

Sylwiusz Retowski *
Aleksandra Fila – Jankowska*

Emotional Labour and Indirectly Measured Attitude Towards Occupation in Explaining Employee Well-Being

Abstract Drawing on the model of Grandey (2000), it was proposed that the attitude towards occupation could buffer the negative effects of emotional labour. A total of 173 teachers participated in the study. Attitudes towards occupation, surface acting, emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction were estimated. The indirect measure of the attitude towards occupation was assessed using the Approaching-Avoidance Simulation Method. Confirmatory Factor Analysis proved the validity and reliability of the indirect measurement, which is based on uncontrolled reactions of the respondents towards stimuli representing the profession. The results revealed a positive correlation between attitudes towards occupation and indicators of employees' well-being. The indirect measure of attitude towards occupation turned out to be a significant moderator of the relationship between surface acting and job satisfaction. The results raise interesting questions about the connection between indirect measures of attitudes towards occupation and employee well-being.

Keywords: occupational attitudes, indirect measure of attitude, emotional labour, burnout, job satisfaction

Emotional labour and employee's well being

The expression of emotions that are accepted by the employer, customer, and the employee, is often an integral part of the profession one performs. Hochschild (1983, p. 7) defined emotional labour as the "management of feeling to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display". A dissonance between emotions felt and displayed is often the cause of stress and tension and threatens employee satisfaction (Grandey, 2000; Hulsheger & Schewe, 2011). However, researchers observed (e.g., Côté, 2005) that the link between emotional dissonance and employee well-being sometimes needs an additional explanation. The inauthenticity of displayed emotions does not inevitably lead to distress. Faking emotions can sometimes even be psychologically beneficial and contributes to a sense of pride and career success – as in the case of police detectives (Stenross & Kleinman, 1989).

Most research findings on emotional labour distinguish surface and deep acting as two strategies commonly used by employees (Grandey, 2003). *Surface acting* means displaying emotions that are not felt, whereas in *deep acting*

an employee consciously modifies felt emotions to achieve the required emotional expression (Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983; Pugh et al., 2011). Only surface acting is considered to be a really detrimental strategy for regulating emotional displays because it results in conflict between felt and displayed emotions, whereas deep acting allows the expression of felt emotions, albeit adapted to the circumstances. This dominant in the literature conviction about the harmfulness of surface acting is supported by the presentation of its consequences in form of lower job satisfaction, higher levels of burnout, and intentions to quit (Morris & Feldman, 1997; Grandey, 2003; Pugh et al., 2011). Even this well documented type of dependency between surface acting and employee well-being at work seems to have its moderators. Pugh, Groth, & Hennig-Thurau (2011) showed that this relation is moderated by the personal importance of authenticity in employee–customer interactions and, independently, by the self-efficacy for surface acting. We expect that the attitude towards occupation can also be the significant moderator of this relation.

In Grandey's model (2000) job satisfaction and job burnout are considered as indicators of employee well-be-

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*University of Social Sciences and Humanities, Faculty in Sopot, 81-345 Sopot, Polna 16/20, Poland,
Telephone: (+48) 501 383 357, sylwiusz.retowski@swps.edu.pl

ing at work. Of course, high intensity of burnout is associated with low well-being. According to the Moorhead and Griffin (2010) definition, job satisfaction is the extent to which a person is gratified or fulfilled by his or her work. The broader construct of job burnout is usually analyzed in terms of emotional exhaustion, its basic dimension and central quality (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). Like Pugh et al. (2011), we focus on job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion as the two most commonly considered manifestations of employee well-being. Their findings confirm the common assumption that a higher level of surface acting (resulting from the lack of compatibility of employees' true emotions with job's demands) is associated with a higher level of emotional exhaustion and a lower level of job satisfaction. One of the objectives of our study was to demonstrate, like prior researchers have done, a negative association between surface acting and job satisfaction and a positive association between surface acting and emotional exhaustion.

Attitudes towards occupation in relation to employee's well-being

An organizational commitment is traditionally considered to be a manifestation of employees' attitude towards the organization/profession. It refers, in general, to employees' identification with their organization, agreement with its objectives and value systems, and willingness to expend effort on its behalf (McKenna, 2012). From our point of view, commitment seems to be the best explored and theoretically recognized concept that includes not only attitudes towards the organization, but also to the occupation. Furthermore, it was a successful attempt to identify three components of commitment, corresponding to the three components of traditionally cited attitudes (McKenna, 2012). According to this way of thinking, affective commitment is treated as an affective component of attitude, normative commitment as a cognitive component, and continuance commitment as a behavioural one (Bergman, 2006).

Although the three-component model of commitment was developed in the organizational context, it is completely justified to apply this concept to the occupational domain (Meyer et al., 1993; Stinglhamber et al., 2002). Commitment to one's occupation has traditionally been conceptualized as an affective attachment to the occupation (Meyer et al., 1993; Meyer, 1997), and both types of commitment – to the organization or to the occupation – are important organizational variables which, although semantically close, relate to various aspects of the employee's functioning (Stinglhamber et al., 2002; Cohen, 2007). It is remarkable that many studies on the processes of emotional labour refer to the concept of organizational commitment (Jones, 1999; Yang & Chang, 2007; Mahoney et al. 2011; Lapointe, 2012), but not to the occupational commitment, or more global measure of attitude towards the profession.

Cultural differences could also play an important role here because, as Cohen (2007) aptly notes, the most popular approaches to organizational commitment were developed in the United States, whereas the concept of occupational commitment plays a more important role in Europe. This diversity is associated with a completely different approach to vocational training and educational systems in European countries and in the USA. While in Europe, especially in the German-speaking countries, educational systems emphasize occupation as the main focus of commitment, in North America vocational education and training systems accentuate the organization as the main object of commitment (Cohen, 2007).

In studies on the causes and consequences of emotional labour, the organizational commitment is most often seen in two roles: as a variable that determines the strategy of emotional labour and, in consequence, the employee well-being (Jones, 1999; Lapointe et al. 2012), or as a dependent variable, with its level depending on the strategy of emotional labour (Mahoney et al., 2011; Yang & Chang, 2007). From the standpoint of social psychology, the occupational commitment, as an affective attachment to the occupation, is a kind of attitude towards the profession. Particularly, the component called affective occupational commitment can be treated as an affective (that is the most significant) component of the general attitude towards the profession. With high probability we can assume that the attitude towards occupation is essential to the way a profession is performed (Cohen, 2007). According to Cohen (2007), commitment to one's occupation may be as important in Europe as the commitment to the organization in the North America. In short, occupation may play an important role for many workers. This is confirmed by research results. Snape and Redman (2003) showed that affective commitment to the occupation is positively associated with all three dimensions of the intention to participate in professional activities and negatively associated with occupational withdrawal cognitions. Occupational commitment has a strong effect on the attitudes and behaviours of employees, especially on the attraction of one's present job and the availability of alternatives (Cohen & Freund, 2005). Occupational commitment affected Organizational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) and in-role performance in the group with high power distance (Cohen, 2006). Thus, we can assume that this general attitude towards occupation (especially its affective component) is an important predictor of the implementation of professional tasks, the way one deals with the emotional requirements of the job, or more general career-oriented behaviours (e.g., quitting the job).

One of the main objectives of the study was to compare the explanatory value of the selected two ways of measuring attitudes towards occupation. Recent trends in social psychology include direct and indirect measurement of dispositions, personality traits, and attitudes (e.g., Bing, LeBreton, & Davison, 2007; Heines & Summer, 2006; Johnson

& Steinman, 2009; Johnson & Tan, 2009). In addition to questionnaire measurement, based on declarations of employees, we used measurements where both the respondents' awareness of the purpose of assessment and their ability to control the results were limited. It seems obvious that people who perform their job with (subjectively perceived) necessity are not willing or able to declare an actual attitude towards it. Employees in this situation can avoid admitting the negative attitude towards the profession for the same or similar reason they do emotional labour (that is, the need for approval or impression management). The need for a positive assessment by superiors – especially when it cannot be ruled out that the managers know the declarations – seems to be one of important causes distorting the declared affective states. Thus, the analysis of directly measured attitudes towards work seems to be insufficient because of the impact of the social desirability variable (Johnson & Lord, 2010; Johnson & Sabe, 2011; Thomas & Kilman, 1975). It is useful to complement measurement by using indirect measures of attitudes, where simulation is much more difficult. The important thing in this situation is to obtain compatibility between the indirect and direct measures. For this reason, we did not assess a previously discussed affective occupational commitment, but a generally understood explicit attitude, which significantly correlates with the former one.

New indirect measure of attitude towards occupation

Indirect measures are based on the spontaneous reactions of the subjects, which are difficult to control and “reveal not fully conscious affect or motives or respondents” (Böhner & Wänke, 2002; Edwards, 2008; Greenwald & Banaji, 2005). The most popular method of indirect measurement in organizational research is the Implicit Association Test (Greenwald & Farnham, 2000; Greenwald, McGhee, & Schwartz, 1998) based on the measurement of reaction time in categorization tasks. The authors of this paper suggest another indirect measure of attitude towards occupation/organization, namely a measure of psychological distance from the representation of the organization, which enables the uncomplicated calculation of measurement reliability and generates results that are relatively easy to compute and interpret.

Psychological distance, i.e. the distance in space, is considered to be an important part of the appraisal processes (Bar-Ann, Liberman, Trope, & Algom, 2007; Mühlberger, Neumann, Wieser, & Pauli, 2008; Ortony, Clore, & Collins, 1988). In the proposed measurement we obtained the spatial distance in a computer simulation of behaviour, using the Approach-Avoidance Simulation (AAS) method (Fila-Jankowska & Jankowski, 2008). Its construction is based on one of the fundamental properties of the affect, i.e. the tendency to approach objects or to avoid them (Caccioppo,

Gardner, & Bernston, 1997). According to the reflective-impulsive model (Strack & Deutsch, 2004) approach is a motion resulting in a decrease of distance between oneself and the object, and avoidance is a motion resulting in this distance increase. This regulation has a biological, evolutionary basis, and in laboratories we can imitate real life situations by provoking movements in relation to symbols presented on two-dimensional screens (Seibt, Neumann, Nussinson, & Strack, 2007). The distance from the stimulus is an expression of current feeling about it (Hovland, Janis, & Kelley, 1953; Valacher, Nowak, & Kaufman's, 1994) and can be regarded as an indirect measure of attitude.

The AAS measurement procedure is presented in the section describing measures used in the study.

The method has satisfactory reliability – its average internal consistency (Cronbach α) is .86, and average test-retest reliability (Pearson's r) is .70. AAS method has also a sufficient convergent validity – the average Pearson correlation with measures of explicit attitudes is 0.4, $p < .001$, and the average correlation with measures of implicit attitudes obtained by the IAT (Greenwald et al., 1998) is .27, $p < .001$. It has also got sufficient predictive validity (the average correlation with predicted behaviour is $r = .41$, $p < .001$), sufficient construct validity, and the expected factorial structure (Fila-Jankowska & Jankowski, 2008).

Research problem and hypotheses

Generally, attitudes measured directly and indirectly either correlate with each other weakly or do not correlate at all (Böhner & Wänke, 2004; Jordan & Zeigler-Hill, 2007). But for organizational psychologists (as well as managers) it is most important to predict real behaviours. Proper predictions of deliberated behaviours can be made on the basis of declared measures of attitudes, whereas proper predictions of spontaneous behaviours can be made with the use of indirect measures of attitudes (Strack & Deutsch, 2004; Wilson, Lindsey, & Schooler, 2000). In order to be perfectly sure that we predict the same class of feelings, we should match reactions and behaviours with compared measures of attitudes in terms of analyzed areas and representative objects (Eckes & Six, 1994; Fazio, 2001; Kraus, 1995). The study was designed in such a way that both the direct and indirect measurements refer to exactly the same areas of the attitude. In the case of the teaching profession we chose three components: the overall relation to the teacher occupation, the attitude towards the occupational activity (teaching), and the attitude towards the clients (school children). In this study we focused on the group of teachers, because this occupational group seems to be highly vulnerable to the adverse effects of emotional labour (Chang, 2009; Isenbarger & Zembylas, 2006).

According to the theory presented above, the general attitude towards occupation – especially its affective component – is an important predictor of coping with the

emotional requirements of the job. Consequently, employees with more positive attitudes towards their occupation should feel less negative effects of performing the work, e.g., lower intensity of burnout (emotional exhaustion in particular) and higher intensity of job satisfaction.

Therefore, we assumed that positive attitude towards occupation is associated with better well-being of workers, in particular with a higher level of satisfaction, and with a lower level of emotional exhaustion. It is assumed that a person with a negative attitude towards her/his occupation feels compelled to perform it (e.g., by the economic situation in the country, the assessment of her/his own competence as inadequate to change it, etc.). Therefore, the more negative attitude towards occupation, the less satisfaction a person feels doing it, and the sooner that person can experience burnout.

Hypothesis 1: The more positive an attitude towards occupation, the higher the job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2: The more positive an attitude towards occupation, the lower the emotional exhaustion.

Based on the results of research on organizational commitment shown above, we can assume as well that the attitude towards organization or occupation is the important moderator of the relation between faking emotions and employee well-being. We expect that positive emotions related to work have the ability to compensate the negative effects of inconsistencies between the emotions felt and those presented to the client. Thus, positive attitudes towards occupation may diminish the relationship of surface acting and emotional exhaustion (symmetrically, the relationship of surface acting and job satisfaction), while negative attitudes may enhance it. If the job itself requires surface acting or an employee uses such a strategy as the most easily available to him, the positive attitude towards the job seems to have the ability to reduce the destructive impact of surface acting on emotional exhaustion or job satisfaction. That is why our next hypotheses refer to the moderating role of attitudes in the relationship between emotional labour and well-being of workers.

Hypothesis 3: The relationship between surface acting and emotional exhaustion is moderated by the attitude towards occupation in such a way that the relationship is stronger in individuals with more negative attitude towards occupation, and weaker in those with less negative attitude.

Hypothesis 4: The relationship between surface acting and job satisfaction is moderated by the attitude towards occupation in such a way that the relationship is stronger in individuals with more negative attitude towards occupation, and weaker in those with less negative attitude.

Research method

Participants

The sample consisted of 173 persons of both genders (30 men and 143 women), teachers from six different schools.

In each school all teachers who were present at work during the study (and agreed to take part) were examined, and in each case it was the majority of school's teachers. The female/male ratio in the surveyed schools was representative for the gender proportion in Polish schools. We used convenience sampling for school selection and ensured that the schools represented different levels of education (elementary, junior high school and high school). The average age of teachers was 39.4 (SD = 9.5). All respondents had a college education.

Procedure

The research was anonymous. Participants were interviewed individually in a dedicated room at the premises. The average time per one person was 15 minutes. The research consisted of two parts: a computer-aided part (Approach-Avoidance Simulation method) and a self-report part (questionnaires). The computer-aided test and questionnaires were counterbalanced.

Measures

Measurement by the AAS Method

In the typical procedure 30-40 pictorial or verbal stimuli are used that represent attitudinal objects (e.g., pictures of a company logo or people performing specific professions). The mouse cursor is replaced by the image of a little man in the middle of the screen. The stimuli appear randomly in the lower part of the screen (Figure 1).

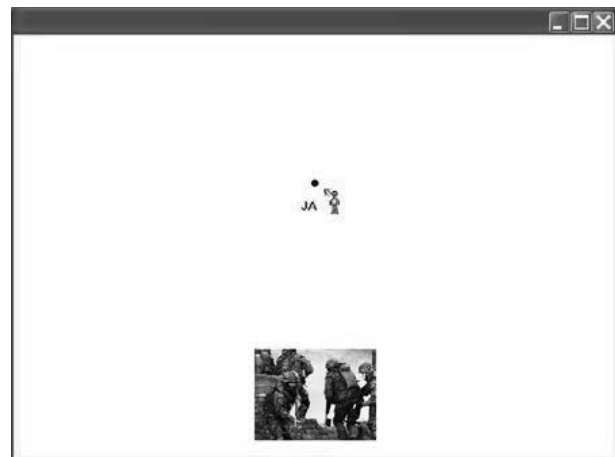


Figure 1. The computer screen as it looks in the AAS method

Participants move the mouse according to the following instructions (referring to Lewin's field theory – Hall, Lindzey, & Campbell, 1998): *You are the "little man" on the screen. The screen represents your life space. Various objects are going to appear in your life space (rectangles at the bottom of the screen). Each time, move as quickly as possible to where you want to be regarding the object*

(press the left key of the mouse, hold it to drag the “little man” and let go at the stopping point). You have the whole screen at your disposal, you can even move onto objects.

The little man moves to the objects (shortening the distance) or away from objects (increasing the distance) selected as representations of the phenomena of interest to us (e.g., organization). These stimuli, chosen on the basis of competent judges’ ratings, are shown alternately with stimuli representing contextual categories, for example positive (flowers, natural beauty, children, positive words) and negative (bugs, snakes, dangerous mammals, negative words). After each movement vis-à-vis the object, the little man returns to his initial position at the center of the screen.

If the participant is responding too slowly, a warning signal is activated. The maximum response times for each movement (from the moment the object appears on the screen to the moment it disappears) are programmed at the beginning of the test. The shorter the time, the smaller the share of controlled reactions in this motion and the bigger the share of spontaneous reactions (compare reflective and impulsive determinants of social behaviour, Strack & Deutch, 2004). Positive affect processing triggers the tendency to approach objects (i.e. to shorten the distance) and negative affect processing triggers the avoidance tendency (i.e. to increase the distance).

The average distance from the centers of the targets representing studied phenomenon to the mouse cursor stop points (at which the participant positions himself/herself) is the basic measure here. The closer a participant places himself/herself to the phenomenon representation (an attitudinal object), the more positive is his/her attitude towards the phenomenon.

The stimuli used to measure the spatial distance towards the teachers’ occupation were selected in the exploratory research with the participation of 10 teachers representing different schools (the stimuli were classified as related to the teacher occupation). There were 3 different categories of occupational objects: specific words (a school, a pupil, etc), the pictorial objects specific to the school environment (a school desk, a school report), and photos of pupils in the school environment. Positive and negative stimuli that served also as the context for occupational stimuli were pre-selected and validated in earlier studies, too (Fila-Jankowska & Jankowski, 2008).

The main program was preceded by a training part with 10 typical positive and negative stimuli. Its aim was to acquaint with the procedure those who felt uncomfortable with a computer. All the objects in the main program were shown on a computer screen as images 150 x 150 pixels in size (example of stimuli – figure 2). Stimuli were appearing on the screen in random order. Exposure time of each stimulus was 3000 milliseconds – if the subject did not make mouse movement at that time, the next stimulus was shown.

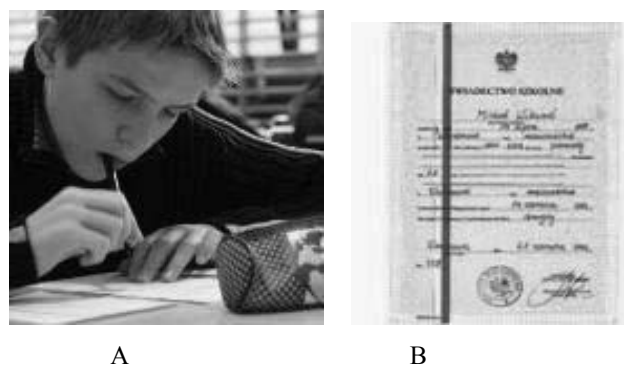


Figure 2. Examples of stimuli used to indirect measurement of attitude towards the occupation in the AAS method

The average of all distances from the centers of stimuli representing the profession to the places participant positioned himself/herself was the indirect measure of the attitude towards the teaching profession.

Questionnaire methods

Job Satisfaction was measured by a method used by Bettencourt, Gwinner, and Meuter (2001) (Polish adaptation by Wolowska, 2010). The satisfaction indicator was computed by averaging the scores of eight aspects of job satisfaction (Cronbach $\alpha = 0.80$). Items were assessed on a 5-point scale, ranging from 1 (strongly negative) to 5 (strongly positive). Sample items: “How satisfied are you with...1. The amount of job security you have; 2. The fringe benefits you have.”

Surface acting was measured with a 5-item scale estimating the emotional labour processes (Bazinska et al., 2010). Items were assessed on a 7-point scale, ranging from 1 (seldom) to 7 (always) (Cronbach $\alpha = 0.80$). Sample item: “I don’t really feel the emotions that I present to the clients.”

Emotional exhaustion was measured with a 9-item subscale of Maslach Burnout Inventory (Polish adaptation by Pasikowski, 2004). Items were assessed on a 7-point scale ranging from 0 (never) to 6 (everyday) (Cronbach $\alpha = 0.90$). Sample item: “I feel emotionally drained by my work”.

The directly measured attitude towards occupation was assessed using a 7-point scale consisting of three questions: “What is your attitude towards school?”, “What is your attitude towards pupils?”, “What is your attitude towards teachers’ occupation?” These questions were chosen to obtain the components of the attitude representing three important areas of estimation of any occupation: the overall relation to the occupation, the attitude towards the occupational activity (teaching) and to the clients (school children). The same areas were represented by the stimuli used in the AAS method – according to the principle of matching the range and area of explicit and implicit attitude (Eckes & Six, 1994). Response options ranged from 1 (strongly

negative) to 7 (strongly positive) (Cronbach $\alpha = .74$). In previous studies of teachers this scale correlated moderately with affective occupational commitment ($r = .47$; $p < .001$). In series of the authors' studies on other professional groups (Retowski & Fila-Jankowska, 2011), the corresponding correlation (with a similarly designed explicit attitude) was always significant and often high.

Results

CFA for AAS method

A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to estimate the fit of the following two models: the suggested three factor model and the alternative one factor model (table 1). The Lisrel (version 8.14) was used (Jöreskog, Sörbom, 1995). Four different indices were examined: the goodness of fit index (GFI); the goodness of fit index adjusted for degrees of freedom (AGFI), the root mean square residual (RMR); and the root mean squared error of approximation (RMSEA). Indices for the 3 factor solution confirmed reasonable fit (Cudeck & Brown, 1993).

Table 1. Fit indices for two alternative models: 3 factor model (occupation, negative, positive) and 1 factor solution

Model	χ^2	RMSEA	GFI	AGFI	RMR
1 factor model	1039.99 df=170	.178	.609	.519	.168
3 factors model	314.11 df=167	.070	.848	.809	.071

The result of the analysis confirmed that the indirect attitude towards occupation, expressed by the distance from representative stimuli, were distinguished well from attitudes towards typical positive and negative objects, and that the last two were also distinct in reactions of respondents. As a result the present study demonstrated a proper sensitivity of the measurement by the AAS method.

To show that the average distance from selected categories meets the assumptions of construct validity (compare IAT construction – Greenwald et al., 1998; Greenwald & Farnham, 2000) the (3) (*attitude object*: occupation, negative, positive) x 2 (*gender*) repeated-measures ANOVA was conducted. Only the main effect of the *attitude object* was obtained: $F(2,170)=77.84, p<.001$ (see Figure 3).

Three paired-samples t tests were computed to assess differences between mean distances from representations of each attitude object – as planned comparisons under the assumptions of the method. The distance from negative stimuli was greater than the distance from positive stimuli: $t(172) = 17.86, p < .001$ (Cohen's $d = 1,36$), while the dis-

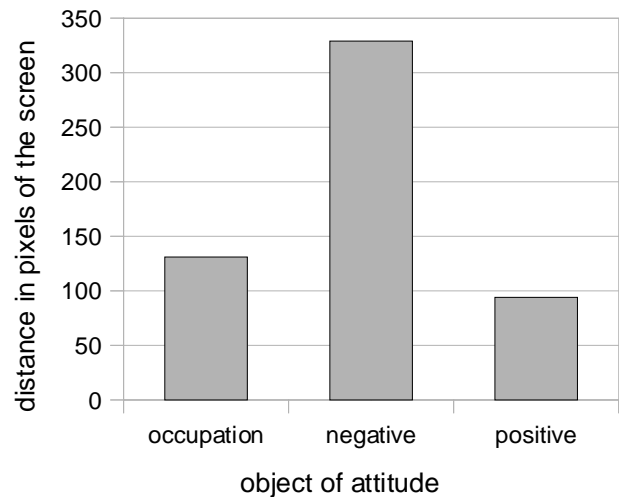


Figure 3. Mean distances from the stimuli, representing the objects of attitude (occupation, typical negative objects, typical positive objects) in AAS method

tance from representation of occupation was smaller than from the negative stimuli: $t(172) = 15.84, p < .001$ (Cohen's $d = 1,20$), and at the same time greater than from the positive stimuli: $t(172) = 6.15, p < .001$ (Cohen's $d = 0,47$) (taking into account that “the little man” who represented the tested person started from the point of the screen of coordinates 400, 200, participants were approaching positive stimuli and occupation representing stimuli, and escaping from negative stimuli).

Validity and Descriptive Statistics

Means, standard deviations, correlation coefficients, and coefficients of reliability of all variables are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Correlations, means, standard deviations and Cronbach's alpha (on the diagonal) for the study variables.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	M	SD
1. Gender								1.17	.38
2. Age	-.03							39.39	9.53
3. Surface acting	.08	.04	(.81)					2.16	1.00
4. Directly measured attitude	-.17*	.01	-.21** (.74)					5.67	.88
5. Spatial distance	.11	-.06	.18*	-.29** (.88)				123.65	79.87
6. Emotional exhaustion	-.05	.00	.41***	-.38***	.26** (.90)			2.25	1.17
7. Job satisfaction	-.21**	.00	-.16*	.40***	-.16*	-.23** (.80)		4.79	1.01

Note. N=173. * $p < 0,05$, ** $p < 0,01$, *** $p < 0,001$. Gender 1 – female, 2 – male. In parentheses: Cronbach α for questionnaire methods.

According to our expectations and previous studies, surface acting was positively related to the emotional exhaustion ($r = .41, p < .01$) and negatively related to the job satisfaction ($r = -.16, p < .05$). The relation between the attitude towards occupation and the job satisfaction was positive and significant both for direct and indirect measures of attitude towards occupation (opposite sign for the indirect measure results from the fact that the smaller the distance, the more positive the attitude). These results support the hypothesis 1 for both measures of attitude. The relation between the attitude towards occupation and the emotional exhaustion was negative and significant, which confirmed hypothesis 2 for both measures of attitudes.

We conducted two hierarchical regression analyses to test hypotheses 3 and 4 (Table 3). Gender and age, having been shown to be related to emotional labour in prior research (Simpson & Stroh, 2004; Dahling & Perez, 2010), were entered as controlled variables in the first step. The surface acting indicator and the direct and indirect measure of attitude towards occupation were entered in the second step. Both interaction terms (surface acting X direct measure of attitude and surface acting X indirect measure of attitude) were entered simultaneously in the third step. The independent variables were centred on their respective means to reduce the multicollinearity between main effects and the interaction term, and to increase the interpretability of the beta-weights (Cohen & Cohen, 1983; compare Pugh et al., 2011). Results are shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Regression summary for direct and indirect measure of attitude towards occupation

Predictors	Emotional exhaustion			Job satisfaction		
	Step 1 β	Step 2 β	Step 3 β	Step 1 β	Step 2 β	Step 3 β
Step 1						
Control variables						
Age	.00	.00	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.03
Gender	-.05	-.14*	-.14*	-.21**	-.14	-.12
Step 2						
Independent variables						
Surface acting		.33***	.61	-.07	-.97*	
Directly measured attitude		-.30***	-.18	.35***	.12	
Indirectly measured attitude		-.14*	.04	-.04	-.43*	
Step 3						
Interaction						
Surface acting x Directly measured attitude			-.35			.62
Surface acting x Indirectly measured attitude			.14			-.54**
adjusted R^2	.00	.29***	.30***	.04*	.18***	.22*
ΔR^2		.29***	.01		.14***	.04*

Note. N=173. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$. Gender 1 – female, 2 – male.

Hypothesis 3 stated that the attitude towards occupation moderates the relationships between surface acting and emotional exhaustion. Thus, surface acting would result in less negative outcomes (i.e., lower emotional exhaustion) for employees with a more positive attitude towards occupation. As can be seen in Table 3, the addition of the interaction terms did not result in a significant increase in variance explained for emotional exhaustion. Both direct and indirect measures of the attitudes towards occupation remained significant independent predictors of emotional exhaustion. But the attitudes did not moderate the relationship between surface acting and exhaustion. Therefore, hypothesis 3 was not confirmed.

Hypothesis 4 assumed that the attitude towards occupation moderates the relationships between surface acting and job satisfaction. As can be seen in Table 3, the addition of the interaction terms resulted in a significant increase in variance accounted for the job satisfaction, but the interaction with surface acting was significant for the indirect measure of attitude only. In order to see whether the interaction forms matched hypothesis 4 we plotted them with the procedures outlined by Aiken and West (1991), using values of plus and minus one standard deviation on the moderator variable. As can be seen in Figure 4, the relationship between surface acting and job satisfaction was stronger for individuals with a more negative (indirectly measured) attitude towards occupation. Therefore, hypothesis 4 was confirmed. We also ran simple slopes analyses, testing whether the slopes significantly differed from zero. Using the Interaction Program (Soper, 2011), we calculated stand-in variables for the moderator by adding or subtracting the standard deviation of the moderator from its mean. We found empirical support that one slope marginally differs from zero. Surface acting was negatively associated with job satisfaction in the group of employees as a whole, but this association reached the level of significance only

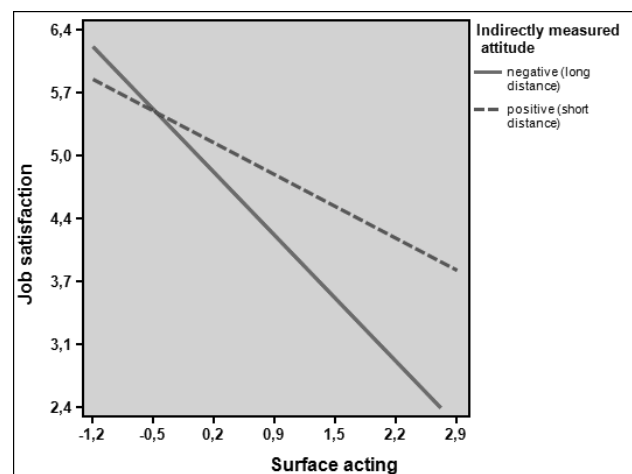


Figure 4. Moderating effects of indirect measure of attitude (distance towards objects representing occupation).

for those with a negative indirect attitude towards occupation ($B = -.99$, $t(157) = -1.33$, $p = .09$; one-tailed) and did not reach such level for those with a positive attitude towards occupation ($B = -.50$, ns.)¹

Discussion

The recent meta-analysis of the consequences of emotional labour (Hulsheger & Schewe, 2011) suggests the negative association between surface acting and well-being of employees. This relation was also expected in the present study. The results confirmed this assumption – respondents who engaged in more intensive surface acting also reported higher levels of emotional exhaustion and lower levels of job satisfaction.

The main purpose of the study, however, was to confirm the connection of attitudes towards occupation with the discussed indicators of employee's well-being, and to demonstrate the moderating role of attitudes towards occupation in the previously shown relation between surface acting and costs of emotional labour.

According to the assumption the results revealed that the more positive the attitude towards occupation, the higher the job satisfaction and the lower the emotional exhaustion. These connections were confirmed for the attitudes measured both directly and indirectly, although for the indirect measure of attitude they were weaker. This is probably due to the fact that measures of well-being were declarative and shared considerable variance of method with the attitude also measured in a direct way. An additional reason for the stronger connection between the direct measure of attitude and employee's well-being is perhaps the factor of the self-presentation for both direct methods.

We argued also that a specific employee's attitude towards occupation may represent psychological mechanisms intervening in the relationship between emotional labour strategies (mainly surface acting) and well-being, considered as burnout and job satisfaction. So far, the results of research on the role of attitudes towards organization have not been clear. Some of them have shown (Lapointe et al., 2012) that the relation between a workplace affective commitment towards colleagues and emotional exhaustion is mediated by surface acting. However, other research studies have demonstrated (Jones, 1999) that organizational/occupational commitment strongly ameliorates the negative effects of emotional labour on job satisfaction. At the core of our study is the belief that positive attitudes towards occupation are a kind of internal resource that may help to foster employees' well-being and to reduce risks of developing burnout. Our findings

partially support the notion that the relationship between surface acting and employee outcomes, such as job satisfaction, is moderated by attitudes towards occupation. We examined two moderating variables: directly and indirectly measured attitude towards occupation. The moderating effects occurred only in the case of the indirect measure. Analyses have shown that interaction occurred in the expected direction. The relationships between surface acting and job satisfaction were stronger when an employee revealed a more negative indirect attitude towards occupation. In other words, for employees with negative indirect attitude towards occupation engagement in surface acting was much more likely to lead to negative consequences. A similar hypothesis was not confirmed, however, in case of emotional exhaustion – another manifestation of well-being. The attitudes towards occupation do not moderate the relation between surface acting and emotional exhaustion; however, they remained in a direct, significant connection with the analyzed dependent variable. Positive attitudes towards occupation, measured both indirectly and directly, mitigated the severity of emotional exhaustion in the group of teachers. Of course, we cannot exclude the dependence in the opposite direction, i.e. the impact of emotional exhaustion on attitudes towards work. This would be consistent with the Affect Infusion Model (AIM; Forgas, 2001) describing the effects of affective states on attention, thinking, memory, and judgement (and ultimately on organizational behaviour, dependent on these cognitive processes). It is most likely, however, that the relationship between attitudes and emotional exhaustion occurs in both directions – in a circular way, like most psychological associations. A negative affect, derived from an emotional exhaustion, may lower the level of attitudes to work, but does not influence in a similar manner the level of surface acting. It may be the reason why the presumed interaction between surface acting and attitudes is not disclosed when emotional exhaustion is considered as a dependent variable.

The model testing the reverse dependence, i.e. emotional exhaustion, surface acting, and their interaction in explaining the occupational attitude, showed only the significance of emotional exhaustion as a predictor. Therefore, both directions of influence between occupational attitude and emotional exhaustion were equally likely, and the interaction of any one of these variables with surface acting to explain another one was not meaningful.

Interaction of surface acting and occupational attitude proved to be important in explaining the job satisfaction. The difference, when compared to the emotional exhaustion, may be related to the difference in the infusion of

¹ The regression analyses identical to those presented in Table 3 were performed by replacing deep acting with the surface acting (although there is no theoretical basis for hypotheses about the deep acting). Analyses revealed no interaction effect of deep acting with measures of attitudes in explaining employee's well-being indicators.

negative and positive affect, which could be subjected to future research.

Here we can ponder why the attitude towards profession, measured indirectly, but not directly, was the significant moderator of the relationship between emotional labour and job satisfaction. This might be due to the genesis of explicit and implicit attitudes and the relation between them. Some researchers see these two types of attitudes as independent constructs, coming from different sources and having a different neural representation in memory (e.g., McClelland, McNaughton, & O'Reilly, 1995; Strack & Deutsch, 2004). According to this assumption, implicit attitudes are derived from a so called impulsive learning system, influenced more by emotions and explicit attitudes from a rule-based, reflective learning system. Other researchers perceive implicit and explicit attitudes as the "downstream" and "upstream" of a single process, occurring in the long-term memory and originating from the network of associations of objects with (positive or negative) valence (Fazio, 2001; Fazio & Olson, 2003). During a contact (real or symbolic) with an attitude's object, the best accessible associations become active first and form an implicit attitude without the subject's control. In subsequent stages of the process the associations which require more resources for activation (and at the same time more of the subject's control) are incorporated into the constructed attitude. In this way people fully control their explicit declarations that reflect what they believe, or what they want to reveal about their attitudes. Gawronski & Bodenhausen (2006) assume additionally that awkward implicit attitude can be rejected during validation processes and the explicit attitude can then be built without connection to and even in opposition to the implicit attitude. Therefore, correlations between implicit and explicit measures are often not significant (Fazio & Olson, 2003) – the former include more variance of uncontrolled affect, the latter more variance of self-presentation.

We do not argue that with the AAS method we obtain implicit attitudes, because the reactions during the computer test are undoubtedly possible to control – at least partially. We call the obtained results an indirect measure of attitude, as opposed to an implicit attitude, which, as we assume, should be unaware. The AAS method is intended to simulate the spontaneous reactions (with their diagnostic goal not known to the respondent) and in this sense it satisfies the conditions of indirect measurement. On the other hand, recent research studies have shown that the most popular measures of implicit attitudes are not "process pure", either (Gawronski & Bodenhausen, 2007). Therefore, the nature of the relationship between explicit and implicit attitudes discussed above remains valid also for the direct and indirect measures of attitudes.

In this study, explicit attitude was measured as the mean attitude towards the teaching profession, school, and pupils. It seems that achieving these three key indicators

for the teaching profession is fundamental to obtain accurate attitude towards the profession; however, it could be in some way threatening to the respondents. It is probably much easier to confess to emotional exhaustion, surface acting in emotional labour, or lack of job satisfaction than to an aversion to students or the profession one performs. Therefore, a direct measure of attitude could contain a good deal of self-presentation, in contrast to the indirect measure that probably showed the estimation of the same areas as being subject to little control. Thus, maybe it was the reason the expected relationship was revealed only in the indirect measure.

In summary, our main contribution, empirical and theoretical in nature, is the demonstration of the direct link between the attitude towards occupation and employee's well-being, as well as the moderating role of the attitude towards occupation in the connection between a declared way of managing emotions at work (here: the level of surface acting) and the psychological costs of such management. Our findings also replicate results of prior research by demonstrating direct, negative associations between surface acting and two indicators of well-being. The presentation of the potential inherent in the measurement of attitudes in an indirect way seems to be of particular interest here. Results of the confirmatory factor analysis prove that the indicator of the attitude used in the study (the measure of spatial distance), based on subjects' uncontrolled responses to stimuli representing the profession, is a reliable and consistent measure. Indirect measurements of attitude towards occupation can be a new and reliable source of information on of the way workers function in jobs with high emotional demands.

Limitations and perspectives

There are, of course, limitations of the present research. The data were collected in one occupational group only (i.e. teachers). The result seems to be important, because previous studies have shown that teachers as a group are highly vulnerable to the adverse effects of work leading to emotional burnout (Chang, 2009; Isenbarger & Zembylas, 2006), but it may refer to many professional groups experiencing the negative effects of emotional labour. We suggest that further studies should replicate the results in other professions demanding emotional labour (e.g., doctors, or nurses).

Another limitation of this research is that data were collected at a single point in time. It is recommended that future research should obtain longitudinal data, so that inferences regarding the direction of causal relations can be drawn.

In future studies we could also control how much importance a subject assigns to his/her work. If the work affects the self-image only slightly, it is possible that the effects of emotional labour may be weaker.

A major limitation of the study was the lack of an indirect indicator of employee well-being. Direct indicators – as directly measured attitudes – are probably burdened with some degree of self-presentation. We may expect that the indirect attitudes would explain more clearly the indirect measure of well-being. Thus, the creation of a reliable, indirect measure of employee well-being seems to be an important challenge for future research.

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