food Stores (Study 2)*

	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>7</i>	<i>8</i>	<i>9</i>
1. Chain/local	1.34	.48	--								
2. Town/city	1.53	.51	-.43**	--							
3. EL Priority	5.70	.56	-.01	-.04	<b>(.84)</b>						
4. Training for EL	2.99	1.28	-.17	.16	.29*	<b>(.88)</b>					
5. Social feedback about EL	4.51	.61	.07	.10	.28*	.13	<b>(.75)</b>				
6. Selection for EL	4.45	.63	-.34**	.22	.22	.22	.15	<b>(.69)</b>			
7. EL-based Rewards	3.42	1.30	.15	.02	.00	.12	.50**	.08	<b>(.87)</b>		
8. Punishment for lack of EL	3.46	1.03	-.23	.20	-.04	.35**	.27	.33**	.20	<b>(.71)</b>	
9. EL Role-Modeling	4.83	.37	-.12	.28*	-.06	.21	.49**	.28	.33**	.33**	<b>(.79)</b>

*Note.* N = 38. Chain/Local (chain/franchise = 1, local = 2), Town/city (1 = college town, 2 = city). Parentheses contain alpha reliability coefficients.

\* p < .10; \*\* p < .05



*Figure 1.* Mean Priority Levels of EL Practices. The EL practices, social feedback, selection, and role modeling have the highest priority levels while training has the lowest priority level.

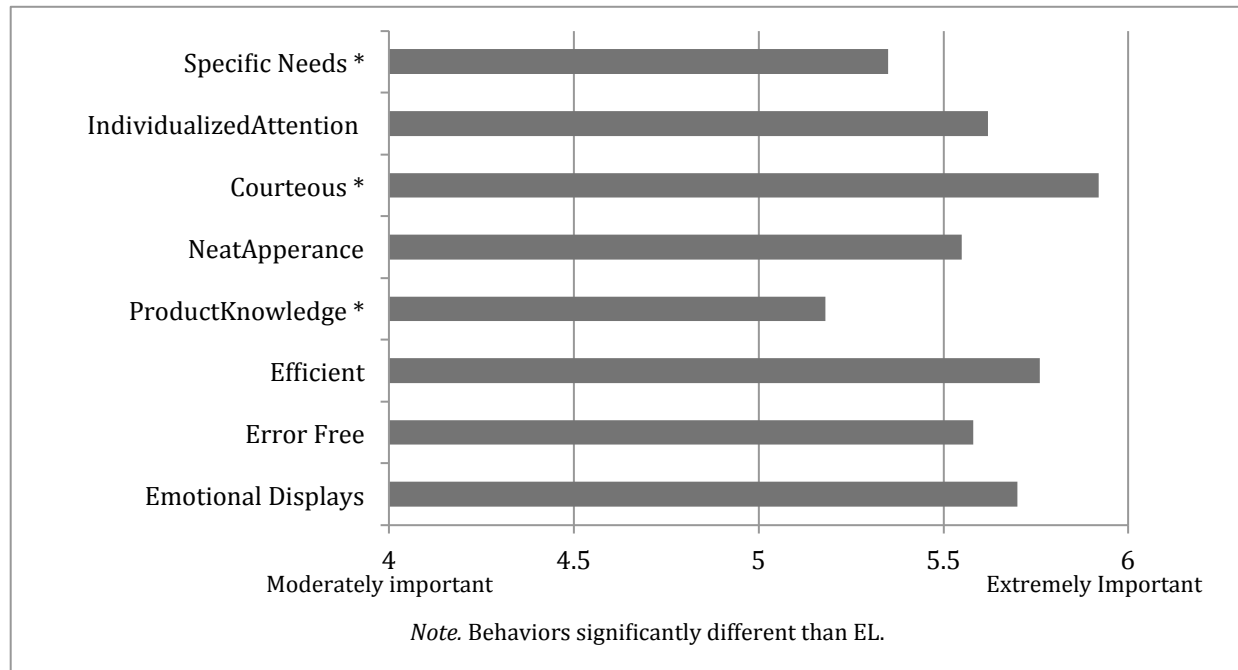


Figure 2. Mean Levels of Service Behavior Priority Levels. EL priority was similarly important compared to accuracy and efficiency, less important than basic courteous treatment of customers, and more important than having product knowledge and meeting customers' special needs



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## EDUCATION

### **The Pennsylvania State University**

**The Schreyer Honors College;** The College of Liberal Arts  
Bachelor of Science in Psychology, Biological Evolutionary Sciences

*Honors:* Harold L. Hinman Memorial Scholarship (Excellence in Industrial Organizational Psychology), 2012

**University Park, PA**  
May 2012

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## RESEARCH/PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE

### **PNC Leadership Assessment Center (LAC)**

Research Assistant

Dr. Rick Jacobs

- Aid in the development of Assessment Center (AC) case studies, generate ideas, recruit participants, and organize materials
- Work with business and academic professionals from an array of industries to provide feedback to student participants on leadership approaches and competencies
- Responsible for weekly lab meetings and working LACs

**University Park, PA**  
Fall 2011 to Present

### **Industrial Organizational Psychology Lab**

Dr. Alicia A. Grandey

- Senior Honors Thesis on Management and Emotional Labor Practices based on manager interviews
  - Recruited managers in State College and Philadelphia area to participate in study; Collected data on manager practices related to customer service dimensions through interviews
  - Conducted extensive literature review on Emotional Labor and Customer Service practices
  - Analyzed existing qualitative and quantitative data for trends on management practices used to control employees' emotions in the workplace
  - Ran statistical analyses using SPSS to analyze data and presented findings to lab
- Co-author on symposia submitted to The Academy of Management (AOM) journal in collaboration with faculty at University of Akron; Will present in Boston
- Served as Teaching Assistant in the course Psychology of Work and Motivation
- Attending Society of Industrial Organizational Psychology (SIOP) Conference in April, 2012

**University Park, PA**  
Spring 2011 to Present

### **University of Pennsylvania, The Positive Psychology Center**

Dr. Angela Duckworth

- Led team of interns on a study on GRIT (perseverance) to investigate the relationship between perseverance, and success in the Wharton MBA program
- Coded Wharton MBA resumes to identify applicants' advancement in career

**Philadelphia, PA**  
Summer 2010

- Developed GRIT coding rubric; Reached coding consensus with other lab members; Maintained organization of data

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## CLINICAL EXPERIENCE

### Community Help Centre (CHC)

*Basic Needs and Crisis Hotline Counselor*

**State College, PA**

January 2011 to Present

- Acquired counseling skills and referral knowledge based off of the educational model through a 180-hour training program
- Work 15 hours/week on the hotline including a weekly overnight shift
- Interact with low-income community members daily
- Supervise and educate other staff members on policies and procedures; Developed communication, interpersonal, empathetic, and organizational skills
- Develop fundraising initiatives

*PA-211 Referral Specialist*

- Assess callers' needs and make appropriate referrals to organizations providing services

### Student United Way

*Special Events Coordinator*

**University Park, PA**

August 2009 to Present

- Plan special events and activities; Coordinate Habitat for Humanity yearly trip
- Volunteer at local agencies

### Best Buddies

President

**Havertown, PA**

September 2006 – June 2008

- Led weekly officer meetings and monthly organizational meetings
- Planned and implemented fundraisers and club events, such as the Best Buddies Wing Bowl
- Paired students with intellectual disabilities with students without intellectual disabilities to foster friendship; Provided educational and emotional support to students with intellectual disabilities

## COMPUTER SKILLS

- Sufficient in Microsoft Word, Outlook, Excel, and Power Point
- Beginner Skills in SPSS

## PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE

- Psi Chi
- Rules and Regulation committee member 2008 – 2009

- Fresh Start 2008
- Active member in Discover House 2008 – 2009

**HONORS/AWARDS**

- Dean's List: Fall 2008, Spring 2009, Fall 2009, Spring 2010, Fall 2010, Spring 2011
- President's Freshman Award
- Steven M Juenger Memorial Award
- ROTARACT Club of Haverford Township Scholarship winner 2008
- PSSA Community Scholarship 2008