

2004

## Commitment to displaying positive emotions at work: an examination of individual and situational antecedents

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COMMITMENT TO DISPLAYING POSITIVE EMOTIONS AT WORK: AN  
EXAMINATION OF INDIVIDUAL AND SITUATIONAL ANTECEDENTS

A Thesis

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of  
Louisiana State University and  
Agricultural and Mechanical College  
in partial fulfillment of the  
requirements for the degree of  
Master of Arts

in

The Department of Psychology

by  
Meredith H. Croyle  
B.A., Trinity University, 2001  
May 2004

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank my thesis committee members, Dr. James Diefendorff, Dr. Bob Mathews, and Dr. Emily Elliot, for their thoughtful comments and suggestions regarding this project. I would like to especially thank you Jim, for putting so much time, patience, and thoughtful guidance into helping me complete this project. Robin and Kajal, I would like to thank you for your help in developing scales for this study; Kajal, thank you also for listening to my little panics! Erin, you provided greatly appreciated advice and words of comfort during stressful times. Natalie it is so kind of you to help me complete the thesis submission process; your advice and reassurance throughout this project's development has meant so much. To all of you wonderful LSU I/O people, it has been wonderful getting to know you, I will miss you terribly. See you at SIOP!

Peter, I would like to thank you for supporting me and hanging in there during those anxiety-stricken moments and long phone calls. You have brought me back from the brink of panic many times! Mary, you are a wonderful sister and I wish you all the luck in the world in your own academic endeavors. Lastly, I would like to thank my parents, who donated to the "Meredith for Thesis" foundation; your donation has been so much more than monetary. You have helped me throughout my schooling from kindergarten and teaching me how to say my numbers correctly, through high school and those horrible math classes. You have provided a loving and wonderful place to come home to after being away at strange new universities, in strange new places. I love you and thank you for always being there for me and helping me to achieve my goals. I would like to dedicate this thesis to you both.

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## ABSTRACT

Studies show that employee emotional displays impact customer behaviors and attitudes (Grandey, Fisk, Mattila, & Sideman, 2002; Pugh, 2001; Tsai, 2001). However, the factors influencing employees' emotional displays have not received much attention. More specifically, research suggests a need to more fully understand the motivational processes underlying employees' emotional displays, particularly in customer service where positive emotional displays are related to customer behaviors and sales performance (Brown & Sulzer-Azaroff, 1994; Diefendorff & Gosserand, in press; Grandey, Fisk, Matilla, & Sideman, 2002; Pugh, 2001; Tsai, 2001). To this end, this investigation examined an expectancy theory model of commitment to positive emotional displays in customer service jobs. Results supported the idea that there is a motivational component behind individual's propensity to follow display rules to express positive emotions. A number of individual and situational variables were found to influence expectancy and valence judgments for positive emotional displays. In turn, expectancy and valence, as well as their multiplicative function, motivational force, were related to commitment to displaying positive emotions. However, expectancy influences commitment to positive displays to a greater extent than valence, when employees consider difficult customer service situations. Results also reveal support for the use of motivational force operationalizations of expectancy theory in order to better understand motivational processes.

## INTRODUCTION

Interest in emotions in organizational research has been increasing steadily over the past decade. The gains made in understanding emotions in the workplace are reflected in a number of recent publications dedicated to the topic (e.g. Ashkanasy, Hartel, & Zerke, 2000; Briner, 1999; Fineman, 2000; Lord, Klimoski, & Kanfer, 2002). Emotional labor is a specific focus that falls in the broader category of emotions research. Grandey (2000) defines emotional labor as the regulation of feelings and expressions as part of the work role. Emotional labor involves conforming to organizational display rules for emotional expression regardless of one's felt emotions. Display rules specify the types of emotional expressions that are appropriate to display on the job. The effort it takes to follow these emotional display rules constitutes emotional labor. Because recent research has shown that emotional displays impact job performance (Grandey, 2002; Pugh 2001; Tsai, 2001), it is important to better understand the factors that influence employee emotional displays.

Much of the research on emotional labor makes the implicit assumption that if felt emotions do not match display requirements, individuals will automatically engage in emotion regulation to display the appropriate emotions (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Grandey, 2002; Grandey, 2003). What has not been considered is the extent to which individuals desire to conform to these emotional display expectations. Diefendorff and Gosserand (in press) argued that individuals might actively choose whether or not they will conform to organizational display expectations. For example, one can imagine a situation in which a person is aware of the display rules, knows that his/her displays are not appropriate, but is simply not motivated to put forth any effort into changing them. Consistent with this idea, Gosserand and Diefendorff (under review) found that commitment to display rules moderated the display rule and emotional labor



relationship. In other words, they found that being aware of emotional display rules only influences behavior if a person is committed to those display rules, suggesting a motivational component to the emotional labor process. The present investigation focuses on understanding how individual and situational characteristics influence individual motivation and commitment to displaying positive emotions in customer service jobs.

### Emotional Displays and Performance

Nearly all emotional labor research makes the assumption that emotional displays can impact job performance (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Grandey, 2000; Grandey, Fisk, Mattila, & Sideman, 2002; Hurley, 1998; Morris & Feldman, 1996; Rafaeli, 1989). This is especially true in the customer service sector because emotional displays play a key role in how customers experience service interactions (Grandey et al., 2002). As customers value good service encounters, employees in the service sector are under pressure to express pleasant and suppress negative emotions as part of the work role (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Diefendorff & Richard, 2003; Hirschfeld, 1983). In other words, customer service employees are encouraged to follow display rules for displaying positive emotions.

A number of studies have demonstrated a relationship between employee emotional displays and performance. Brown and Sulzer-Azaroff (1994) studied customer satisfaction and service friendliness. They found that greeting customers, an aspect of service friendliness, was positively related to customer satisfaction. In a similar study by Pugh (2001), observers rated employee emotional displays by recording the rates of employee smiles and eye contact with customers. They also recorded whether or not employees greeted customers and thanked them at the end of the interaction. Customers' ratings of service quality were positively related to these measures of positive emotional displays.

Tsai (2001) examined the influence of positive employee emotional displays on customer purchase decisions, intentions to return, and willingness to recommend the organization to others. He measured employee emotional displays with methods similar to those used by Pugh (2001). The results revealed that positive employee emotional displays were positively linked to customers' willingness to return and make positive comments about the organization to friends. These studies support customer service organizations' emphasis on displaying positive emotions in customer service interactions by showing that positive employee emotional displays are correlated with customer satisfaction and purchase-related behaviors.

Using an experimental design, Grandey et al. (2002) examined the influence of emotional displays and task performance on customer satisfaction ratings by manipulating emotional displays (genuine positive display, faked positive display, and negative display) and task performance (high and low levels of task performance), using videotaped vignettes of hotel check-in encounters. Results showed that differences in emotional displays had no effect on customer satisfaction when task performance was low, but that all three emotional displays were significantly different from each other at high levels of task performance, with genuine positive displays resulting in the highest satisfaction and negative displays resulting in the lowest satisfaction. The authors interpreted these findings to mean that emotional displays represent a "value-added" benefit when task performance is good. The use of an experimental design in this study allowed causal inferences to be drawn in interpreting the effects of employee emotional displays on customer satisfaction.

Together, these studies show that customer service employees who display positive emotions tend to receive higher customer satisfaction ratings and their customers engage in a greater number of purchase behaviors. Considering the apparent beneficial effects of positive

emotional displays, it is important to understand what motivates individual employees to express positive emotions in customer service contexts.

### Motivation and the Display of Emotions at Work

Display rules in customer service jobs encourage employees to display positive emotions and avoid the display of negative emotions (Diefendorff & Richard, 2003). The research outlined above provides evidence that positive emotional displays positively impact outcomes in service jobs. Because of the benefits of positive emotional displays, it may be useful to understand the factors and processes that influence whether or not customer service employees adopt and actively try to express organizationally desired emotions. To this end, researchers have begun to consider the role of motivation in emotional labor.

Borrowing from control theory models of behavior (e.g. Carver & Scheier, 1998), Diefendorff and Gosserand (in press) conceptualized emotional labor as a self-regulatory process with emotional display rules as goals/standards that individuals strive for over time and across changing circumstances. In their model, emotional display rules are sub-goals necessary for attaining higher-order goals involving job performance. For example, an employee might have a goal to improve his/her sales, which can be facilitated by creating positive emotions in customers. Research on emotional contagion suggests that employees may create positive emotions in others by displaying positive emotions themselves (Pugh, 2002). Thus, the person may have a goal of displaying positive emotions. However, motivation to strive for this goal may be low because the person may perceive it as being difficult to achieve or may not see the value of doing so. Customers may be agitated or demanding or the employee could be in a bad mood, both of which could increase the difficulty of displaying positive emotions, resulting in low motivation. Further, it may be the case that the person does not care about creating positive

emotions in others or does not see the connection between positive emotional displays and high performance. This might also lead to low motivation for displaying positive emotions on the job. When the motivation for displaying positive emotions is low, the individual may abandon attempts to display positive emotions and choose instead to display his/her naturally felt emotions. Relatively little is known regarding the factors that influence individuals' perceptions of emotional display difficulty and value. Therefore, the purpose of the present investigation is to examine these issues in relation to positive emotional displays in customer service jobs.

In their model of emotional labor, Diefendorff and Gosserand (in press) use expectancy theory concepts to suggest that individuals consider the costs and benefits associated with emotional displays when deciding which emotions to express. Consistent with Hollenbeck and Klein's (1987) model of goal commitment, Diefendorff and Gosserand suggested that commitment to emotional displays is an outcome of the multiplicative function of perceived attractiveness (valence) and anticipated success (expectancy) of displaying the emotion. Although the authors mention some factors that might influence expectancy and valence judgments, they do not consider the issue in much detail. The following sections further develop the conceptual foundation for examining commitment to displaying positive emotions in customer service jobs within the framework of expectancy theory. General expectancy theory concepts are reviewed, followed by a discussion of expectancy theory applied to emotional display commitment. Tests of two expectancy theory models are examined.

### Expectancy Theory and Goal Commitment

Expectancy theory was originally conceptualized as an approach to understanding how individuals choose to pursue different courses of action. Although there are many versions of the theory, Vroom's (1964) is probably the most well known. The two primary components of this

model are expectancy and valence judgments. Vroom (1964) conceptualized expectancy as the subjective probability that effort will lead to performance. Valence refers to the affective orientations toward outcomes, which studies have since interpreted as importance, attractiveness, desirability, and anticipated satisfaction with regard to performance (Van Eerde & Thierry, 1996). In relation to goals, expectancy refers to an individual's judgment regarding the probability that effort will result in goal attainment and valence refers to the anticipated satisfaction associated with reaching a goal (Van Eerde & Thierry, 1996). According to Vroom (1964), whether or not an individual chooses to work toward a goal depends on the motivational force (MF) for the goal. This MF is the multiplicative combination of the expectancy and valence judgments associated with the goal.

Hollenbeck and Klein (1987) developed a model of goal commitment that utilizes expectancy theory concepts. Goal commitment refers to a person's determination and persistence in working toward a goal (Locke et al., 1981). For a goal to influence behavior, the individual must be committed to the goal (Hollenbeck & Klein, 1987). Consider a person who sets goals but never seems to reach them. Perhaps other tasks take priority or there is a lack of resolve. Regardless, the problem may be a lack of commitment- a lack of persistence and determination. As the decision to remain committed to a goal can be considered a choice, Hollenbeck and Klein argued that expectancy theory could be used to understand goal commitment (Klein, 1991). In their model, expectancy and valence are the two key antecedents of goal commitment (Klein & Wright, 1994). Hollenbeck and Klein (1987) further identified a number of individual and situational influences on both expectancy and valence judgments. Their model breaks down the antecedents of both expectancy and valence by dividing them into personal and situational influences. In an empirical test of Hollenbeck and Klein's theory, Klein and Wright (1994)

investigated expectancy and valence as predictors of goal commitment, as well as several individual and situational factors as predictors of expectancy and valence. They found that expectancy and valence partially mediated the relationship between person and situation variables and goal commitment, providing some support for the model. The following sections review some key theoretical issues associated with expectancy theory.

### Motivational Force versus Separate Expectancy and Valence Operationalization

In studies using expectancy theory to predict goal choice, expectancy and valence have been considered separately (e.g., Garland, 1985; Locke & Shaw, 1984; Matsui, Kakuyama, & Onglatco, 1987) as well as in a combined multiplicative function, or MF (e.g., Daschler & Mobley, 1973; Matsui, Okada, & Mizuguchi, 1981; Riedel, Nebeker, & Cooper, 1988). Vroom's (1964) original conceptualization states that individuals consider the expectancy and valence for various possible goals, combine the expectancy and valence judgments for each goal to form several MF values, and choose the goal with the highest MF. Studies have found MF to be positively related to goal level and performance (Dachler & Mobley, 1973) as well as goal commitment (Riedel, Nebeker, & Cooper, 1988). In fact, Klein (1991) found that MF explained significant variance in goal choice, commitment, and performance, beyond expectancy and valence as separate predictors.

However, the multiplicative function of expectancy and valence has been criticized because it assumes that people's judgments of expectancy and valence are independent of one another (Pinder, 1997). Because the MF calculation is equivalent to a statistical interaction, it must conform to the assumptions of statistical interactions, one of which is that the two predictors are uncorrelated (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). However, one can imagine that these expectancy and valence judgments could be correlated such that people might tend to see more

value in something that is difficult to attain than something that is easy to attain. Furthermore, focusing solely on MF can result in research revealing only part of the motivational picture. For example, although Klein and Wright (1994) found that MF significantly predicted goal commitment, closer analysis indicated that expectancy was significantly related to commitment, whereas valence was not. Therefore, though Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory suggests that expectancy and valence work together in a multiplicative fashion, more recent theorists (i.e. Hollenbeck and Klein, 1987) have considered expectancy and valence independently. This study examines both the independent and multiplicative effects of expectancy and valence.

#### Within versus Between Subjects Operationalization

Another issue debated in the expectancy theory literature is whether it should be used in a within-subjects or between-subjects fashion. Again, looking back to Vroom's (1964) theory for guidance, expectancy theory was originally conceptualized as pertaining to within-persons comparisons of various behavioral options. In other words, valence and expectancy judgments are thought to be meaningful only in comparison to each individual's own frame of reference. Researchers have argued that this within-person approach requires MF scores be obtained for several goals and that predictions about behavior can only be made by comparing an individual's MF scores to each other; individual's can be predicted to choose the goal with the highest MF score (Kennedy, Fossum, & White, 1983). Consider this example: One individual expects high payoffs for putting forth both high and low effort. A second individual expects high payoffs for putting forth only high effort. According to the within person operationalization, only the second individual would report choosing to put forth high effort because he/she is the only one who would benefit from doing so. The first person would presumably report a low likelihood of

putting forth high effort and actually choose the low effort option, as his/her expected payoffs for low and high effort levels are equivalent.

On the other hand, researchers may be interested in using between-persons comparisons to examine individuals' motivation to pursue one particular activity. An example would be a work scenario in which all individuals are assigned the same goal and the researcher is interested in whether or not individuals will put forth effort to reach the goal (e.g. displaying positive emotions in customer service interactions). In this case, a between-persons design is necessary. Indeed, Vroom (1964) even suggests that his theory might be used to make between-persons predictions (Pinder, 1997). Considering the previous example again, Vroom's theory would suggest that the second individual would be more motivated to put forth high effort as compared to the first individual; this is clearly a between-persons prediction. However, a problem with past research using the between-persons design is that respondents have been allowed to rate their expectancies and valences for only one goal option but may be making internal comparisons to a variety of other options that may differ across people. Thus, individuals may be making expectancy and valence judgments in relation to different frames of reference. To remedy this problem, Klein and Wright (1994) suggested that when making between-persons predictions using expectancy theory, all individuals should be required to make within-persons ratings for the same behavioral options. Specifically, Klein and Wright had participants make expectancy and valence judgments for 12 possible performance levels and then only used the ratings corresponding to an assigned performance level for subsequent between-subjects analyses. In this way, they integrated the within-person comparison of multiple performance level/goal options into their operationalization of expectancy theory and were able to make between-persons predictions while remaining theoretically consistent. Klein (1991) labeled this treatment



of expectancy and valence the “single value” operationalization. The current study uses this single value operationalization in order to make between-persons predictions and remain theoretically consistent with the within-persons conceptualization of expectancy and valence judgments. A more detailed discussion of how this study approaches this issue is presented in a later section.

### An Information Processing Perspective of Expectancy Theory Processes

A criticism of expectancy theory is that it is too rational and calculative to accurately reflect the mental operations involved in decision-making (Lord, Hanges, & Godfrey, 2002). Specifically, the conscious computations required by Vroom’s (1964) theory (i.e., valence and expectancy judgments) may be unrealistically time-consuming and exceed the capacity of working memory (Lord et al., 2002). As previously discussed, individuals making decisions among different goal options would have to take the time to consciously make expectancy and valence judgments for each option and then compare them. Depending on the number of goal options and the complexity of the decision, Vroom’s theory could potentially require hours of conscious and deliberate thought.

In light of this concern, Lord et al. (2002) suggested that expectancy theory might account for volitional decision-making by means outlined in connectionist models of information processing. They suggested that expectancy and valence judgments are distributed as weighted connections in long-term memory and can be automatically formed and accessed with little cognitive effort. This is particularly true in situations where individuals have extensive experience (e.g., displaying emotions), where the cognitive processes underlying expectancy and valence judgments may involve fairly automatic, implicit judgments and comparisons. In this way, expectancy theory can be used as a general approach for describing choice-related

processes for fast-acting, implicit decisions. The explicit decisions that are required in research on expectancy theory make the automatic, implicit information processing more controlled and explicit.

Building on past research, the current investigation uses expectancy theory concepts to aid in understanding customer service employees' commitment to displaying positive emotions. Specifically, this study uses the framework of expectancy theory to understand how individual and situational factors influence employee commitment to displaying positive emotions.

#### Expectancy Theory Model of Commitment to Positive Emotional Displays

Gosserand and Diefendorff (under review) found that commitment to emotional display rules moderated the relationship between display rules and the use of emotional labor strategies, suggesting that how committed individuals are to display rules will influence whether they will actively regulate their emotional displays. In other words, simply being aware of display rules is not enough to influence a person to engage in emotion regulation when needed. Rather, individuals must be committed to following display rules for them to influence behavior. The current study investigates customer service employees' commitment to displaying positive emotions based on Diefendorff and Gosserand's (in press) model of emotional labor and Hollenbeck and Klein's (1987) model of goal commitment. Specifically, expectancy theory serves as the framework for examining how individual and situational characteristics influence individuals' expectancy and valence judgments for displaying positive emotions, which are examined as predictors of commitment to displaying positive emotions. In this study, expectancy refers to the subjective probability that an employee will display positive emotions in a customer service interaction. In considering this, employees made subjective judgments as to whether effort put forth would actually result in successfully displaying positive emotions (Diefendorff &

Gosserand, in press). The more confident people are that they will be successful, the more likely they will persist in working to display positive emotions toward customers. Valence refers to the employee's anticipated satisfaction associated with displaying positive emotions in customer service interactions. The more valued the outcomes associated with displaying positive emotions, the more individuals will value displaying positive emotions. Consistent with expectancy theory, MF refers to overall motivation toward displaying positive emotions in a customer service interaction, and is a multiplicative combination of the expectancy and valence associated with displaying positive emotions.

The following example outlines how individual and situational factors might impact expectancy and valence judgments of displaying positive emotions, and how expectancy and valence judgments might then impact commitment to displaying positive emotions. Consider an individual in a sales job. She might think that being pleasant to customers by displaying positive emotions during service interactions is part of her job. The individual might think about how successful she would be in behaving in a more pleasant manner as well as how much she would value the outcomes of doing so (e.g., improved sales). If the saleswoman finds it difficult to express positive emotions because of her personality or the types of customer interactions she experiences (e.g., long and tiring), she might have a low expectancy for behaving pleasantly toward customers. Further, if the saleswoman works in a job that does not reward employees based on their sales performance, or she does not care about achieving high sales, she might not value being pleasant to customers. Indeed, she may place greater value on displaying her naturally-felt emotions and have higher expectations that she can do so. If this is the case, she may have low commitment to displaying positive emotions to customers, particularly under difficult conditions. In this way, individual and situational factors may influence expectancy and

valence judgments, which may then impact actual behavior through commitment to display positive emotions.

The antecedents of expectancy judgments examined in this study include dispositional affect and characteristics of the customer interactions (frequency, routineness, and duration). The antecedents of valence judgments examined are organizational commitment, self-monitoring, agreeableness, reward system, and the extent to which the employee/customer interactions are relationships or encounters. These antecedents were chosen based on past theory and research on emotional labor (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Gosserand & Diefendorff, under review, Grandey, 2002; Morris, & Feldman, 1996), customer service (Gutek, Bhappu, Liao-Troth, & Cherry, 1999), and goal commitment (Hollenbeck & Klein, 1987; Klein & Wright, 1994). The following sections describe the variables in the models to be tested, moving from left to right according to Figures 1 and 2. A discussion of individual and situational factors related to expectancy judgments is provided first, followed by a discussion of individual and situational factors related to valence judgments. Lastly, the discussion will focus on the independent and joint effects (MF) of expectancy and valence judgments on commitment to displaying positive emotions.

### Expectancy Judgments

Individual Difference Antecedents. Stable individual differences related to felt affect may predict how successful individuals expect to be in displaying positive emotions because how they naturally feel will impact how easy it is to display positive emotions. The current study considers positive affectivity (PA) and negative affectivity (NA) as antecedents of expectancy judgments for displaying positive emotions in service interactions. Positive and negative affectivity are dispositional traits characterizing tendencies to experience positive or negative

emotional states, respectively (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1984). Individuals high on PA should be able to more easily display positive emotions as they are naturally inclined to experience them more often. Conversely, individuals with high NA may find it more difficult to display positive emotions, as they characteristically experience negative emotions more often. In other words, individuals high on PA may anticipate having to put forth less effort to display positive emotions than individuals low on PA, due to their tendencies to naturally experience positive emotions. Similarly, individuals high on NA may anticipate having to put forth more effort to display positive emotions than individuals low on NA, due to their tendencies to naturally experience negative emotions. These ideas lead to the following hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1a: PA is positively related to expectancy judgments for displaying positive emotions.

Hypothesis 1b: NA is negatively related to expectancy judgments for displaying positive emotions.

Situational Antecedents. How demanding the interpersonal interactions are perceived to be should influence the expectancy judgments for displaying positive emotions during service encounters. Related to this idea, emotional labor researchers have examined the interpersonal requirements of jobs as predictors of employee perceptions of emotional display rules (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Diefendorff & Richard, 2003; Gosserand & Diefendorff, under review; Morris & Feldman, 1997; Schaubroeck & Jones 2000). Researchers in this area reason that jobs with more interpersonal requirements are perceived as having more demanding emotional display rules. Providing support for this reasoning, both Schaubroeck and Jones (2000) and Diefendorff and Richard (2003) found that the amount of interpersonal interaction associated with different occupations was positively related to employees' perceptions of

emotional display rules. Other studies have looked at specific interaction characteristics such as the frequency, duration, and routineness of interpersonal interactions (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Gosserand, 2002, Morris & Feldman, 1997). Jobs that require individuals to interact with others often or for long periods of time may result in greater perceived emotional display requirements. Building on past research, the current study considers how interpersonal interaction frequency, routineness, and duration affect employee expectancies for displaying positive emotions during service interactions.

The frequency of employee and customer interactions is often used to classify jobs in terms of emotional requirements (Morris & Feldman, 1996). For example, Brotheridge and Grandey (2002) found that the frequency of interactions was positively related to display rule perceptions. These results suggest that frequency may positively influence the perception of emotional display requirements, as people with more customer contact may perceive more emotional display requirements. Research shows that the more frequent the interactions, the more routine those interactions tend to be (Morris & Feldman, 1996). However, holding constant the level of routineness associated with jobs, the more frequently employees interact with customers, the more often they will experience pressure to express positive emotions. The greater the demand for displaying positive emotions, the lower the expectancy for doing so. Therefore, it is suggested that the more individuals interact with customers, the lower their anticipated success for expressing positive emotions.

Hypothesis 2a: Frequency of interactions is negatively related to expectancy judgments for displaying positive emotions.

Although, jobs with routine customer interactions will tend to have clear display rules, the interactions will tend to be fairly scripted, making the rules easier to follow. Scripts provide

mental representations of what is supposed to happen in routine circumstances (Schank & Abelson, 1977). They allow individuals to apply past experiences to understanding how to interpret and react to new experiences, decreasing the difficulty of new, similar situations. Thus, displaying positive emotions when interacting with customers during scripted interactions should be less difficult than doing so during variable and unfamiliar interactions. In routine jobs, highly scripted interactions may leave employees without the added pressure of experiencing and dealing with “novel” situations and emotions. For example, a grocery store check out clerk who greets his or her customers, rings up their items, and asks them if they want paper or plastic, may find it relatively easy to express positive emotions during the typical service interaction. Likewise, routine job interactions tend to be less variable in character (Schneider & Bowen, 1995). With the same basic interaction occurring repeatedly, employees should find it fairly easy to follow the script and show positive emotions. It is therefore expected that when employees interact with most customers in roughly the same way, they will find expressing positive emotions to be fairly effortless. Therefore, employees that have highly routine interactions with customers will anticipate greater success for displaying positive emotions.

Hypothesis 2b: Routineness of interactions is positively related to the expectancy of displaying positive emotions.

As with the frequency of interactions, Brotheridge and Grandey (2002) found that the duration of interactions was positively related to display rule perceptions, suggesting that duration may positively influence the perception of emotional display requirements. The longer the interactions, the more effort employees will have to put into displaying positive emotions towards customers. Short interactions require less emotional intensity and can be more scripted, whereas long interactions require more intense and sincere emotions (Rafaeli, 1989). Similarly,

in short interactions the effort required to display an emotion is minimal, whereas longer interactions have been shown to require more active emotion regulation and result in higher levels of burnout (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993). Furthermore, in longer interactions, more information about the customer may be acquired, making it more difficult to hide personal feelings throughout the encounter (Smith, 1992). In summary, longer interactions may require more intense emotions and reveal more information about the customer, resulting in the display of positive emotions being seen as more difficult. It is therefore expected that employees with typical interactions of long duration will have a lower expectancy for successfully displaying positive emotions than individuals in jobs with short interactions.

Hypothesis 2c: The duration of interactions is negatively associated with the expectancy for displaying positive emotions.

### Valence Judgments

Individual Difference Antecedents. Organizational commitment (OC) is considered a multidimensional job attitude (Allen & Meyer, 1996). This present investigation focuses on one dimension of OC, affective commitment, which involves the extent to which employees accept organizational goals and values and desire to exert effort to accomplish and support those goals and values (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Individuals high on affective commitment identify with and are attached to their organizations. Research has shown that this construct predicts behavioral intentions and internal motivation (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). In a review of organizational commitment studies, Allen and Meyer (1996) found that affective commitment was positively related the extent to which individuals defined their jobs to include extra-role behaviors. In addition, those employees were also more likely to perform those extra-role behaviors. Just as individuals high on affective commitment are willing to put forth extra effort the engage in extra-



role behaviors, they should not be dissuaded by the effort required to display positive emotions toward customers. It is expected that customer service employees that are higher on affective commitment perceive greater value in displaying positive emotions even though doing so may require effort. More specifically, because these individuals accept organizational goals and values and desire to exert effort to accomplish and support those goals and values, affectively committed employees should see displaying organizationally desired emotions as more satisfying.

Hypothesis 3a: Affective commitment is positively related to the valence judgments for displaying positive emotions.

Self-monitoring is another individual difference variable of interest; it is defined as the extent to which one observes and controls oneself according to what is appropriate for a particular situation (Michener, Delamatar, & Schwartz, 1986). High self-monitors are sensitive to the reactions of others and adjust their behaviors to influence those reactions to be positive (Baron & Greenberg, 1990). Thus, high self-monitors regulate their behavior because they are concerned with situational appropriateness of their behavior and how others view them. Low self-monitors do not perceive a need to conform to social expectations and are less likely to disguise their emotions or display fake emotions (Robbins, 1993). Research shows that high self-monitors pay more attention to the behaviors of others and conform to those behaviors more easily than low self-monitors. On the other hand, low self-monitors use their own motives to guide themselves and their behavior (Michener, Delamatar, & Schwartz, 1986). Basically, low self-monitors are less concerned with the impact of their behavior on others. In a service encounter, employees high on self-monitoring are guided by the situational appropriateness of displaying positive emotions towards customers. Employees low on self-monitoring pay little

attention to situational cues, are less concerned with the reactions of others, and may place less value on displaying positive emotions. High self-monitors, on the other hand, may see greater value in expressing positive emotions as they aim to maintain positive social interactions with customers.

Hypothesis 3b: Self-monitoring is positively related to the valence judgments for displaying positive emotions.

The Big Five personality dimension of agreeableness may also predict individuals' valence judgments for displaying positive emotions in customer service jobs. Agreeableness involves individuals' motivation to maintain positive relationships through behavior (Tobin, Graziano, Vanman, & Tassinary, 2000) and it has been found to play a role in emotional experiences that impact interpersonal relationships. A study by Tobin et al. (2000), found that when individuals were faced with negative scenarios, individuals higher in agreeableness expected to experience stronger emotions and to exert more effort to regulate emotions than individuals lower in agreeableness. These findings suggest that individuals high in agreeableness expect to control their emotions more than their peers because they naturally value maintaining positive associations with others. Unlike self-monitors, who are motivated to regulate their behavior to control how others view them, individuals high in agreeableness regulate their behavior in order to maintain positive relationships with others. In this way, both high self-monitors and individuals high in agreeableness value displaying positive emotions in customer service interaction, but for different reasons. It is expected that individuals high in agreeableness will be more likely to value expressing positive emotions toward customers than individuals low in agreeableness, as doing so will help them to maintain positive interactions with their

customers. Therefore, agreeableness will be positively related to anticipated satisfaction with displaying positive emotions in customer service encounters.

Hypothesis 3c: Agreeableness is positively related to valence judgments for displaying positive emotions.

Situational Antecedents. How attractive an emotional display appears to an employee may be affected by situational characteristics as well. In particular, the reward system and type of customer service job in which a person works might influence valence judgments. Locke (1968) suggested that incentives affect performance by influencing goal commitment. Hollenbeck and Klein (1987) suggested that how rewards are allocated might influence the anticipated satisfaction of obtaining a goal. The link between behavior and rewards has been referred to as reward structure (Klein & Wright, 1994). The current study refers to this variable as reward system and considers how it influences valence judgments for displaying positive emotions.

Rewarding employees as a way to increase desirable behaviors is a concept firmly planted in organizational behavior modification (Cummings & Worley, 2001). However, how closely rewards are tied to behaviors varies a great deal across organizations (Wright, 1989). Research shows that rewards that are directly contingent on goal attainment have the greatest impact on the valence of goal attainment (Klein and Wright, 1994; Wright, 1989). For example, Wright (1989) found that incentive plans involving bonuses that were contingent on performance resulted in higher commitment than hourly-rate incentives. Similarly, in a field study involving retail sales people, Luthans, Paul, and Baker (1981) found that a contingent reinforcement plan resulted in significant improvement in sales performance. These studies highlight the superior nature of contingent reinforcement in which rewards are closely linked with behavior. The closer

employees perceive rewards as being related to organizationally desired behavior, the more value they may assign to those behaviors. Based on this prior research, the present investigation examines how reward system relates to valence judgments for emotional displays. It is anticipated that, the more closely employees perceive rewards being tied to displaying positive emotions, the greater their valence associated with doing so.

Hypothesis 4a: Reward structure is positively related to valence judgments for displaying positive emotions.

Another situational variable examined as a predictor of the valence of positive emotional displays is the extent to which the jobs involve service encounters or service relationships (Gutek, 1995). True service relationships can be characterized as involving customers who seek out particular individuals for assistance in obtaining goods or services (Gutek, 1995). On the other hand, service encounters can be characterized as involving customers who seek out goods or services from organizations, and not particular individuals. In service encounters, it is doubtful that an employee will interact with the same customer in the future, however, in service relationships, employees and customers interact repeatedly. The difference between these two types of service associations is that in service relationships, employees may be motivated to interact positively with customers, whereas in encounters, having a positive interaction may not matter as much. Employees in jobs with service relationships are motivated to provide good customer service in order to gain new repeat customers or retain old customers. Employees in jobs with service encounters are not independently responsible for attracting new customers or retaining old ones and may not value giving good service as much (Gutek, Bhappu, Mathew, Liao-Troth, & Cherry, 1999). Gutek et al. (1999) found that customers are more satisfied with service relationships than service encounters. The cause of this satisfaction is currently unclear,

however, it could be that employees in relationships provide better service. Employees in jobs with service relationships may value the outcomes associated with expressing positive emotions toward customers (e.g. obtaining new customers and retaining old customers), because it is important for being successful in their work. Employees in jobs with service encounters do not have the same pressure and therefore should assign less value to the outcomes of expressing positive emotions; their customer base is not as contingent on how they behave toward individual customers. Therefore, the more the job involves service relationships with customers the more value individuals will attach to displaying positive emotions toward customers.

Hypothesis 4b: Service association predicts valence judgments for displaying positive emotions.

#### Antecedents of Emotional Display Commitment

As indicated previously, expectancy theory has been used as a theoretical framework for understanding goal commitment (Hollenbeck & Klein, 1987). The proposed investigation considers expectancy theory in relation to commitment to displaying positive emotions in customer service jobs. Consistent with prior research, the current investigation compares the predictive utility of the multiplicative MF operationalization of expectancy and valence judgments with the separate expectancy and valence judgments. As mentioned previously, the MF operationalization does not allow for an exploration of how expectancy and valence judgments might independently influence goal commitment and it assumes that expectancy and valence judgments are unrelated to each other. Further, research in the goal-setting literature has shown that both MF and the separate expectancy and valence operationalization can predict goal commitment. Both of these possibilities are explored in the current study. (See Figures 1 and 2 for the complete models.)

Hypothesis 5a: Expectancy for displaying positive emotions is positively related to commitment to displaying positive emotions.

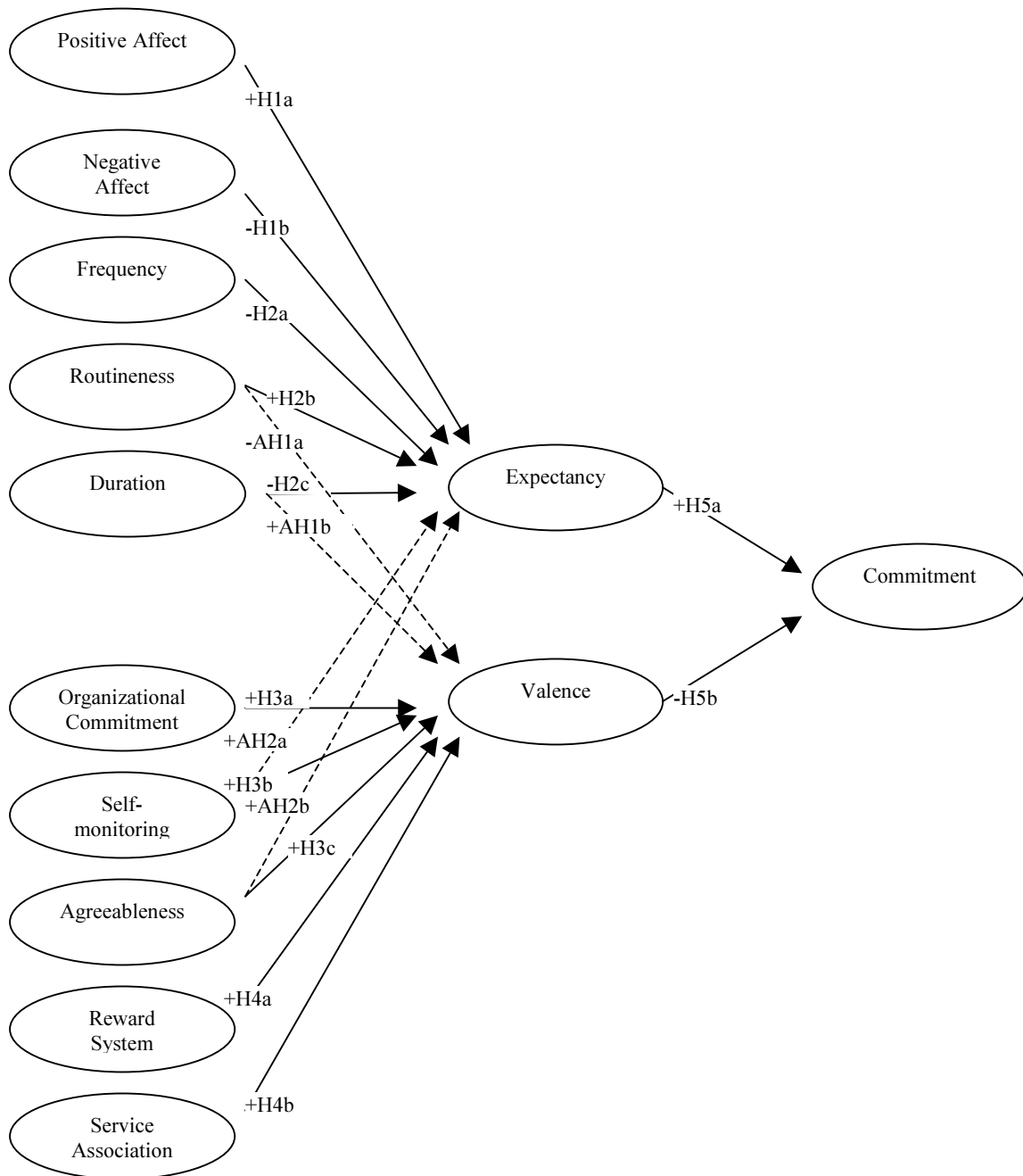
Hypothesis 5b: Valence for displaying positive emotions is positively related to commitment to displaying positive emotions.

Hypothesis 6: The MF for displaying positive emotions is positively related to commitment to displaying positive emotions.

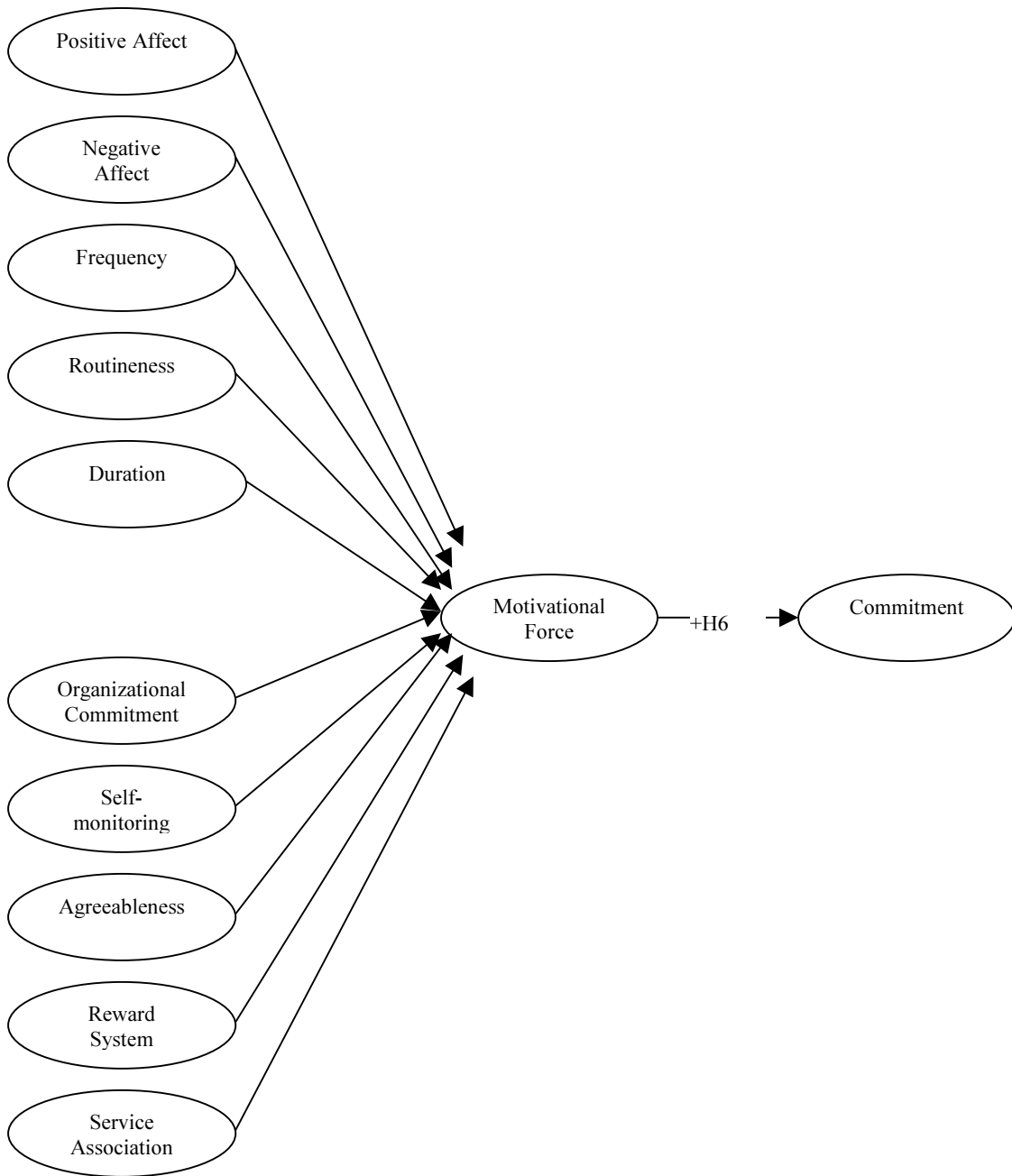
#### Alternative Paths from Situational Antecedents to Expectancy and Valence

The set of hypotheses just described represent a clear and parsimonious model of factors influencing commitment to positive emotional displays. They are solidly backed by previous research and theory. However, several authors (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; Jöreskog & Sörbom, 2003) have suggested testing an original set of hypotheses, as represented in a hypothesized structural model, against alternative structural models containing alternative hypothesized paths. This allows for the flexibility to find a theoretically sound model that best represents the data. Therefore, theoretically supported alternative structural models were developed by hypothesizing additional paths between several antecedents and expectancy and valence. The following sections provide a brief description of these alternative paths.

The most researched aspect of routineness involves its role in making customer interactions easy (i.e. more routine) or difficult (i.e. more variable), for the employee. This aspect of routineness should influence expectancy regarding emotional display options, as previously discussed. However, routineness might also relate to how much individuals value displaying positive emotions toward customers. Specifically, people may not place a high value on displaying positive emotions when interactions are very routine because those interactions are not very variable and are designed for consistency, not for the unique needs of each particular



**Figure 1.** Hypothesized expectancy model: Expectancy and valence operationalization. Only the latent variables are shown in the model. Solid lines represent hypothesized links; dashed lines represent alternative links. H = Hypothesis; AH = Alternative Hypothesis.



**Figure 2.** Hypothesized expectancy model: Motivational force operationalization. Only the latent variables are shown in the model. Solid lines represent hypothesized links; dashed lines represent alternative links. H = Hypothesis; AH = Alternative Hypothesis.



customer (Schneider & Bowen, 1995). In these non-variable, routine interactions with customers, the nature of emotional displays may not matter as much, so no particular emotional display will be valued very highly. During non-routine interactions, in which each new interaction may require a different set of positive emotional displays in response to different sets of customer service interaction circumstances, the importance of positive emotional displays in determining the nature and outcome of the interaction will be higher and therefore employees will value them more.

In terms of duration, employees may feel that being positive toward customers during long customer service interactions can have a stronger influence on a customer's experience than in shorter interactions. Longer interactions allow an employee to gain more information about customers and that information becomes a stronger influence on the course the interaction will take (Morris & Feldman, 1996). Likewise, customers also have the opportunity to gain more information about the employee, therefore controlling emotional displays and behaving positively toward customers becomes increasingly important during longer interactions in terms of influencing the customer's experience and the outcome of the interaction. Consequently, for work entailing customer service interactions of longer duration, employees will value displaying positive emotions more highly. Considering the possibility of these additional relationships, the following alternative hypotheses are investigated.

Alternative Hypothesis 1a: The routineness of interactions is negatively related to the valence of displaying positive emotions.

Alternative Hypothesis 1b: The duration of interactions is positively related to the valence of displaying positive emotions.

High self-monitors and individuals high in agreeableness are expected to value emotional regulation because they value behaving situationally appropriate or maintaining positive relationships by regulating their behavior. However, high self-monitors and individuals high in agreeableness may also have higher expectancies (i.e. anticipate being able to display positive emotions more successfully) than individuals low on either individual difference variable. Research shows that along with paying more attention to the behavior of others, high self-monitors also more easily conform to that behavior (Michener, Delamatar, & Schwartz, 1986). Therefore, in situations calling for the display of positive emotions, high self-monitors might expect to be able to display positive emotions more easily than low self-monitors because they more easily modify their behavior to fit different situations.

Research and theory suggest that individuals high in agreeableness have temperaments that make them prone to being empathetic, kind, and considerate (Rothbart & Bates, 1998; Tobin et al., 2000). Research also suggests that agreeableness is positively related to pleasant affect and negatively related to negative affect (McCrae & Costa, 1991; Watson & Clark, 1992). Therefore, across situations, individuals high in agreeableness may be prone to behaving positively toward others. Specifically in customer service jobs, agreeable individuals should be prone to empathizing with their customers and displaying positive emotions toward them. They also will be practiced at controlling their emotions to maintain positive relationships with their customers, as individuals high in agreeableness aim to do. Therefore, because they are prone to behaving positively toward others and practiced at doing so, individuals high in agreeableness will expect to be able to display positive emotions toward their customers. Considering the possibility of these additional relationships, the following alternative hypotheses are investigated.

Alternative Hypothesis 2a: Self-monitoring is positively related to the expectancy judgments for displaying positive emotions.

Alternative Hypothesis 2b: Agreeableness is positively related to the expectancy judgments for displaying positive emotions.

### The Current Investigation

The purpose of this investigation was to examine the factors that influence employees' commitment to displaying positive emotions in customer service jobs, using an expectancy theory framework. Customer service employees were used because these individuals are expected to express positive emotions as part of the work role (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Diefendorff & Richard, 2003; Hirschfeld, 1983). Thus, displaying positive emotions can be considered a salient activity for customer service employees. Consistent with Klein's recommendation, the "single value" operationalization of expectancy and valence was used; individuals were asked to rate their expectancy and valence for multiple display options (i.e., positive, neutral, and negative emotions) in a within-subjects fashion and the ratings for positive displays were used in between-subjects analyses. Although only the ratings for the positive displays were used in analyses, the use of different potential display options in the assessment gave individuals the same frame-of-reference for evaluating their expectancy and valence for positive emotional displays.

Individuals provided these expectancy and valence ratings first in relation to a typical customer service interaction and then in relation to a difficult service interaction involving the occurrence of a negative affective event. Basch and Fisher (2000) defined an affective event as "an incident that stimulates appraisal of and emotional reaction to a transitory or ongoing job-related agent, object, or event" (p. 37). Ratings in relation to typical service interactions are less

likely to be affectively charged and are intended to provide a base-line assessment of expectancy and valence judgments for typical customer service interactions. Therefore the service interaction with the negative affective event was introduced to examine expectancy and valence judgments under difficult circumstances in which individual differences in expectancy and valence judgments may be more likely to emerge. The difficult scenario required individuals to imagine that an incivility event had occurred. Incivility events are situations in which others perform low-intensity behaviors that violate workplace norms of mutual respect (Andersson & Pearson, 1999, p. 457 in Grandey & Brauburger, 2002). Research suggests that incivility events are the most common cause of anger for working students (Grandey, et al., 2001) and that working students deal with “difficult” customers once or twice a day (Cortina, Magley, Williams, & Langhout, 2001). Therefore, participants should be familiar with this type of negative affective event. Displaying positive emotions in the face of negative events may provide a critical test of how committed individuals are to positive displays required in customer service jobs, resulting in greater differentiation between individuals than might occur in typical customer interactions.

Finally, individuals rated their commitment to performing emotional displays on the job. Models were tested in which situation and person variables were examined as antecedents of expectancy and valence judgments, and expectancy and valence were examined as antecedents of emotional display commitment. An alternative model with motivational force (expectancy x valence) instead of separate expectancy and valence judgments was also examined. Both models were tested using the ratings for the typical customer service interaction and the ratings for the difficult service interaction. It was anticipated that better prediction would occur for the difficult service interaction than for the typical service interaction, as this situation should create more variance in expectancy and valence judgments.

## METHOD

### Participants

The minimum sample size requirement for structural equation modeling (see analytic strategy) is generally accepted to be 200 (Boomsma, 1982; Schumacker & Lomax, 1996). Participants in the study were 269 employed students from a large, southern university who took part in return for psychology extra course credit.

Type of employment was restricted to customer service and sales positions where positive affective displays are the norm (e.g., salespersons, waitperson/bartenders, retail clothing sales associates, etc.). Eight participants with customer service jobs such as telemarketing were excluded from the analyses because they don't have face-to-face customer interactions, which are important when studying emotional displays. Nine participants were excluded from analyses because their expectancy and valence ratings for the typical customer interaction scenario indicated that they did not consider positive emotional displays to be the goal they strive for at work. That is, they had higher motivational force for another emotional display alternative (i.e., negative or neutral emotional displays). Nine subjects with univariate outliers and three subjects with multivariate outliers were also excluded. Participants with small numbers of random missing responses were retained in the sample (i.e. four or less). Mean replacement was used to replace 26 out of 28892 data points; that is, .09% of the total number of data points. Seven participants with more than four missing responses were excluded from the final analysis. The removal of these participants resulted in a sample size of 233.

With regard to this final sample, participants worked an average of 22.34 hours per week in the customer service industry (SD = 7.92). Employees included in the final analysis had an average age of 20.49 years (SD = 4.26), 74.2% of them were females, 87.6% were White, 7.3%

were African American, 2.6% were Asian American, 1.7% were Hispanic, and .4% were Native American. In addition, these employees had been employed by their current organization an average of 20.68 months ( $SD = 23.91$ ), and had held their current job position an average of 18.27 months ( $SD = 23.69$ ).

## Materials

### Customer Interaction Scenario Induction

Participants were asked to make expectancy, valence, and commitment ratings in relation to typical interactions with their customers. They were then asked to rate these variables in relation to their typical customer service interactions with the addition of an incivility event. The following procedure was used to induce the typical and difficult customer service scenarios. As a first step, participants wrote a detailed description of their typical service interaction. Research shows that writing about situations improves the accuracy of recall (Gardiner, Passmore, Herriot, Klee, 1977; King, 1968). Individuals were instructed to visualize their typical service interaction and provide a step-by-step account of what occurs from the moment they first encounter a customer, to the time the interaction ends. They were then asked to write down this information in as much detail as possible. Following this initial exercise, participants completed expectancy and valence ratings for positive, neutral, and negative emotional displays, in relation to this event. They also rated their commitment to displaying positive emotions in typical service scenarios (see Appendix C).

For the difficult customer scenario induction, participants were asked to again think of their typical customer service interaction, but imagine that the customer is thoughtless and rude, making it difficult to work with that customer. This description of the incivility event is consistent with Basch and Fisher's (2000) definition of an affective event, in that it made

participant reappraise the experience. A study by Grandey, et al. (2001) revealed that incivility events are the most common cause of anger for working students. Another survey revealed that working students deal with “difficult” customers once or twice a day (Cortina, Magley, Williams, & Langhout, 2001). Therefore, the scenario should have induced a familiar negative situation that individuals could imagine with relative ease. To examine whether individuals could realistically imagine the negative affective event, participants responded to the following question “Is dealing with this type of customer likely to occur in your customer service work?” using a 5-point Likert scale (“extremely unlikely” = 1, “extremely likely” = 5). Participants then rated the expectancy and valence for displaying positive, neutral, and negative emotional displays in relation to this difficult scenario. Then they rated their commitment to displaying positive emotions, this time in relation to the difficult scenario (see Appendix C).

### Measures

Dispositional Affect. Positive affectivity (PA) and negative affectivity (NA) are stable dispositions that reflect the tendency to experience positive and negative emotions, respectively (Watson & Clark, 1984). Individual affectivity was measured using the PANAS (see Appendix B) (Watson, Clark, and Tellegen, 1988). The measure consists of 10 positive mood-relevant adjectives (e.g. excited, proud) and 10 negative mood-relevant adjectives (e.g., afraid, irritable). Participants indicated the extent to which they feel each emotion in general, across situations. Responses were measured by a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from “very slightly or not at all” = 1, to “extremely” = 5. Reliability estimates for PA and NA are .88 and .87, respectively (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988).

Frequency of Customer Interactions. Frequency of interactions reflects the rate of employee-customer interactions. The scale measuring frequency was developed by Gosserand

and Diefendorff (under review). The scale is made up of three items measured on a 5-point Likert scale (“strongly disagree” = 1 to “strongly agree” = 5). A sample frequency item is “I deal with customers on a frequent basis at work”. Gosserand found the scale to have a coefficient alpha reliability score of .81. This scale may be found in Appendix B.

Routineness of Customer Service Interactions. Routineness refers to the uniformity of customer service interactions. The more uniform the interaction, the less variable in character and the more routine it will be. The scale measuring routineness was adapted by Gosserand and Diefendorff (under review) from a five-item scale by Withey, Daft, and Cooper (1983), who reported an internal consistency reliability of .81. The scale was adapted to apply to customer service situations. The scale used in this study is made up of three items measured on a 5-point Likert scale (“strongly disagree” = 1 to “strongly agree” = 5). A sample item is “My work with customers is fairly routine”. The scale may be found in Appendix B.

Duration of Customer Service Interactions. Duration refers to how much time is spent with each customer. The scale measuring duration was also developed by Gosserand and Diefendorff (under review) (see Appendix B). The scale is made up of three items measured on a 5-point Likert scale (“strongly disagree” = 1 to “strongly agree” = 5). A sample duration item is “My encounters with customers usually last a while”. Gosserand found the scale to have a coefficient alpha reliability score of .83.

Affective Commitment. Affective organizational commitment reflects the extent of an individual’s identification, involvement, and emotional attachment to the organization (Allen & Meyer (1996). The Allen and Meyer (1990) affective commitment scale (ACS) will be used (see Appendix B). It consists of 8-items, measured on a 7-point Likert scale (“disagree” = 1, “strongly



agree” = 7). A review of its use shows this scale’s reliability ranges from .74 to .89 (Allen & Meyer, 1996). This scale may be found in Appendix B.

Self-monitoring. Self-monitoring refers to how responsive individuals are to social cues and is operationalized with 18 items of the Self-Monitoring Scale (Snyder, 1974). The use of this modified version of the original 25-item scale is recommended by Snyder and Gangestad (1986), who found the 18-item version to have a reliability of .70. This scale consists of 18 self-descriptive statements that are measured on a 5-point Likert Scale. This scale may be found in Appendix B.

Agreeableness. Saucier’s (1994) shortened version of Goldberg’s (1992) Big Five personality measure will be used to assess agreeableness (see Appendix B). Each scale on the Big Five measure includes eight adjectives (e.g., kind, sympathetic). Individuals indicate the extent to which they agree that the adjectives describe them on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = “strongly disagree”; 7 = “strongly agree”). Engel and Diefendorff (2002) reported a coefficient alpha reliability of .82 for this scale.

Reward System. Reward systems differ in how closely rewards are tied to behaviors. Studies show that behaviorally based rewards are more effective in motivating employees to reach goals than punishment (Luthans, Paul, and Baker, 1981). A scale measuring the extent to which rewards are tied to displaying positive emotions was developed for this study. Initially, a pool of eight items was developed to assess perceptions of how closely rewards, praise, and pay are tied to displaying positive emotions. These items were piloted on 103 working students who responded on a 5-point Likert scale (“strongly disagree = 1, “strongly agree” = 5). An initial confirmatory factor analysis was done to confirm that these items formed three separate factors. A three-factor model had good fit ( $\chi^2 = 24.54$ ,  $df = 17$ ,  $p = .11$ ; RMSEA = .068; SRMR = .054;

CFI = .98; TLI = .97) and factor loadings for the individual items were high (.61-.88). This three-factor model fit the data significantly better than a one-factor model ( $\chi^2 = 98.73$ ,  $df = 20$ ,  $p < .05$ ; RMSEA = .21; SRMR = .13; CFI = .84; TLI = .77;  $\Delta\chi^2(3) = 74.19$ ,  $p < .05$ ). Pay, praise, and reward had mean levels of 2.35, 3.72, and 3.64, respectively, and alpha levels for all three scales were acceptable (.75-.77). Praise and pay were correlated at  $r = .26$ ,  $p < .05$ , praise and reward were correlated at  $r = .79$ ,  $p < .05$ , and reward and pay were correlated at  $r = .39$ ,  $p < .05$ . Because of the high correlation between praise and reward, a two-factor model was also tested, with the praise and reward items loading onto a single praise/reward factor. This two-factor model fit the data significantly worse than the three-factor model ( $\chi^2 = 30.79$ ,  $df = 19$ ,  $p < .05$ ; RMSEA = .083; SRMR = .060; CFI = .98; TLI = .96;  $\Delta\chi^2(2) = 6.25$ ,  $p < .05$ ). Confirmatory factor analysis was then conducted on the pilot data to test whether pay, praise, and reward for displaying positive emotions toward customers comprised perceptions of a general reward system for displaying positive emotions toward customers; a similar technique was used by Judge, Locke, Durham, and Kluger (1998) in considering core self-evaluations. Pay, praise, and reward scales were constrained to load onto one factor. This model fit the data relatively well ( $\chi^2 = 5.31$ ,  $df = 1$ ,  $p < .05$ ; RMSEA = .20; SRMR = .050; CFI = .95; TLI = .84) and all factor loadings were significant (.36 - .89). The alpha coefficient of this scale was within the accepted range for both the pilot and the focal data (.72 and .78, respectively). Items are included in Appendix B.

Service Association. The service association scale was developed for this study and refers to the extent to which employees perceive their associations with customers to be relationships or encounters. In service encounters, it is doubtful that an employee will interact with the same customer in the future. In service relationships, employees and customers interact repeatedly. With this distinction in mind, 10 items were developed to measure the extent to which employees

perceive their associations with customers to be relationships or encounters. Participants in the previously mentioned pilot study rated each item on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = “strongly disagree”; 5 = “strongly agree”). Using the pilot sample of 103 students, an exploratory factor analysis was undertaken to determine the number of factors underlying the 10 service association items. Throughout the analysis, only variables with loadings of .32 or higher were interpreted; this is consistent with the standard of suggested use discussed by Tabachnick and Fidel (2001). The initial analysis suggested that there were two to three factors underlying the data. The extraction method of principle axis factoring was used with oblimin rotation with three factors specified. The items loaded distinctly on the three factors, but two of the factors seemed to differ only in item wording and not the underlying construct; three items with the wording “return to work with me” loaded on one factor and two items referring to “repeat customers” loaded on the other. A two-factor structure represented two distinct constructs (i.e. general anticipated future interaction, and customers working with a specific employee). Two items had low factor loadings (.30) and one item had high loadings on both factors (.42 and .55, respectively). These three items were excluded from further analyses. All remaining items had distinct factor loadings; 2 items loaded on the general anticipated future interaction (.81, .86), and 5 items loaded on the factor representing customers working with a specific employee (.52-.79). Clearly the final 7 pilot items represented a multidimensional scale; furthermore it appeared that those dimensions might not be tapping into “service association” as differentiating between perceptions of customer interactions as relationships or encounters. Therefore, several items directly asking about work relationships and encounters were added for further exploratory purposes and the scale was reevaluated with the final customer service employee sample of 233 participants. With regard to the final data analysis, exploratory analysis revealed that four items

loaded on an anticipated future interaction factor (.82-.88) and five items loaded on a factor reflecting personal affinity between customers and employees as well as customers returning to work with specific employees (.68-.82). A decision was made to use the items reflecting anticipated future interaction; this factor reflected the construct of service association, as differentiating between relationships and encounters, as well as the logic behind the hypotheses. Based on the final data set, the coefficient alpha for this scale was well within the accepted range (.86). Final scale items can be found in Appendix B. A sample item is “I typically work with a customer once”.

Expectancy, Valence, and Motivational Force Values. As previously mentioned, participants made expectancy and valence ratings regarding positive, neutral, and negative emotional displays in typical and difficult customer service interactions. This investigation defines positive emotional displays as smiling and speaking in a pleasant tone. This description is consistent with the operationalizations of Pugh (2001), Tsai (2001), and Tsai and Huang (2002). Negative emotional displays are defined as frowning, and speaking in an irritated or frustrated tone. This description is consistent with a study by Grandey et al. (2002) in which negative displays were operationalized as revealing irritation through expression and voice tone. Lastly, neutral emotional displays are characterized as the absence of both positive and negative facial and vocal emotional expression. Morris and Feldman (1997) describe neutral displays as being used to display dispassionate status; in other words, showing no expression involves displaying flat-affect without a positive or negative vocal tone.

Expectancy was measured for each display option by having participants rate the probability out of 100, that they could express positive emotions, show no emotions, and express negative emotions. Similarly, valence was measured by a survey asking participants to indicate

their anticipated satisfaction with performing each display option (i.e., express positive emotions, show no emotions, express negative emotions). These items were measured on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = very unsatisfied; 5 = very satisfied). This method is consistent with the within-persons design described by Klein (1991) and used by Tubbs, Boehne, and Dahl (1993). The expectancy and valence assessments for displaying positive emotions were used in the analyses. This treatment of expectancy and valence is consistent with the “single value” operationalization described by Klein (1991) and discussed earlier in the paper. Klein and Wright (1994) used a similar within subjects design in their study of the antecedents of goal commitment. The expectancy and valence measures are located in Appendix C.

After obtaining participants’ expectancy and valence judgments, a MF value was computed for the positive display option by multiplying the expectancy and valence ratings. This computation of MF is consistent with Vroom’s (1964) expectancy theory and was examined as an alternative to the separate operationalizations.

Commitment to Positive Displays. Commitment to positive displays refers to being psychologically bound to displaying positive emotions at work (Locke, Shaw, Saari, & Latham, 1981). An individual highly committed to displaying positive emotions during customer service will be determined to do so and persist on doing so regardless of the situation. This study used items based on scales developed by Hollenbeck et. al.(1989) to measure this construct. In a review of the scale, Klein, Wesson, Hollenbeck, Wright, and DeShon (2001) reported a coefficient alpha of .74. Items from their five-item scale of goal commitment were reworded to be relevant to the goal of displaying positive emotions in customer service encounters. Sample items for this study include: “It’s hard to take displaying positive emotions seriously” and “Quite frankly, I don’t care if I display positive emotions or not”. The items were measured on a five-

point Likert scale (“strongly disagree” = 1; “strongly agree” = 5). A high score on the scale indicates high commitment to displaying positive emotions in interactions with customers. The modified items may be found in Appendix C.

### Procedure

Participants first completed a consent form and a questionnaire assessing demographics (see Appendix A). This questionnaire also required participants to describe their job duties and responsibilities. They then completed measures of situational and dispositional variables (see Appendix B). Following that, participants received the “typical interaction” induction and rated their expectancy and valence for displaying positive, neutral, and negative emotions during the typical interaction. Specifically, instructions asked them to consider the interaction they just described and indicate how satisfied they would be with expressing positive emotions (e.g. smiling, speaking in a friendly tone), showing no emotions (e.g. showing neither positive nor negative emotion, speaking in a neutral tone), and expressing negative emotions (e.g. frowning, speaking in an frustrated, or irritable tone). Following that, instructions asked them to indicate how confident they are that they could successfully express those same emotions. Examples of the three display options were given to participants in order to make sure that the interpretation of each option was consistent across people. Lastly, participants completed a survey assessing their commitment to displaying positive emotions in the typical service encounter they had described. The instructions and response forms are located in Appendix C.

Participants then received the “difficult interaction” induction; they were asked to imagine the same typical customer service scenario with the addition of a negative event involving a difficult customer. They then completed the expectancy, valence, and commitment surveys following the introduction of the negative affective event. Specifically, instructions

asked them to consider the difficult interaction and rate their expectancy and valence for the three emotional display options (positive emotions, no emotions, and negative emotions). These instructions and response forms are also located in Appendix C. At the end of the session, participants were debriefed on the purpose of the study and awarded extra credit.

### Analytic Strategy

Structural equation modeling (SEM) was used to test the proposed hypotheses in the present study. Following the two-step approach recommended by Anderson and Gerbing (1988), an initial confirmatory factor analysis was used to assess the measurement of the study constructs. Measurement model fit provides the baseline with which to compare structural model fit. Once an adequate measurement model is identified, the hypothesized structural model is tested against the measurement model, using a chi-square difference test. A significant decrease in fit suggests that the hypothesized structural model is not adequately representing the data. Such a result suggests that testing alternative models is appropriate and may be useful for identifying a better fitting model. Therefore, alternative models are then assessed and compared to the hypothesized structural model and the measurement model in order to find the model that best represents theoretically supported fit of the data. LISREL 8.54 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 2003) was used to test the measurement and structural models. Throughout all the procedures, maximum-likelihood (ML) estimation was used. Throughout the analysis, the following fit indices were used (a) the chi-square goodness-of-fit statistics, (b) the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), also known as the non-normed fit index (NNFI) (c) the root-means-square error of approximation (RMSEA), (d) the standardized root-mean-square residual (SRMR), and (e) the comparative fit index (CFI). According to Vandenberg and Lance (2000), for the TLI and the CFI, values above .90 signify good fit, and for the RMSEA and the SRMR, values below .08 and

.10 indicate good fit, respectively. In comparing the fit of the measurement, structural, and alternative structural models, the chi-square difference test was used (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993). Following that, the significance of parameter estimates was examined to provide direct tests of the hypotheses.

In testing the measurement model, randomly chosen item parcels, or “testlets”, were used to create three indicators for positive and negative affect, affective organizational commitment, self-monitoring, agreeableness, and reward system, and two indicators for service association. Recommended by Williams and Anderson (1994), this approach results in more reliable indicators and a smaller number of parameters to be estimated in LISREL, than if individual items were used. Testlets were not created for the variables of frequency, routineness, and duration because only three items were present for each construct; each item was used as a separate indicator for these variables. Expectancy, valence, and MF for displaying positive emotions were represented by single indicators. Each factor loading (i.e.,  $\lambda_{\gamma}$ ) was set equal to the square root of the reliability, and the error variance (i.e.,  $\theta_{\epsilon}$ ) was set equal to one minus the reliability multiplied by the variance of the observed score, as recommended by Anderson and Gerbing (1988). Reliabilities for these single indicator variables were set based on previous research (Allen, Luceron, & Van Norman, 1997; Ilgen, Nebeker, and Pritchard, 1981; Sheridan, Richards, & Slocum, 1975). In particular, two expectancy scores (.87 and .61) were averaged to obtain a reliability based on past research. With this average being equal to .74, the factor loading for expectancy was set to .86 and the error variance was set to 112.82. Concerning valence, past research showing reliability values of .77, .87, and .80 were averaged and the resulting reliability score of .81 was used to specify factor loading (.90) and error variance (.20). For MF, the reliabilities of expectancy and valence (.74 and .81, respectively) were multiplied to



obtain a reliability score of .60 for MF, which resulted in a factor loading of .77 and an error variance of 6150.84.

## RESULTS

### Initial Analyses

To examine whether the difficult scenario induction was realistic for participants, participants responded to the following question “Is dealing with this type of customer likely to occur in your customer service work?”. On average, participants responded that dealing with this type of customer was somewhat likely or likely for them ( $M = 3.60$ ,  $SD = 1.05$ ). Thirteen percent of participants felt it would be unlikely that they would have to deal with this type of customer in their work. On the other hand, 87% of participants reported that dealing with this type of customer would be at least somewhat likely, 55% felt it would be likely or extremely likely. It therefore appears that the difficult service interaction is a real possibility for most participants.

As briefly mentioned in the method, participants exhibiting higher motivational force for displaying neutral or negative emotions in place of positive emotions in typical customer service interactions were excluded from the analysis. Doing so was necessary to ensure that the individuals in this study truly adopted positive displays as their goal in customer service interactions. This allowed the results of this study to be consistent with the use the single value operationalization of expectancy theory in which participants should have the same underlying goal (i.e. displaying positive emotions to customers). The expectancy and valence ratings for displaying positive, neutral, and negative emotions in typical customer service interactions were multiplied together to obtain motivational force scores for the three types of displays. Nine individuals had higher motivational force for displaying neutral or negative emotions compared to positive emotions in customer service interactions.

The means, standard deviations, internal consistency reliabilities, and intercorrelations of all scales are presented in Table 1. All scale reliabilities were at acceptable levels.

Table 1

Means, Standard Deviations, Reliabilities, and Intercorrelations Among Scales

Scale	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1 Positive Affect	3.44	.64	.84													
2 Negative Affect	1.75	.49	-.08	.78												
3 Frequency	4.55	.71	.08	.05	.70											
4 Routineness	4.07	.78	-.15*	.07	.19*	.76										
5 Duration	2.70	1.07	.14	.10	-.06	-.20*	.88									
6 Organizational Commitment	3.21	.71	.39*	-.13	-.02	-.14*	.11	.74								
7 Self-monitoring	3.10	.50	.26*	.02	-.06	-.14*	.04	.16*	.71							
8 Agreeableness	4.23	.52	.32*	-.19*	.02	-.03	.02	.21*	.04	.79						
9 Reward System	3.32	.90	.16*	.07	.14*	-.06	.11	.22*	.25*	.05	.83					
10 Service Association	3.96	.97	.16*	.08	.11	.04	.06	.25*	.04	.10	.17*	.86				
11 Expectancy	68.95	20.83	.20*	-.11	-.03	-.18*	.18*	.20*	.19*	.28*	.19*	.06	-			
12 Valence	3.96	1.02	.24*	-.09	-.06	-.16*	.08	.21*	.08	.22*	.20*	.15*	.53*	-		
13 Motivational Force	284.06	123.91	.25*	-.12	-.04	-.19*	.14*	.20*	.15*	.29*	.19*	.12	.87*	.83*	-	
14 Display Commitment	3.50	.91	.27*	-.16*	-.02	-.19*	.18*	.20*	.17*	.20*	.10	.12	.65*	.43*	.63*	.79

Note. n=233. \*  $p < .05$ . Internal consistency reliabilities are reported on the diagonal for all multi-item scales.

Table 2

Completely Standardized Indicator Loadings for the Final Measurement Model

Indicator	Loading
Positive Affectivity 1	.74
Positive Affectivity 2	.82
Positive Affectivity 3	.80
Negative Affectivity 1	.81
Negative Affectivity 2	.79
Negative Affectivity 3	.70
Frequency of Customer Interactions 1	.86
Frequency of Customer Interactions 2	.61
Frequency of Customer Interactions 3	.56
Routineness of Customer Interactions 1	.57
Routineness of Customer Interactions 2	.79
Routineness of Customer Interactions 3	.81
Duration of Customer Interactions 1	.80
Duration of Customer Interactions 2	.82
Duration of Customer Interactions 3	.91
Affective Organizational Commitment 1	.60
Affective Organizational Commitment 2	.98
Affective Organizational Commitment 3	.71
Self Monitoring 1	.82
Self Monitoring 2	.62
Self Monitoring 3	.67
Agreeableness 1	.80
Agreeableness 2	.84
Agreeableness 3	.67

Table 2 continued

Reward Structure 1	.57
Reward Structure 2	.76
Reward Structure 3	.94
Service Association 1	.77
Service Association 2	.99
Expectancy for Displaying Positive Emotions- Difficult Scenario	.86
Valence for Displaying Positive Emotions- Difficult Scenario	.90
Display Commitment for Displaying Positive Emotions- Difficult Scenario 1	.90
Display Commitment for Displaying Positive Emotions- Difficult Scenario 2	.76

Note. All indicators loaded significantly on their respective factors ( $p < .05$ ).

### Tests of Separate Expectancy and Valence Hypothesized Models

The hypothesized measurement model consisted of 13 latent factors: positive affectivity and negative affectivity, frequency, routineness, and duration of service interactions, affective organizational commitment, self monitoring, agreeableness, reward structure, service association, expectancy and valence for displaying positive emotions, and commitment to displaying positive emotions. The measurement model fit the data very well ( $\chi^2 = 569.70$ ,  $df = 419$ ; RMSEA = .035; SRMR = .052; CFI = .96; TFI = .95). All indicators loaded highly on their respective latent variables (see Table 2 for the factor loadings for the indicators used in the measurement model).

Table 3

#### Fit Indices for Expectancy and Valence Measurements Model and Structural Models

Model	$\chi^2$	df	p	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	TLI	$\Delta\chi^2$ to MM
MM	569.70	419	.00	.035	.052	.96	.95	-
Hyp. SM	616.77	439	.00	.039	.063	.96	.95	47.07*
Alt. SM 1	587.80	435	.00	.035	.055	.96	.95	18.10
Alt. SM 2	588.06	436	.00	.035	.055	.96	.95	18.36

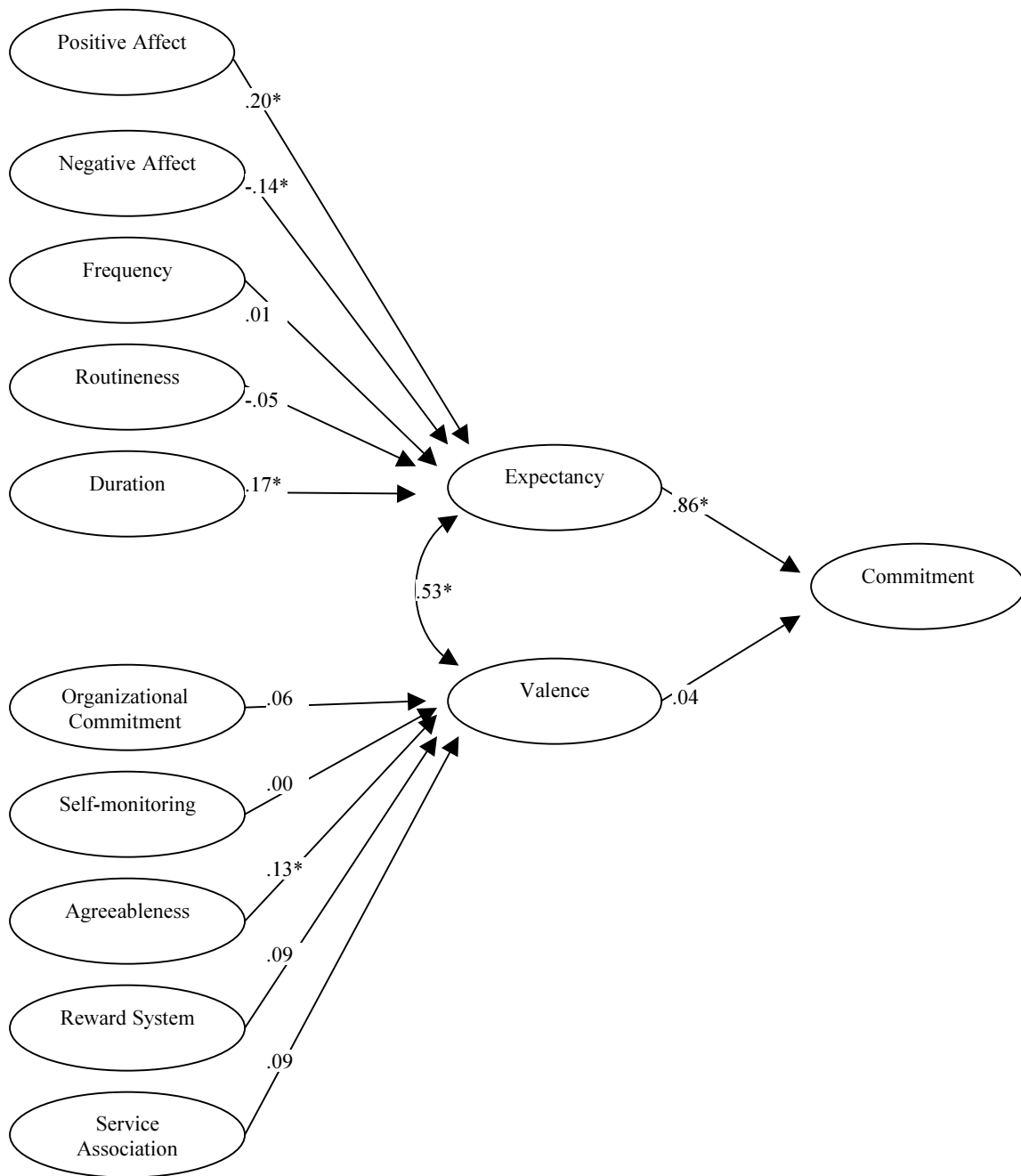
Note. MM = Measurement Model; SM = Structural Model; \*  $p < .05$

The hypothesized model can be seen as represented by the solid lines in Figure 1, as previously presented. Fit statistics for the measurement model and structural models are presented in Table 3. The hypothesized structural model places direct links from positive affect, negative affect, frequency, routineness, and duration to expectancy for displaying positive emotions. Direct links are also placed from affective commitment, self-monitoring, agreeableness, reward structure,

and service association to valence for displaying positive emotions. Lastly, there are direct links from both expectancy and valence to commitment for displaying positive emotions. A non-directional path between expectancy and valence is also freely estimated because past literature has shown a significant correlation between these variables (Klein, 1991). This hypothesized structural model can be seen in Figure 3. Though the hypothesized structural model fit the data well ( $\chi^2 = 616.77$ ,  $df = 439$ ; RMSEA = .039; SRMR = .063; CFI = .96; TFI = .95), it fit significantly worse than the measurement model ( $\Delta\chi^2(20) = 47.07$ ,  $p < .05$ ). Alternative models were therefore explored.

The first alternative model (Alt. SM 1) (See Figure 1) added paths from routineness and duration to valence for displaying positive emotions and from agreeableness and self-monitoring to expectancy for displaying positive emotions. Alternative SM 1 met criteria for good model fit ( $\chi^2 = 587.80$ ,  $df = 435$ ,  $p < .05$ ; RMSEA = .035; SRMR = .055; CFI = .96; TLI = .95). It also fit the data better than the hypothesized structural model ( $\Delta\chi^2(4) = 28.97$ ,  $p < .05$ ) and did not fit worse than the measurement model ( $\Delta\chi^2(16) = 18.10$ ,  $p > .05$ ).

Examination of the additional paths in Alt. SM 1 revealed that the path from duration to valence for displaying positive emotions was not significant. With this in mind, a second alternative hypothesized model (Alt. SM 2) (see Figure 1) was tested, in which this path was dropped. This alternative model met the criteria for good model fit ( $\chi^2 = 588.06$ ,  $df = 436$ ,  $p < .05$ ; RMSEA = .035; SRMR = .055; CFI = .96; TLI = .95) and was not significantly different from the measurement model ( $\Delta\chi^2(17) = 18.36$ ,  $p > .05$ ) Furthermore, it did not differ from Alt. SM 1 and provided a more parsimonious picture of the data ( $\Delta\chi^2(1) = .26$ ,  $p > .05$ ).

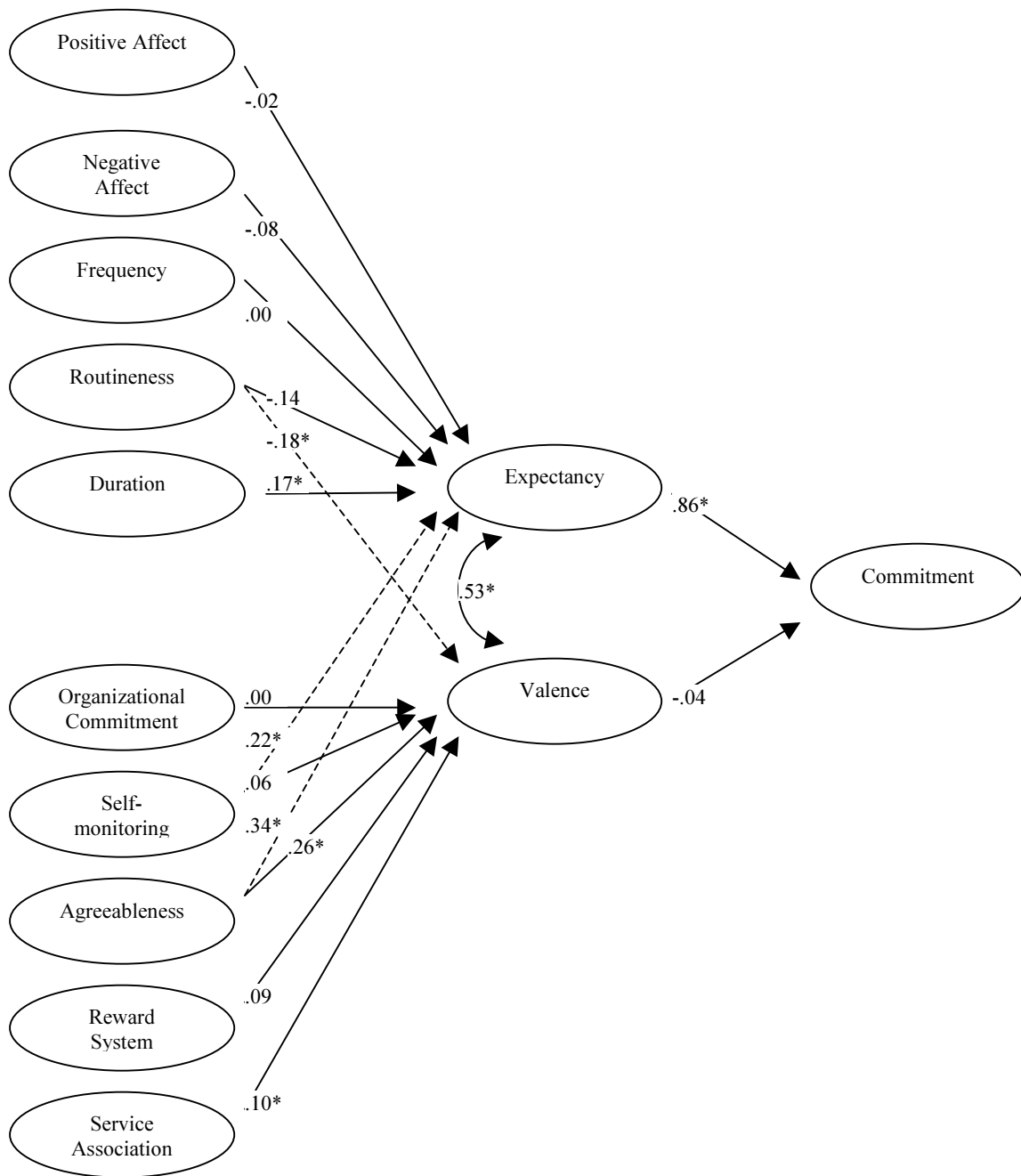


**Figure 3.** Hypothesized structural model of commitment to display rules: Separate expectancy and valence operationalization. \*  $p < .05$ .



A partial mediation model was tested as a third alternative model. Full mediation is implied in the structural models tested so far, as all of the antecedent variables influence commitment through expectancy and valence. Starting with the second alternative model, direct paths were added from all latent constructs to commitment. If this model results in better fit than Alt. SM 2, and has several significant direct paths from antecedent variables to commitment, partial mediation would exist in the data. This partial mediation model did meet criteria for good model fit ( $\chi^2 = 579.78$ ,  $df = 426$ ,  $p < .05$ ; RMSEA = .035; SRMR = .054; CFI = .96; TLI = .95); However, though it did not fit the data significantly worse than the measurement model ( $\Delta\chi^2(7) = 10.08$ ,  $p > .05$ ), none of the additional, direct paths from antecedents to display commitment were significant. Furthermore, it did not fit the data significantly better than Alt. SM 2 ( $\Delta\chi^2(10) = 8.28$ ,  $p > .05$ ). Thus the partial mediation model was not retained. Instead, the more parsimonious Alt. SM 2 was retained as the final structural model (see Figure 4).

The individual paths in the final structural model were used to test specific hypotheses, a number of which were significant. Beginning with individual factors influencing expectancy, the paths from positive affect and negative affect to expectancy were not significant, thereby failing to support Hypotheses 1a and 1b. In terms of situational factors influencing expectancy, neither frequency nor routineness had significant paths to expectancy, and so Hypotheses 2a and 2b were also not supported. Duration was significantly negatively related to expectancy, though that is in the opposite direction from what was originally hypothesized. Regarding individual factors influencing valence, neither affective commitment nor self-monitoring had significant paths to valence, therefore Hypotheses 3a and 3b were not supported. However, agreeableness was significantly



**Figure 4.** Final Structural Model. Expectancy model of commitment to display rules: Separate expectancy and valence operationalization. \*  $p < .05$ .

positively related to valence (supporting Hypothesis 3c). In terms of situational factors influencing valence, the path between valence and reward structure was not significant (failing to support Hypothesis 4a), though service association was significantly positively related to valence (supporting Hypothesis 4b). Regarding the alternative hypotheses, routineness was significantly negatively related to valence (supporting Alternative Hypothesis 1a), self-monitoring was significantly positively related to expectancy (supporting Alternative Hypothesis 1c), and agreeableness was significantly positively related to expectancy (supporting Alternative Hypothesis 2b). (see Table 4 for a complete summary of hypothesis testing).

Table 4

Summary of Results by Hypothesis

H1a: PA is positively related to expectancy judgments for displaying positive emotions.	Not Supported
H1b: NA is negatively related to expectancy judgments for displaying positive emotions.	Not Supported
H2a: Frequency of interactions is negatively related to expectancy judgments for displaying positive emotions.	Not Supported
H2b: Routineness of interactions is positively related to the expectancy of displaying positive emotions.	Not Supported
H2c: The duration of interactions is negatively associated with the expectancy for displaying positive emotions.	Not Supported (opposite direction)
H3a: Affective commitment is positively related to the valence judgments for displaying positive emotions.	Not Supported
H3b: Self-monitoring is positively related to the valence judgments for displaying positive emotions.	Not Supported
H3c: Agreeableness is positively related to valence judgments for displaying positive emotions.	Supported
H4a: Reward structure is positively related to valence judgments for displaying positive emotions.	Not Supported
H4b: Service association predicts valence judgments for displaying positive emotions.	Supported
H5a: Expectancy for displaying positive emotions is positively related to commitment to displaying positive emotions.	Supported
H5b: Valence for displaying positive emotions is positively related to commitment to displaying positive emotions.	Not Supported
H6: The MF for displaying positive emotions is positively related to commitment to displaying positive emotions.	Supported
AH1a: The routineness of interactions is negatively related to the valence of displaying positive emotions.	Supported
AH2a: Self-monitoring is positively related to the expectancy judgments for displaying positive emotions.	Supported
AH2b: Agreeableness is positively related to the expectancy judgments for displaying positive emotions.	Supported

Note. H = Hypothesis; AH = Alternative Hypothesis.

### Motivational Force Operationalization

Because past research has examined expectancy theory concepts using the separate expectancy and valence operationalization as well as the motivational force operationalization, this procedure is adopted here. Doing so allows for a comparison of the merits of the two approaches. The models are essentially the same as the first set of models, except that individuals' expectancy and valence scores for displaying positive emotions are multiplied together to achieve one motivational force score. Consequently, the paths from individual and situational antecedents are to motivational force, and from motivational force to display commitment (see Figure 2).

Model fit indices are presented in Table 5. The measurement model fit the data well ( $\chi^2 = 551.03$ ,  $df = 399$ ,  $p < .05$ ; RMSEA = .037; SRMR = .053; CFI = .96; TLI = .95). The hypothesized structural model also fit the data well ( $\chi^2 = 557.69$ ,  $df = 409$ ,  $p < .05$ ; RMSEA = .036; SRMR = .053; CFI = .96; TLI = .95) and was not significantly different from the measurement model ( $\Delta\chi^2(10) = 6.66$ ,  $p > .05$ ). Therefore, both the original measurement model and hypothesized structural model were retained as the final models. It was not necessary to test alternative models because it had already been shown that direct paths from antecedent variables to display commitment were not significant.

Table 5

#### Fit Indices for Motivational Force Measurements Model and Structural Model

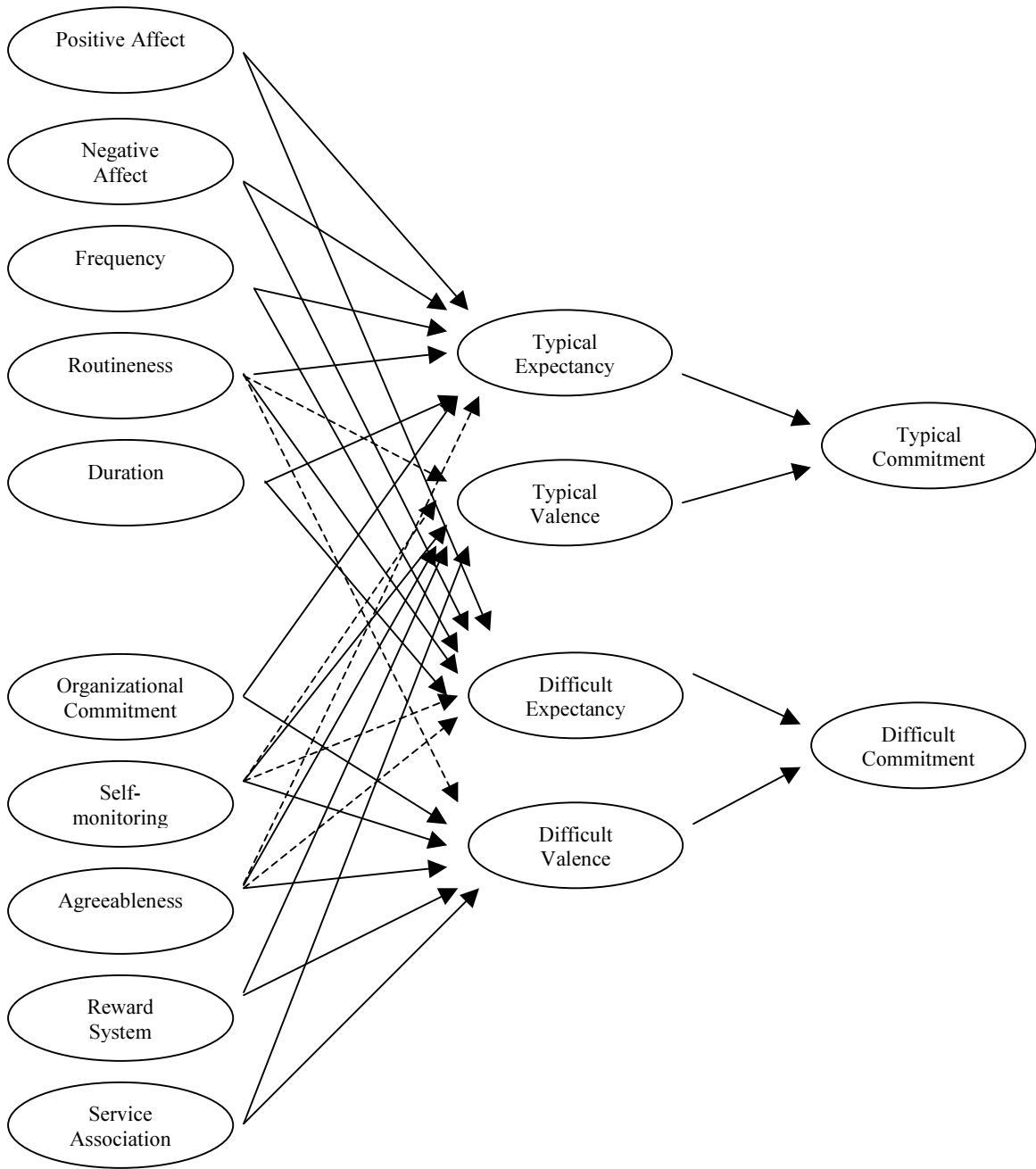
Model	$\chi^2$	df	p	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	TLI	$\Delta\chi^2$ to MM
MM	551.03	399	.00	.037	.053	.96	.95	-
Hyp. SM	557.69	409	.00	.036	.053	.96	.95	6.66

Note. MM = Measurement Model; SM = Structural Model; \*  $p < .05$

Hypotheses were only formulated for separate expectancy and valence ratings. However, because MF is the multiplicative function of those expectancy and valence ratings, it is reasonable to extend the logic and expectations supporting those hypotheses to the MF construct. In doing so, the direction of the relationships between antecedents and MF were expected to follow the same patterns that were hypothesized between antecedents and expectancy and valence. With regard to this final structural model, a number of paths were significant. Positive affect was not positively related to motivational force; however, negative affect was negatively related to motivational force. Neither routineness nor frequency was related to motivational force. Duration, on the other hand, was unexpectedly positively related to motivational force. Though affective organizational commitment was not related to MF, both self-monitoring and agreeableness were positively related to MF. Reward system and service association were not related to MF. Motivational force itself was positively related to display commitment with a path loading of .77 (supporting Hypothesis 6).

#### Additional Analyses

Underlying the design of this study is the idea that the hypothesized relationships will be stronger (i.e., easier to detect) in a difficult customer service interaction, compared to a typical customer service interaction. As previously discussed, it is thought that individual differences in expectancy and valence judgments will be more likely to emerge under difficult circumstances; the situation will be more affectively charged and the effects of individual and situational characteristics on the motivation to display positive emotions should be more prominent. In order to examine this possibility, tests of whether the hypothesized paths from antecedent variables to expectancy and/or valence differed for typical vs. difficult scenarios were conducted. A new



**Figure 5.** Structural model for comparison of antecedent strength in typical and difficult scenarios. Only the latent variables are shown in the model. Solid lines represent hypothesized links; dashed lines represent alternative links. H = Hypothesis; AH = Alternative Hypothesis.

structural model was created that included both typical and difficult expectancy and valence ratings (see Figure 5). Two models were then tested for each antecedent variable. The first model of each comparison freed paths from the predictor variable to the outcome variable assessed under both typical and difficult conditions. For instance, in one test, paths were freed from self-monitoring to the “typical” valence rating and the “difficult” valence rating. The second model then constrained these two paths to be equal. The absolute fit of this model is not important because it is simply used as a baseline model for testing differences in the relationship of predictor variables with expectancy and valence in typical and difficult situations. The idea that hypothesized relationships will be stronger in the difficult scenario will be supported if the chi-square change is significant, in that the constrained models fit significantly worse than the unconstrained model, and the direction of the paths are in the hypothesized direction. Model fit indices for the tested model comparisons may be found in Table 6.

Table 6

Fit Indices for Structural Models Used in Comparison of Antecedent Strength

Model	$\chi^2$	df	p	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	TLI	$\Delta\chi^2$ to SM
SM	853.86	556	.00	.044	.069	.94	.93	--
SM Duration, Expectancy	859.80	557	.00	.045	.070	.94	.93	5.94*
SM Self-monitoring, Expectancy	858.94	557	.00	.045	.070	.94	.93	5.08*
SM Agreeableness, Expectancy	857.86	557	.00	.045	.070	.94	.93	4.00*
SM Routineness, Valence	858.31	557	.00	.044	.070	.94	.93	4.45*
SM Agreeableness, Valence	855.61	557	.00	.044	.070	.94	.93	1.75
SM Service Association, Valence	855.67	557	.00	.044	.069	.94	.93	1.81

Note. Expectancy = paths to both typical and difficult expectancy are constrained to be equal. Valence = paths to both typical and difficult valence are constrained to be equal.

\* p < .05

The paths used to test the relationships between expectancy and positive affect, negative affect, frequency, and routineness were not significant. Therefore it was not necessary to test the difference between the effects of the typical and difficult scenarios for Hypotheses 1a, 1b, 2a, or 2b. Likewise, neither of the paths used to test the relationship between valence and organizational commitment, self-monitoring, or reward structure were significant. Therefore it also was not necessary to test the difference between the effects of the typical and difficult scenarios for Hypotheses 3a, 3b, or 4a. Consequently, for these paths, the idea that relationships would be stronger in the difficult scenario was not supported.

Hypothesis 2c states that duration of customer service interactions is negatively related to expectancy for displaying positive emotions. In this comparison, the path to typical scenario expectancy was not significant (-.02) and the path to difficult scenario valence was (.17), though in an unexpected direction. After these two paths were constrained to be equal, the resulting structural model was significantly different from the unconstrained structural model ( $\Delta\chi^2(1) = 5.94, p < .05$ ). Therefore, the relationship between duration and expectancy is stronger in the difficult scenario and in a direction opposite from the hypothesized direction; this will be discussed further in the following discussion.

Hypothesis 3c states that agreeableness is positively related to valence. In this comparison, the path to typical scenario valence was significant (.30) as was the path to difficult scenario valence (.27). After these two paths were constrained to be equal, the resulting structural model was not significantly different from the unconstrained structural model ( $\Delta\chi^2(1) = 1.75, p > .05$ ). Therefore, the relationship between agreeableness and valence is not stronger in the difficult scenario.



Regarding Hypothesis 4b, which states that service association is positively related to valence, the path to typical scenario valence was not significant (.02) and the path to difficult scenario valence was (.11). After these two paths were constrained to be equal, the resulting structural model was not significantly different from the unconstrained structural model ( $\Delta\chi^2(1) = 1.81, p > .05$ ). Therefore, the relationship between service association and valence is not stronger in the difficult scenario.

Concerning Alternative Hypothesis 1a, which states that routineness of customer service interactions is negatively related to valence for displaying positive emotions, the path to typical scenario valence was not significant (.00) and the path to difficult scenario valence was (-.19). After these two paths were constrained to be equal, the resulting structural model was significantly different from the unconstrained structural model ( $\Delta\chi^2(1) = 4.45, p < .05$ ). Therefore, the relationship between routineness and valence is stronger in the difficult scenario than in the typical scenario.

Concerning Alternative Hypothesis 2a, which states that self-monitoring will be positively related to expectancy, the path to typical scenario expectancy was not significant (.06) and the path to difficult scenario expectancy was (.23). After these two paths were constrained to be equal, the resulting structural model was significantly different from the unconstrained structural model ( $\Delta\chi^2(1) = 5.08, p < .05$ ). Therefore, the relationship between self-monitoring and expectancy is stronger in the difficult scenario than in the typical scenario.

Alternative Hypothesis 2b states that agreeableness will be positively related to expectancy for displaying positive emotions. In this comparison, the path to typical scenario expectancy was significant (.40) as was the path to difficult scenario expectancy (.36). After these two paths were constrained to be equal, the resulting structural model was significantly

different from the unconstrained structural ( $\Delta\chi^2(1) = 4.00, p < .05$ ). However, the path from agreeableness to typical expectancy is larger than the path to difficult expectancy. This suggests that the relationship between duration and expectancy is actually weaker in the difficult scenario than in the typical scenario.

## DISCUSSION

### General Findings

Previous research has indicated that employee displays of emotion influence performance (Brown & Sulzer-Azaroff, 1994; Pugh 2001, Tsai, 2001; Grandey et al., 2002). Therefore, there is a need to understand the motivational factors that influence whether employees will display organizationally desired emotions. As a first step in this direction, Gosserand and Diefendorff (under review) found that display rules only influenced behavior if employees were committed to those display rules. Building on this research, the present study used an expectancy theory framework to examine the factors influencing this display rule commitment. Results have implications for understanding the influence of individual and situational characteristics on customer service employees' motivation and commitment to displaying positive emotions.

The results supported the idea that there is a motivational component behind employees' propensity to follow display rules to express positive emotions and a number of individual difference and situational factors that impact this motivation. Out of 16 hypothesized relationships, eight were supported by paths in the final structural model; however 10 out of the 16 hypothesized relationships were supported by bivariate correlations. Specifically, the duration of customer interactions, agreeableness, and self-monitoring influenced how successful employees feel they will be in displaying positive emotions toward their customers. Agreeableness, routineness of customer interactions, and type of service relationship influenced how much employees value behaving positively toward their customers. Out of this group of antecedents, agreeableness and duration consistently stand out as strong factors; their hypothesized relationships with expectancy and valence (and motivational force) are significant in difficult customer interaction scenarios as well as in typical customer interaction scenarios.

These findings suggest that these factors impact motivation for following display rules not only during difficult situations in both typical and difficult work situations.

In turn, expectancy and valence, as well as their multiplicative function, motivational force, were related to commitment to displaying positive emotions. Results of this study reveal that expectancy has a larger role in predicting commitment than does valence, at least in the difficult customer service situation. In the typical situation, both expectancy and valence influenced commitment. This finding suggests that the importance of these components of overall motivation is relative to the difficulty of the situation. Therefore, considering them separately is useful for obtaining a clearer picture of the intricacies of the motivation to display positive emotions. However, results also supported the use of motivational force operationalization as it was significantly related to commitment in both typical and difficult customer interaction scenarios.

In general, the use of expectancy theory allowed for a more complete understanding of how individual and situational factors exert influence on commitment to display rules. It is important that employees (a) feel that they can be successful in displaying positive emotions toward customers and (b) value doing so. Both judgments influence employees' overall motivation and subsequent commitment to those display rules; consequently, that commitment should translate into employees being more likely to actually display positive emotions to customers on the job. The following discussion considers this study's findings in more depth. The implications of these findings and suggestions for future research are also considered.

#### Individual Differences and Expectancy Judgments

This study proposed that dispositional affect would be related to peoples' expectations of being able to display positive emotions to customers. That is, how individuals typically feel was

thought to influence how easy it is to behave positively toward customers. However, negative affect was not significantly correlated with expectancy (see Table 1) and the path between the two variables in the final structural model was not significant. It therefore appears that the construct of negative affect is not uniquely related to how successful employees feel they will be in displaying positive emotions toward customers. This finding suggests that individuals low on negative affect will not have higher expectations for expressing positive emotions than individuals high on negative affect. Close inspection of the description of the low end of negative affect shows that these individuals are characterized as calm and serene (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). Therefore, individuals with low negative affect may not expect to successfully display positive emotions more than individuals high in negative affect because they are calm with low arousal and not likely to concern themselves with putting effort into being positive toward customers. In this way negative affectivity may not be helpful in determining who will have high or low expectancy for displaying positive emotions.

Similarly, the results regarding positive affect were not supportive of the hypothesized relationship between positive affect with expectancy. Though positive affect was significantly positively correlated with expectancy (see Table 1), the results of the structural analyses revealed that the path between the two variables was not significant. This suggests that there was not a unique relationship between positive affect and expectancy after the effects of other study variables were taken into account. In particular, the relationship between positive affect and expectancy became non-significant with paths were added from self-monitoring and agreeableness to expectancy. It could be that the nature of agreeableness and self-monitoring as being specifically related to interpersonal interactions and perceptions, are more proximal influences during customer service interactions than broad affective variables. That is, affect may

impact the effort needed to display positive emotions, but self-monitoring and agreeableness subsume the effects of affectivity.

Lastly, with regard to dispositional affectivity, the lack of relationship between dispositional affectivity and expectancy does not mean that affect is not important for emotional displays. The influence of dispositional affect on emotional displays may be independent of expectancy theory judgments. That is, the design of this study required employees to make calculative expectancy and valence judgments and neither positive nor negative affect were related to those deliberate judgments. However, dispositional affect may influence emotional displays independent of these judgments. In customer service interactions, felt emotions may impact one's emotional displays independent of one's confidence or valence for displaying emotions. Positive and negative affect may be more likely to influence emotional displays in this way, and therefore still impact overall customer service performance. Therefore, though it does not appear to influence deliberate motivational judgments, dispositional affect should continue to be considered in emotional display research.

This study proposed that two other individual personality variables might influence expectancy judgments. First, it was hypothesized that high self-monitoring individuals would expect to successfully display positive emotions in customer service interactions. The bivariate relationship between expectancy and self-monitoring supported this proposed relationship (see Table 1), and the structural analysis also found that the path between the two variables was significant. This result is consistent with past research that suggests high self-monitors are easily able to simulate emotional displays even though they may not actually experience the related emotions (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002). Therefore, it appears that high self-monitors feel that they will be able to successfully display positive emotions in customer service situations, regardless

of whether they are experiencing negative emotions as a result of working with difficult customers; high-self-monitors may find it easy to fake emotions, even in difficult situations, and therefore be confident that they will be able to successfully display positive emotions. Though expressing positive emotions toward customers influences purchase-related customer behaviors and attitudes (Grandey, Fisk, Mattila, & Sideman, 2002; Pugh, 2001; Tsai, 2001), faking emotions has been linked to a number of negative outcomes such as poor performance ratings (Grandey, 2003), burnout, (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002), and emotional exhaustion (Brotheridge & Lee, in press; Grandey, 2003). Therefore, though self-monitors might have high expectancy for displaying positive emotions and therefore be committed to doing so, their ability and propensity for faking emotions might leave them and their performance prone to negative outcomes.

It was hypothesized that individuals high in agreeableness would expect to be able display positive emotions toward customers more successfully than individuals low in agreeableness, due to their tendencies to behave with empathy, kindness, and consideration (Rothbart & Bates, 1998; Tobin et al., 2000). Both the bivariate relationship (see Table 1) and structural analysis supported this hypothesis. These results suggest that individuals higher in agreeableness expect to be successful at displaying positive emotions in difficult customer service situations. Considering these results and those of Tobin et al. (2000), it appears that individuals high in agreeableness expect to put more effort into controlling emotions, and expect to be successful in doing so. However, neither Tobin et al. (2000) nor the results of this study confirm whether or not agreeable individuals are actually able to successfully regulate their emotional displays. Future research could incorporate third-party observations to find out whether or not agreeable individuals are actually successful at regulating their emotional expressions and displaying positive emotions.

### Situational Factors and Expectancy Judgments

Situational variables were also hypothesized to influence individuals' expectations for being able to display positive emotions toward customers. Frequency of customer service interactions was proposed to be negatively related to expectancy; the more often an employee has different customer service interactions, the more he/she may find displaying positive emotions to customers demanding and difficult. Results did not reveal a significant relationship between frequency and expectancy. Therefore, it appears that the rate of customer interactions does not influence how successful employees feel they will be in behaving positively toward customers. That is, when considered alone, how often an employee works with different customers does not influence employees' judgments about how easy or difficult it is to display positive emotions to customers. It may be that more qualitative aspects of customer service are more influential than frequency. For example, one can compare the jobs of a coffee shop cashier and a lost baggage desk clerk. Both involve frequent customer interaction, but other situational qualities such as the type of service provided (i.e., serving a cup of coffee vs. finding the lost luggage of travelers) or typical customer moods may have a more direct impact on whether employees will feel that they are able to display positive emotions toward their customers. In this way, the factor of frequency may not embody aspects of work situations sufficiently enough to impact expectancy judgments for interpersonal interaction. The resulting outcome of this could be that frequency does not play a role in influencing motivational judgments regarding emotional displays. This is not to say that frequency of interactions is not a useful construct to consider in understanding emotional labor in general. A number of studies have found frequency to be useful in predicting the use of different emotional labor strategies (Brotheridge and Grandey, 2002; Grandey, 2002). Therefore, though frequency may not be helpful in understanding motivational



judgments of how easy or difficult displaying positive emotions will be, it does appear to have an impact on the use of emotional display strategies and may be helpful in understanding aspects of emotional labor other than motivation to display particular types of emotions.

When each interaction is similar, behaving in a prescribed manner (e.g., behaving positively toward customers) should be fairly easy, as one does not have the difficulty of dealing with novelty. Therefore, routineness was hypothesized to be positively related to expectancy. Though the bivariate correlation between routineness and expectancy was significant, it was negative (see Table 1). The structural analysis however, revealed that the path was not significant. This suggests that after the influence of other situational factors is considered, routineness does not uniquely impact how successful employees feel they will be in displaying positive emotions. Past research has shown routineness and frequency to be consistently related (Morris & Feldman, 1996). In line with this, after accounting for the effects of frequency in the structural model, the relationship between routineness and expectancy was weaker than it would otherwise have been; that is, when the path from frequency to expectancy was removed from the model, the relationship between routineness and expectancy was significant. Furthermore, routineness was related to valence judgments and therefore does appear to play a role in the motivational processes influencing whether or not individuals will follow display rules. Therefore, though routineness was not significantly uniquely related to expectancy in this study, results suggest that it does capture situational aspects that may impact employee motivation to display positive emotions at work. Other studies should therefore continue to consider the influence of routineness on motivational judgments regarding emotional displays in the workplace.

The duration of interactions with customers was expected to be negatively related to employees' expectations for being able to successfully display positive emotions to customers. It was suggested that longer interactions would be more demanding for employees and that being positive toward customers would be seen as more difficult in these demanding situations, resulting in lower expectancy. Neither the bivariate correlations (see Table 1), nor the structural analysis supported these assertions. Surprisingly, the path between duration and expectancy was significant in a positive direction, suggesting that the employees with typically long customer interactions have higher expectations for being able to display positive emotions toward their customers. Though longer interactions might be more variable in nature, the unique aspect of duration (controlling for other situation characteristics) is the length of time spent with a customer; as a result, the employee and his or her behavior toward a customer becomes a larger aspect of the customer's experience. During longer interactions, one might learn more about the customer and sympathize with that customer, or have more opportunities to improve the situation; either of which might make employees feel that they would be successful in displaying positive emotions toward customers. Though Morrison and Feldman (1996) argued that long interactions require more active regulation of emotion, factors that go along with interactions of longer duration (e.g., more personal responsibility for the outcome of the customer service interaction) may outweigh the fact that more effort will have to be put into regulating emotion. For example, employees might get to know customers better and/or have time to work with customers to solve problems; therefore, employees may expect to be able to successfully display positive emotions, in spite of having to work harder to regulate their emotions. Other influences that follow from spending extended periods of time with others could be at work. For example, there could be stronger social norms and display rules for behaving more positively toward

people with whom you spend significant amounts of time. This idea is supported by research that found duration to be positively related to a type of emotional labor strategy called deep acting (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002). This involves good faith attempts to actually experience emotions so that the related emotional expressions will follow. Alternatively, duration was not related to faking emotions. It appears that duration is linked to individuals being willing to put effort into behaving positively toward customers. Likewise, the results of this study suggest that spending more time with customers does not decrease expectancies for behaving positively, but instead increases those expectancy judgments. Combining these results, it appears that the longer employees spend with customers, the more they feel they will be successful in displaying positive emotions toward customers.

#### Individual Differences and Valence Judgments

This study also proposed that a number of individual characteristics would influence how much value employees place on behaving positively toward their customers. Employees with high affective commitment for their organization were predicted to have higher valence judgments for being positive toward customers. Despite the fact that the bivariate correlation between the two variables supported this assertion (see Table 1), the structural analysis did not. It seems possible that with this sample of undergraduate customer service workers, there was low variance concerning participants' affective commitment to their organization. The types of customer service jobs in which undergraduates generally work might not engender many extreme levels of commitment. The mean affective commitment score for this sample was reasonable at 3.21 on a 5-point scale, while the standard deviation was relatively low at .50 compared to past research by Ayarwal and Ramaswani (1993) ( $M = 3.75, SD = .82$ ), Carson, Carson, and Bedeian (1995) ( $M = 3.45, SD = .80$ ), and Tan and Akhtar (1998) ( $M = 2.89, SD = .97$ ). This range

restriction may have made this particular effect weaker than it might be in a more heterogeneous sample of customer service workers. Another possible explanation is that affective organizational commitment is simply not directly related to valence judgments for expressing positive emotions toward customers. Morrison (1994) found that individuals with high affective commitment consider organizational citizenship behaviors to be part of their in-role job requirements. Similarly, Diefendorff, Richard, and Croyle (under review) found that affective commitment was positively related to employees considering the expression of positive emotions to be in-role job behaviors. It seems that employees' affective commitment toward their jobs make them more likely to accept broader definitions of their job roles. This has implications for why a particular individual will follow display rules. In other words, motivational decision-making plays less of a role in influencing behaviors perceived as required by the organization. Employees engage in in-role behavior because it is required as a part of their job, employees engage in extra-role behavior as a result of individual choice, because they want to do it. Considering this, it seems possible that affective commitment may be related to the actual display of positive emotions on the job, not because the employees value doing so, but because employees consider displaying positive emotions to customers to be a job requirement.

High self-monitors and agreeable employees were also predicted to place a higher value on displaying positive emotions toward customers. Self-monitors were expected to do so in order to make their behavior situationally- appropriate, whereas agreeable individuals were expected to do so in order to maintain positive relationships with customers. Neither the bivariate correlation (see Table 1), nor the structural analysis supported the hypothesized relationship between self-monitoring and valence. Snyder (1987) argued that high self-monitors attempt to remain flexible in relationships by not investing emotionally in those relationships. Similarly research suggests

that high self-monitors perceive a need to conform to social expectations and are more likely to disguise their emotions or display fake emotions by surface acting (Brotheridge, & Lee, 2002; Grandey, 2003; Robbins, 1993). It is possible that self-monitors might not value positive displays, as evidenced by the fact that they are prone to faking them; instead, they may value the resulting fact that they are behaving in accordance with situational expectations of others. In other words, their satisfaction, or valence lies in how well others view them, not in how they get others to view them that way; they are valuing the ends, not the means that they use to gain social approval from their customers.

On the other hand, agreeableness was hypothesized to be positively related to valence. Both the bivariate correlation (see Table 1) and the structural analysis supported the hypothesized relationship between agreeableness and employees valuing behaving positively toward customers. Unlike self-monitors, who are motivated to regulate their behavior to control how others view them, individuals high in agreeableness are motivated to regulate their behavior in order to maintain positive relationships with others. Agreeableness has been found to be positively related to deep acting and negatively related to surface acting (Diefendorff, Croyle, & Gosserand, under review). In other words, individuals higher on agreeableness are more likely to engage in good-faith emotional labor strategies to display positive emotions. This means they truly try to experience positive emotions in service interactions so that positive emotional displays will follow. Conversely, they are less likely to fake positive emotions toward customers. With the specific emphasis on the deeper issue of interpersonal relationships as opposed to others' perceptions of oneself, it makes sense that individuals high in agreeableness would value behaving positively toward customers.

### Situational Factors and Valence Judgments

Situational factors were also proposed to influence valence judgments. One hypothesis stated that the closeness of rewards to displaying positive emotions toward customers (i.e., reward system) would predict how much an employee valued doing so. Though the bivariate correlation supported this hypothesis (see Table 1), the structural model did not. Thus, variance attributable to other variables accounted for the effect of reward system on valence judgments. It could be that employees do not perceive direct links between praise, reward, pay and their positive emotional displays to customers. Perhaps rewards are tied to more general measures of customer service performance such as sales or number of customers. It might not be as apparent to customer service workers that rewards are tied directly to specific emotional displays. Regardless, the results of this study suggest that rewarding customers specifically for displaying positive emotions toward their customers does not uniquely influence their motivation for doing so. Future research should consider more general reward systems to understand if rewarding employees for good customer service influences actual performance.

The types of service association, characterized as anticipated future interaction with individual customers, was also hypothesized to be positively related to valence. It was thought that employees with ongoing service relationships with customers value maintaining positive relationships with those customers by behaving pleasantly toward them. The relationship between service association and valence was supported by both the bivariate correlation (see Table 1) and the structural analysis. Perhaps social norms for behaving positively towards others are stronger in developed relationships than in simple encounters. Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) argued that employees can come to socially identify with their roles as service providers and customers also develop perceptions of the employee as a service provider. This results in

employees behaving in a manner consistent with that identity. It could be that in service relationships the employees become more identified with the role of service provider, with regard to both their self-concept and their returning customers' perceptions. Therefore, they may be more likely to behave in a way that is consistent with their view of themselves as a service provider as well as their customers' view of them as a service provider.

Lastly, it was also hypothesized that routineness could influence valence judgments, in that employees with highly routine jobs would not perceive the importance, or value, of behaving positively toward customers; in these non-variable, routine interactions with customers, the nature of emotional displays does not matter so no particular emotional display will be valued very highly. This relationship was supported by the bivariate correlation between routineness and expectancy (see Table 1), as well as the structural analysis. Sutton and Rafaeli (1988) found that in routine interactions, customers might want impersonal, cordial interactions. Diefendorff, Croyle, & Gosserand (under review) argue that the most effective service behavior in routine customer service interactions might be to just go through the motions, resulting in employees placing less value on positive emotional displays. The results of this same study revealed that routineness was negatively related to more effort put into acting in good faith (i.e., deep acting). Considering this result in light of the present study, it appears that in more routine interactions, employees do not value any particular emotional display, nor do they value putting effort into displaying any particular emotions. It could be that employees with highly routine work may not think that customers care about emotional displays one way or the other.

#### Expectancy, Valence, and Motivational Force, and Commitment to Displaying Positive Emotions

One goal of this study was to better understand the motivation to display positive emotions at work using the framework of expectancy theory. A part of this goal involved

comparing MF with the separate expectancy and valence operationalizations of expectancy theory in predicting emotional display commitment. This study defined expectancy as the judgment of whether effort will result in the successful display of positive emotions toward customers. Valence referred to the anticipated satisfaction associated with displaying positive emotions. Motivational force represented overall motivation for displaying positive emotions. Past research has shown that expectancy and MF predict commitment, however the relationship between valence and commitment has been nonsignificant (Klein & Wright, 1994; and Riedel, Nebeker, & Cooper, 1988). The present study's findings follow this same pattern and reveal that MF and expectancy predicted commitment to displaying positive emotions, while valence did not. In testing a model that did not allow expectancy and valence to correlate, both were significantly related to commitment. This suggests that valence is related to commitment but that expectancy fully accounts for this relationship. In other words, in difficult customer service situations, it is the expectancy of being able to successfully display positive emotions that plays a dominant role in determining an individual's commitment to doing so.

However, the final structural model was also tested in the typical service situation, and in this case, both expectancy and valence were significantly related to commitment. It appears that expectancy is not as important a variable in typical customer service situations and therefore valence is able to play a larger role in determining commitment to displaying positive emotions. In other words, in difficult situations, how much value employees place on displaying positive emotions is more associated with how easy or difficult it will be to do so than in the typical scenario which may be more a function of personal preference for being positive toward customers. However, in typical situations most people expect to be able to display positive emotions and individual preferences for positive emotional displays have a stronger impact on



valence judgments. These results support the utility of considering expectancy and valence separately in order to understand how the two factors influence individual motivational processes in different types of situations.

However, past research has also found that MF can explain significantly more variance in behavior and behavioral intentions than expectancy and valence do separately (Klein (1991). A supplemental hierarchical regression in the present investigation revealed that MF explained a small amount of variance in commitment over and above expectancy and valence. In the first step, expectancy and valence explained 42% of the variance in commitment. Motivational force then had a small unique impact over and above expectancy and valence, though the effect size was small ( $\Delta R^2 = .009$ ,  $\beta = .453$ ,  $p = .057$ ). However, considering that MF reflects the interaction between expectancy and valence, even this small unique effect is interesting. It suggests that the construct of MF is embodying an aspect of motivation beyond expectancy and valence alone. Considering past research along with the results of this study, it seems that the MF operationalization of expectancy theory may adequately represent motivational processes. Furthermore, it provides a more parsimonious overall view of those processes compared to the separate expectancy and valence operationalization.

Regardless of which operationalization of expectancy theory is used, the results of the present study support the idea that choice-related motivation variables mediate between individual and situational characteristics and the commitment to displaying positive emotions toward customers. More generally, there appears to be a significant motivational component to the processes underlying whether or not individuals are likely to follow display rules to display positive emotions toward customers. Though the expectancy framework is imperfect in

embodying these processes, it does allow for a clearer picture of the types of individual and situational factors influencing motivational factors of emotional labor.

#### Strength of Antecedents of Expectancy and Valence in the Typical and Difficult Scenarios

An underlying idea of the design of this study was that hypothesized relationships would be stronger (i.e., easier to detect) in a difficult customer service interaction, compared to a typical customer service interaction. It was thought that the difficult situation would be more affectively charged and the effects of individual and situational characteristics on the motivation to display positive emotions would be more prominent. The general pattern of results regarding the difficult and typical scenarios supports this underlying idea. Out of the paths that were significantly related to expectancy and valence, three were stronger in the difficult situation and one was stronger in the typical situation. Those that were stronger in the difficult situation include paths from duration and self-monitoring to expectancy, and routineness of customer service interactions to valence. The paths from agreeableness and service association to valence were not different in the typical and difficult situations. Agreeableness was actually more strongly related to expectancy in the typical situation. Considering this result along with the non-significant difference in the strength of relationship between agreeableness and expectancy, it could be that agreeable individuals are simply prone to expecting to successfully display positive emotions regardless of the situational difficulty.

The general pattern of results suggests that factors impacting motivational judgments either impact them more strongly or similarly in scenarios involving difficult customers compared to typical customer service scenarios. During difficult customer service interactions, routineness, duration, and self-monitoring will play a larger role in determining employee motivation for displaying positive emotions while agreeableness and service association are

influential in both typical and difficult situations. Researchers should continue to consider different types of work situations in order to understand how and when different factors will be at work in influencing whether or not employees will want to follow display rules for displaying positive emotions toward customers.

### Implications

This study has a number of implications for both research and practice. This study tests motivational variables and their relation to both individual and situational variables and commitment to taking part in emotional labor by following customer service display rules for displaying positive emotions. Previous research had not considered whether or not individuals would choose to follow display rules and engage in emotional labor (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Grandey, 2002; Grandey, 2003). This study found that motivational processes do play a role in whether or not employees are committed to following display rules to display positive emotions in customer service. Future studies might benefit from combining knowledge of the influence of individual and situational variables on motivational processes and emotional labor strategy use to more fully understand the emotional labor process. This would provide a more complete picture of not only whether or not individuals will follow display rules, but also how their methods of doing so might impact their performance and their job attitudes. Furthermore, studies continue to consider both non-motivational and motivational factors behind emotional displays. Common sense suggests that motivation-based decisions are not behind every emotion-related work behavior. For example, research shows that employees follow display rules most of the time by displaying their naturally-felt emotions (Diefendorff, Croyle, & Gosserand, under review). Furthermore, variables not specifically involved in the motivational process may still be influencing actual emotional displays and it is the emotional display that mainly matters in

customer service performance. Future studies could consider factors that influence emotional displays in actual customer service interactions and combine those results with results from studies considering motivational judgments to create a more complete picture of what factors and processes impact employee emotional displays at work.

A theoretical contribution of this study is its examination of the use of Vroom's (1964) motivational theory. Vroom originally proposed that MF (as the multiplicative function of expectancy and valence) is what motivates individuals to work toward a goal. The results of this study support this theory. Motivational force was significantly related to commitment and a different set of antecedent variables than the individual and situational antecedents that were significantly related to expectancy and valence. However, when expectancy and valence are considered separately, it is clear that a larger number of individual and situational factors are at work influencing both variables. Furthermore expectancy and valence played different roles in impacting commitment in different types of situations (i.e., typical and difficult interactions). Studies using expectancy theory frameworks should continue to consider both operationalizations to get a clear picture of what influences different factors involved in the motivational process in different types of situations.

This study has uncovered a number of interesting individual difference and situational influences on the motivation to display positive emotions toward customers. Most striking are the strong relationships of duration with expectancy and agreeableness with expectancy and valence. These relationships were significant in both the typical and difficult scenarios; they were also significantly related to MF. Therefore, these particular antecedents seem to play a consistent and important role in what influences employees' motivation to behave positively toward customers. Considering this, interaction duration and agreeableness should be further

investigated with regard to individuals and their behavioral intentions regarding emotional displays at work.

In terms of practice, it appears that a number of individual difference and situational factors do play a role in influencing employee motivation for being positive to customers. Duration is positively related to expectancy, and service association is positively related to valence, suggesting that organizations that encourage their employees to spend time with each customer and try to gain repeat customers will improve the chances that their employees will be more committed to behaving positively toward customers. Furthermore, general dispositional affect may have less of an effect on how employees behave toward customers than was previously thought. In other words, creating strong situations that clearly highlight the importance of being positive toward customers and encouraging employees to do so should have a fairly large impact on how committed employees are to behaving positively toward customers, despite employee dispositional affect. On the other hand, organizations that aim to have employees behaving positively toward each customer, should try to counteract the monotony of routine customer service work as it negatively influences motivational factors related to employees being committed to behaving positively toward customers. Lastly, organizations should recruit and hire individuals with interests in the outcomes of customer service interactions; both self-monitoring individuals with their focus on how others view them with regard to social expectations of behavior, and agreeable individuals who aim to monitor their behavior to maintain positive relationships should perform well in customer service jobs with display rules for displaying positive emotions.

### Limitations

There are a number of study limitations that should be discussed at this point. This is a correlational study and causality cannot be inferred. For example, because employees value behaving positively toward customers, they may develop relationships with customers which lead to their typically having service relationships versus service encounters, instead of the other way around. However, theory supports the ordering of the variables in this study. As another example, personality variables such as agreeableness are not likely the results of individual employees' expectancy or valence judgments regarding displaying positive emotions to customers.

Another limitation may be the result of this study being based on self-report measures of undergraduate students in a lab setting. This brings into question the external validity of the study results. The sample of undergraduate college students working part time jobs does not include many tenured customer service professionals. For example, jobs heavily dependant on customer service and performance such as real-estate sales, furniture sales, etc. were not represented in this sample. This might present a problem for the generalizability of this study across different types of customer service jobs. However, part-time customer service jobs are important to consider; most people buy fast-food hamburgers more often than they buy a new home and their experience in those situations should still influence their satisfaction and purchase-related behaviors. However, future research in this area might benefit from considering a more varied sample of customer service jobs. Furthermore, a number of the findings are not operating consistently with what was expected and might turn out differently in a more realistic setting with a stronger manipulation. Specifically, the actual display of positive emotions on the job could not be measured and this study focused on the commitment of employees to displaying

positive emotions. This could be a factor influencing the fact that only eight out of this study's 16 hypotheses were supported. Considering the information processing theory of expectancy theory processes discussed in an earlier section, expectancy and valence judgments are conceptualized as weighted connections in long-term memory and can be automatically formed and accessed with little cognitive effort. This should be especially true in situations where individuals have a lot of experience. However, lab situations, such as the one used in this study, may make the process explicit and more deliberate, decreasing the effect. However, if real-world effects are stronger, that would only add to the support that there is a motivational process at work in employees following display rules. Further research in more varied settings using more varied methods should be done to examine the hypothesized relationships more thoroughly. Future research in this area could incorporate supervisor and peer report, or observational tactics in measuring actual emotional displays.

The design of this study involved testing the influences of individual and situational factors under controlled conditions in which individuals had to make calculative motivational judgments. This controlled environment may have contributed to situational variables such as frequency and routineness having less of an affect on motivational judgments than they may have in the actual workplace. In the actual workplace, motivational judgments are made quickly based, in part, on incoming information about the situation. In a lab setting however, some situational factors may be too far removed to have the same influence on motivation that they may exert in the actual workplace. Future studies incorporating stronger laboratory manipulations may find situational factors such as routineness and frequency to have stronger relationships with motivational processes and actual displays.

Future emotional labor research might also benefit from incorporating variables that are more situationally-specific in nature. For example, state affectivity may be more useful than dispositional affectivity in trying to understand what influences people to display organizationally appropriate emotions. According to George (1989), affective disposition does influence mood states at work; however, situational factors also play a role. In a later study, George (1991) suggests that affectivity is unrelated to moods at work. For example, individuals with high positive affectivity are still able to experience negative moods at work and it could be that negative mood that determines how employees behave toward customers, not their dispositional affectivity. Illustrating this, George (1991) found that positive mood state, not dispositional positive affectivity, predicted prosocial work behaviors. Considering her findings in light of the present study, it could be that mood states, not dispositional affectivity influence motivation to engage in work behaviors such as displaying positive emotions toward customers.

With these limitations in mind, the results of this study do provide a number of important findings that researchers and organizations should consider when trying to understand what influences employees to be committed to following display rules. Specifically, with the use of an expectancy framework, this study provided a more complete understanding of how individual and situational factors exert influence on commitment to display rules. Results suggest that individual and situational factors do predict motivational judgments, which then predict commitment to displaying positive emotions. Researchers should especially consider the influence of agreeableness and duration of interactions on motivational judgments. With regard to the role of motivational judgments, it is important that employees feel that they can be successful in displaying positive emotions toward customers and also value doing so. These judgments influence employees' overall motivation and subsequent commitment to those display



rules. That commitment should translate into employees being more likely to actually display positive emotions to customers on the job (see Gosserand & Diefendorff, under review). Future studies should take this research further by testing for the link between motivational judgments, commitment, and finally, the actual behavior of displaying positive emotions toward customers. This would enable both researchers and managers to better understand the factors influencing employees to follow display rules in the work place.

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APPENDIX A

CONSENT AND DEMOGRAPHIC FORMS

Consent Form

**Louisiana State University- Baton Rouge Campus**

1. **Study Title:** Commitment to Displaying Positive Emotions at Work: An Examination of Individual and Situational Antecedents
2. **Performance Sites:** Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College
3. **Investigators:** Contact the following investigators for questions involving this study: Meredith Croyle 924-9881 James Diefendorff, Ph.D. 578-4108
4. **Purpose of the Study:** The purpose of this research project is to understand how characteristics of individuals and their work environments influence how customer service employees behave toward their customers.
5. **Subject Inclusion:** Individuals enrolled in undergraduate psychology courses, working in customer service jobs for 20 or more hours per week.
6. **Study Procedures:** Participants will fill out questionnaires and a demographic information sheet. They will also describe their typical interaction with customers.
7. **Benefits:** Participants will receive psychology extra course credit. Additionally, the study may yield valuable information about emotional displays in the workplace.
8. **Risks:** There are no perceived risks associated with the study.
9. **Right to Refuse:** Participants may withdraw at any time with no penalty.
10. **Privacy:** The results of this study may be published. All data reported will be anonymous.
11. **Release of Information:** Participant identity will be confidential.
12. **Removal:** Participant must work in customer service 20 or more hours per week. If the investigator finds this requirement to be violated, participants will have to withdraw from the study.

The study has been discussed with me and all my questions have been answered. I may direct additional questions regarding study specifics to the investigators. If I have questions about subjects' rights or other concerns, I can contact Robert C. Mathews, Chairman, LSU Institutional Review Board, (225) 578-8692. I agree to participate in the study described above and acknowledge the researchers' obligation to provide me with a copy of this consent form if signed by me.

Subject Signature \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_

Investigator Signature \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_



## APPENDIX B

### INDIVIDUAL AND SITUATIONAL ANTECEDENT MEASURES

#### Positive and Negative Affectivity

- |                       |                      |
|-----------------------|----------------------|
| 1. Interested (PA1)   | 11. Irritable (NA6)  |
| 2. Distressed (NA1)   | 12. Alert (PA6)      |
| 3. Excited (PA2)      | 13. Ashamed (NA7)    |
| 4. Upset (NA2)        | 14. Inspired (PA7)   |
| 5. Strong (PA3)       | 15. Nervous (NA8)    |
| 6. Guilty (NA3)       | 16. Determined (PA8) |
| 7. Scared (NA4)       | 17. Attentive (PA9)  |
| 8. Hostile (NA5)      | 18. Jittery (NA9)    |
| 9. Enthusiastic (PA4) | 19. Active (PA10)    |
| 10. Proud (PA5)       | 20. Afraid (NA10)    |

#### Frequency of Interactions

1. I interact with many different customers on a daily basis.
2. I do not encounter a large number of interactions with customers during my typical workday.
3. I deal with customers on a frequent basis at work.

#### Routineness of Interactions

1. My work with customers is fairly routine.
2. I perform the same tasks in the same way from day-to-day.
3. I perform repetitive activities in my interactions with customers.

### Duration of Interactions

1. I spend a lot of time with each customer I interact with.
2. Most of my interactions with customers are short.
3. My encounters with customers usually last a while.

### Affective Organizational Commitment

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.
2. I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.
3. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
4. I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one.
5. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization.
6. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization.
7. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
8. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.

Agreeableness (Big Five)

- |                      |                        |
|----------------------|------------------------|
| 1. ___ BASHFUL       | 21. ___ MOODY          |
| 2. ___ BOLD          | 22. ___ ORGANIZED      |
| 3. ___ CARELESS      | 23. ___ PHILOSOPHICAL  |
| 4. ___ COLD          | 24. ___ PRACTICAL      |
| 5. ___ COMPLEX       | 25. ___ QUIET          |
| 6. ___ COOPERATIVE   | 26. ___ RELAXED        |
| 7. ___ CREATIVE      | 27. ___ RUDE           |
| 8. ___ DEEP          | 28. ___ SHY            |
| 9. ___ DISORGANIZED  | 29. ___ SLOPPY         |
| 10. ___ EFFICIENT    | 30. ___ SYMPATHETIC    |
| 11. ___ ENERGETIC    | 31. ___ SYSTEMATIC     |
| 12. ___ ENVIOUS      | 32. ___ TALKATIVE      |
| 13. ___ EXTRAVERTED  | 33. ___ TEMPERAMENTAL  |
| 14. ___ FRETFUL      | 34. ___ TOUCHY         |
| 15. ___ HARSH        | 35. ___ UNCREATIVE     |
| 16. ___ IMAGINATIVE  | 36. ___ UNENVIOUS      |
| 17. ___ INEFFICIENT  | 37. ___ UNINTELLECTUAL |
| 18. ___ INTELLECTUAL | 38. ___ UNSYMPATHETIC  |
| 19. ___ JEALOUS      | 39. ___ WARM           |
| 20. ___ KIND         | 40. ___ WITHDRAWN      |

Self Monitoring Scale

1. I find it hard to imitate the behavior of other people.
2. My behavior is usually an expression of my true inner feelings, attitudes, and beliefs.
3. At parties and social gatherings, I do not attempt to do or say things that others will like.
4. I can only argue for ideas in which I already believe.
5. I can make impromptu speeches even on topics about which I have almost no information.
6. I guess I put on a show to impress or entertain people.
7. When I am uncertain how to act in a social situation, I look to the behavior of others for cues.
8. I would probably make a good actor.

9. I rarely need the advice of my friends to choose movies, books, or music.
10. I sometimes appear to others to be experiencing deeper emotions than I actually am.
11. I laugh more when I watch a comedy with others than when alone.
12. In a group of people, I am rarely the center of attention.
13. In different situations and with different people, I often act like very different persons.
14. I am not particularly good at making other people like me.
15. Even if I am not enjoying myself, I often pretend to be having a good time.
16. I'm not always the person I appear to be.
17. I would not change my opinions (or the way I do things) in order to please someone else or win their favor.
18. I have considered being an entertainer.
19. In order to get along and be liked, I tend to be what people expect me to be rather than anything else.
20. I have never been good at games like charades or improvisational acting.
21. At a party I let others keep the jokes and stories going.
22. I have trouble changing my behavior to suit different people and different situations.
23. I feel a bit awkward in company and do not show up quite so well as I should.
24. I can look anyone in the eye and tell a lie with a straight face (if for a right end).
25. I may deceive people by being friendly when I really dislike them.

#### Reward System

1. In my work, I am praised for expressing positive emotions to customers.
2. Displaying positive emotions to customers is rewarded in my job.
3. In my work, my pay is not affected by how nice I am to customers.
4. My workplace does not recognize employees for treating customers nicely.

5. In my job, displaying positive emotions towards customers results in monetary benefits.
6. At work, I receive praise for treating customers well.
7. Displaying positive emotions towards customers goes unrewarded in my work.
8. My pay raises are affected by whether or not I behave positively towards customers.

#### Service Association

1. I typically work with a customer only once.
2. I do not expect to see the same customers again.
3. I expect repeat customers.
4. My interactions with customers are one-time encounters.



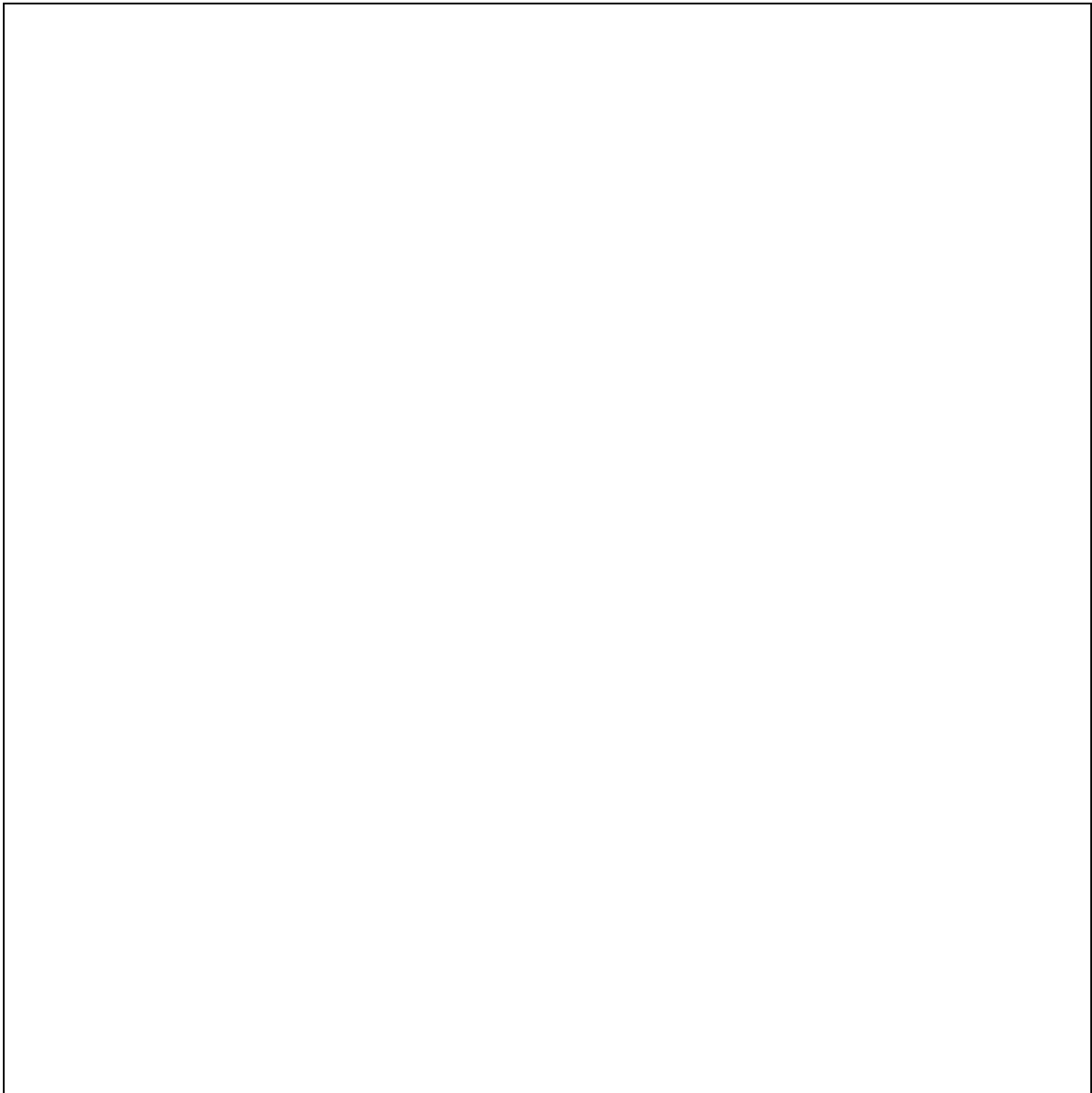
## APPENDIX C

### SCENARIO INDUCTION AND EXPECTANCY, VALENCE, AND COMMITMENT MEASURES

#### Typical Interaction Scenario Induction

Instructions: This section involves you describing and considering different work scenarios. Please take your time to answer the questions as completely as you can. If you have any questions feel free to ask the experimenter.

A. Please use the space below to describe, in a step-by-step fashion, what occurs during your typical interaction with a customer. Think about what happens from the moment you first encounter the individual, to the time the interaction ends. Visualize the interaction and break it down into very specific steps, listing them in the space provided.



Typical Valence

B. Next, please indicate **how satisfied** you would be if you expressed yourself in the following ways during this interaction. That is, indicate how pleased you would be if you expressed positive, expressed neutral, or expressed negative emotions during the **typical customer interaction** you just described. (For each option, circle the number that best matches how satisfied you would be.)

1. Expressing positive emotions (e.g., smiling, speaking in a friendly tone)?

Very Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Neutral	Satisfied	Very Satisfied
1	2	3	4	5

2. Showing no emotions (e.g., showing neither positive nor negative emotion, speaking in a neutral tone)?

Very Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Neutral	Satisfied	Very Satisfied
1	2	3	4	5

3. Expressing negative emotions (e.g., frowning, speaking in a frustrated or irritable tone)?

Very Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Neutral	Satisfied	Very Satisfied
1	2	3	4	5

Typical Expectancy

C. Next, please indicate the likelihood that you could successfully display the following emotions during the customer service interaction you just described. That is, based on the scale provided, what are the chances in 100 that you could successfully perform each of the following emotional displays during the **typical interaction** you just described? Please write your answer in the space provided.

1. What are the chances you could successfully express positive emotions in this situation (e.g., smiling, speaking in a friendly tone)?

\_\_\_\_\_ in 100.

No Chance At All	A Slight Chance	A Fifty-Fifty Chance	A Good Chance	Complete Certainty
0    10	20    30	40    50    60	70    80	90    100

2. What are the chances you could successfully show no emotions in this situation (e.g., showing neither positive nor negative emotions, speaking in a neutral tone)?

\_\_\_\_\_ in 100.

No Chance At All	A Slight Chance	A Fifty-Fifty Chance	A Good Chance	Complete Certainty
0    10	20    30	40    50    60	70    80	90    100

3. What are the chances you could successfully express negative emotions in this situation (e.g., frowning, speaking in a frustrated or irritable tone)?  
 \_\_\_\_\_ in 100.

No Chance At All	A Slight Chance	A Fifty-Fifty Chance	A Good Chance	Complete Certainty
0    10    20	30    40	50    60	70    80	90    100

Typical Commitment

Instructions: Considering the <b>typical interaction</b> you just described, indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements regarding behaving positively toward customers. Behaving positively toward customers involves activities such as smiling and speaking in a friendly tone. Please indicate your response using the scale below. Write the number corresponding to your agreement in the space next to the item.				
1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree

1. \_\_\_\_ It's hard to take displaying positive emotions seriously.
2. \_\_\_\_ It's unrealistic for me to expect to display positive emotions.
3. \_\_\_\_ It is quite likely that I'll need to rethink displaying positive emotions, depending on how things go.
4. \_\_\_\_ Quite frankly, I don't care if I display positive emotions or not.
5. \_\_\_\_ I am strongly committed to displaying positive emotions.

Difficult Interaction Scenario Induction

A. Now imagine that you are engaged in the scenario you just described, but with a very difficult customer. The customers' actions are rude and thoughtless, making it difficult for you to work with this customer.

Difficult Valence

B. Next, please indicate **how satisfied** you would be if you expressed yourself in the following ways during this interaction. That is, indicate how pleased you would be if you expressed positive, expressed neutral, or expressed negative emotions during the interaction with the **difficult customer**. (For each option, circle the number that best matches how satisfied you would be.)

1. Expressing positive emotions (e.g. smiling, speaking in a friendly tone)?

Very Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Neutral	Satisfied	Very Satisfied
1	2	3	4	5

2. Showing no emotions (e.g., showing neither positive nor negative emotions, speaking in a neutral tone)?

Very Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Neutral	Satisfied	Very Satisfied
1	2	3	4	5

3. Expressing negative emotions (e.g., frowning, speaking in a frustrated or angry tone)?

Very Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Neutral	Satisfied	Very Satisfied
1	2	3	4	5

Difficult Expectancy

C. Finally, please indicate the likelihood that you could successfully display the following emotions during the customer service interaction with the **difficult customer**. That is, based on the scale provided, what are the chances in 100 that you could successfully perform each of the following displays during this interaction? Please write your answer in the space provided.

1. What are the chances you could successfully express positive emotions in this situation (e.g., smiling, speaking in a friendly tone)?  
 \_\_\_\_\_ in 100.

No Chance At All	A Slight Chance	A Fifty-Fifty Chance	A Good Chance	Complete Certainty
0    10    20    30    40    50    60    70    80    90    100				

2. What are the chances you could successfully show no emotions in this situation (e.g., showing neither positive nor negative emotions, speaking in a neutral tone)?

No Chance At All	A Slight Chance	A Fifty-Fifty Chance	A Good Chance	Complete Certainty
_____ in 100.				
0    10    20    30    40    50    60    70    80    90    100				

3. What are the chances you could successfully express negative emotions in this situation (e.g., frowning, speaking in a frustrated or irritable tone)?  
 \_\_\_\_\_ in 100.

No Chance At All	A Slight Chance	A Fifty-Fifty Chance	A Good Chance	Complete Certainty
0    10    20    30    40    50    60    70    80    90    100				

Difficult Commitment

Instructions: Considering this interaction with a **difficult customer**, indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements regarding behaving positively toward customers. Behaving positively toward customers involves activities such as smiling and speaking in a friendly tone. Please indicate your response using the scale below. Write the number corresponding to your agreement in the space next to the item.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree

1. \_\_\_\_ It's hard to take displaying positive emotions seriously.
2. \_\_\_\_ It's unrealistic for me to expect to display positive emotions.
3. \_\_\_\_ It is quite likely that I'll need to rethink displaying positive emotions, depending on how things go.
4. \_\_\_\_ Quite frankly, I don't care if I display positive emotions or not.
5. \_\_\_\_ I am strongly committed to displaying positive emotions.

\*\*\*Lastly, is dealing with this type of difficult customer likely to occur in your customer service work? Using the scale below, please circle your answer.\*\*\*

1	2	3	4	5
Extremely Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Extremely Likely

## VITA

Meredith Croyle is originally from Waco, Texas. She graduated from Vanguard College Preparatory School in 1997, as a national merit commended scholar. She then completed her undergraduate education at Trinity University in San Antonio, Texas, graduating with honors in May, 2001. She is currently a graduate student in the Department of Psychology at Louisiana State University. She will receive her Master of Arts degree in May, 2004. Her future plans involve pursuing a career in industrial and organizational consulting.